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THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

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READING AND RESEARCH

VOLUME VIII

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THE NEW LEARNED HISTORY

FOR SEVERAL DIFFERENCE
READING AND RESEARCH

THE ACTUAL WORDS OF THE WORLD'S BEST HISTORIANS
BIOGRAPHERS AND SPECIALISTS

A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF HISTORY FOR ALL USES—EXTENDING TO
ALL COUNTRIES AND SUBJECTS AND REPRESENTING
THE BETTER AND NEWER LITERATURE
OF HISTORY

BASED ON THE WORK OF THE

J. N. LARNED

NOW COMPLETELY REVISED, ENLARGED, AND REARRANGED UP TO DATE

WITH A LARGE NUMBER OF TEXT ILLUSTRATIONS, MAPS AND CHARTS
MANY OF THEM FULL-PAGE ILLUSTRATIONS, IN DECORATIVE, AND OTHER STYLES, AND OTHERS
DOUBLE AND SINGLE-PAGE HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL MAPS, FROM ORIGINAL
STUDIES AND DRAWINGS BY LARNED

IN 12 VOLUMES

VOL. VIII.—NORMAN CONQUEST OF ENGLAND, A.D. 1066



SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS
C. A. NICHOLS PUBLISHING COMPANY
BOSTON AND PHOENIX, U.S.A.

1884

A battle in which the English began to lose the battle of Tewkesbury, 1471. After burning the city of Tewkesbury, the English began to lose the battle of Tewkesbury, 1471.

OF RYCE, A.D. 1471. BEYOND THE BATTLE OF RYCE, A.D. 1471.

1884
26/2/84

PEASANT TROOPS OF KOSCIUSZKO IN PRAYER BEFORE THE BATTLE
OF RACLAWICE

A battle in which the Polish peasant troops of Kosciuszko, armed with scythes and pikes, won a brilliant victory over a Russian army of about 6,000 troops, April 4, 1794.

(After painting by Jan Chelminski)



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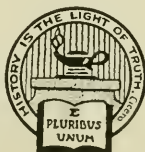
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VOL. VIII.—NORM TO ROME, B.C. 53



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VOLUME VIII

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NORMANDY, province of northern France bordering on the English channel. See **FRANCE:** Maps of Medieval period 1154, to 1360.

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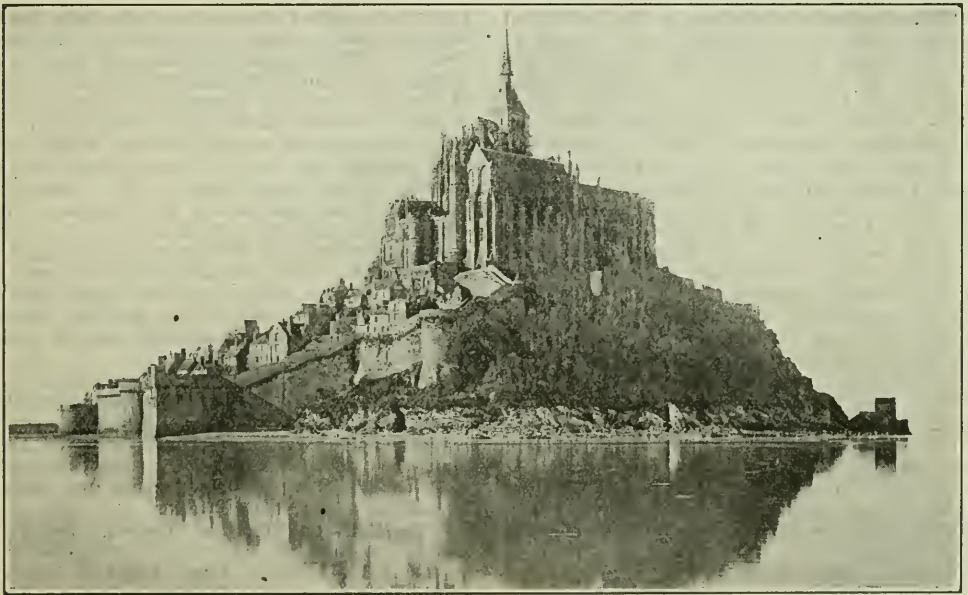
Lineage of dukes. See **ENGLAND:** 855-880.

876-911.—Rollo's conquest and occupation.

See **NORMANS:** 876-911.

911-1000.—Strength of Rollo's duchy.—Nor-

have been taken up for his Swedish origin. . . . [But] the Norwegian theory seems . . . the most probable, being based on a trustworthy saga and corroborated by other incidental evidence. . . . The important fact is that Norway, Denmark, and even more distant Sweden, all contributed to the colonists who settled in Normandy under Rollo and his successors, and the achievements of the Normans thus become the common heritage of the Scandinavian race. . . . At this point the fundamental question forces itself upon us, how far was Normandy affected by Scandinavian influences? What in race and language, in law and custom,



MOUNT SAINT MICHEL, NORMANDY

Acquired by Rollo of Norway, 911 A. D.

mans become French.—Scandinavian contribution.—In the year 911 the "Frankish king, Charles the Simple, granted Rollo as a fief a considerable part, the eastern part, of later Normandy, . . . [that is], the region on either side of the Seine which came to be known as Upper Normandy, and it was not till 924 that the Northmen acquired also middle Normandy, or the Bessin, while the west, the Cotentin and the Avranchin, fell to them only in 933. . . . The saga makes . . . [Rollo] a Norwegian, but Danish scholars have sought to prove him a Dane, and more recently the cudgels

was the contribution of the north to Normandy? And the answer must be that in most respects the tangible contribution was slight. Whatever may have been the state of affairs in the age of colonization and settlement, by the century which followed the Normans had become to a surprising degree absorbed by their environment."—C. H. Haskins, *Normans in European history*, pp. 27-29, 48.—"It is now generally admitted . . . that for at least half a century before the battle of Hastings, the Normans were Frenchmen, French in their language, French in their law, proud indeed of

their past history, very ready to fight against other Frenchmen if Norman home-rule was endangered, but still Frenchmen, who regarded Normandy as a member of the state or congeries of states that owed service, we can hardly say obedience, to the king at Paris. Their spoken language was French, their written language was Latin, but the Latin of France; the style of their legal documents was the style of the French chancery; very few of the technical terms of their law were of Scandinavian origin. When at length the 'custom' of Normandy appears in writing, it takes its place among other French customs, and this although for a long time past Normandy has formed one of the dominions of a prince, between whom and the king of the French there has been little love and frequent war; and the peculiar characteristics which mark off the custom of Normandy from other French customs seem due much rather to the legislation of Henry of Anjou than to any Scandinavian tradition."—F. Pollock and F. W. Maitland, *History of English law*, v. 1, p. 66.—"The law of Normandy was by this time Frankish, and its speech was French. Even the second duke, William Longsword [son and successor of Duke Rollo or Hrolf, 927-943] found it necessary to send his son to Bayeux to learn Norse, for it was no longer spoken at Rouen. And in the French of Normandy, the Norman dialect, the Scandinavian element is astonishingly small. . . . Only in one department of life, the life of the sea, is any considerable Scandinavian influence discernible. . . . The Scandinavian contribution to the making of Normandy was . . . Normandy itself, created as a distinct entity by the Norman occupation, and the grant to Rollo and his followers, without whom it would have remained an undifferentiated part of northern France. Next, a new element in the population, numerically small in proportion to the mass, but a leaven to the whole—quick to absorb Frankish law and Christian culture but retaining its northern qualities of enterprise, of daring, and of leadership. It is no accident that the names of the leaders in early Norman movements are largely Norse. And finally a race of princes, high-handed and masterful but with a talent for political organization, state-builders at home and abroad, who made Normandy the strongest and most centralized principality in France and joined to it a kingdom beyond the seas which became the strongest state in western Europe."—C. H. Haskins, *Normans in European history*, pp. 50-51.

ALSO IN: K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, pp. 145-153.—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and of England*.—E. A. Freeman, *History of the Norman conquest of England*.

1014.—Defeat in Ireland by Brian Boru. See IRELAND: 1014.

1016-1042.—Rule of Danes in England. See ENGLAND: 1016-1042.

1035-1063.—Duke William establishes his authority.—Duke Robert of Normandy (Robert the Devil) who died in 1035 was succeeded by his young son, William, who bore in youth the opprobrious name of the "Bastard," but who extinguished it in later life under the proud appellation of "the Conqueror." By reason of his bastardy he was not an acceptable successor. As long as Robert lived, the nobles submitted in sullen silence [to his desire that his son should succeed him], but the news of his death [in the Holy Land while on a pilgrimage] was the signal for general anarchy. . . . Taking advantage of . . . [William's] minority and the questionable character of his title, the nobles threw off all allegiance, entrenched themselves within their fortified castles which

sprang up on all sides, defied authority and harassed the country with their private quarrels and assassinations. . . . Hitherto . . . there had been no organized opposition. . . . [But], warned by the rapidly developing powers of William (he was by this time [1047] nineteen or twenty) that they must strike at once if they would strike at all, the nobles organized a wide-spread conspiracy. No claimants had as yet come forward to dispute the coronet with William. But now, Guy, Count of Burgundy, the son of Renaud and his wife Alice, sister of Richard III. [and Robert the Devil], claimed the duchy as his right by birth. His appeal was readily answered by the lords of the Côtentin and the Bessin, with whom he promised to share his conquest. . . . William, awakened from his sleep at Valognes by the warning cry of his court fool, 'Up, up, my lord duke; open, flee, delay is death!' with difficulty escaped an attempted surprise, and flying to the strong castle of Falaise, his birth-place, summoned the faithful to his support. His authority was acknowledged by the districts east of the Dives, and by the towns and people generally, who, we are told, even in the Bessin and the Côtentin, cursed the rebels, and in their hearts wished well to the duke. . . . The strike which ensued took the character of a war between the semi-Scandinavian Bessin and Côtentin of the west, and the romance element of the east, a division which, often noticeable before in the history of Normandy, was here to appear for the last time. The forces met at Val-ès Dunes, [1047] on a broad sloping plain some miles southeast of Caen, bounded to the west by the river Orne. . . . The struggle was long and severe. . . . William, more fortunate than his royal ally [Henry of France], here first began his successful career in arms, and struck down many a rebel knight. At last the rebels gave ground and were beaten back, then turned and fled. . . . The results of this crushing defeat were decisive. Guy soon after came to terms, and retired to Burgundy. The other nobles submitted, their castles were everywhere destroyed, and William, after a struggle of twelve years, found himself at last master of Normandy. His success had been entirely due to his energy and masterly ability, and his triumph was marked by singular leniency."—A. H. Johnson, *Normans in Europe*, pp. 92-95.

ALSO IN: F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, bk. 2, ch. 4.—E. A. Freeman, *Short history of the Norman conquest*, ch. 4.

1066.—Duke William becomes king of England. See ENGLAND: 1042-1066; 1066; 1066-1071.

1087-1135.—Under Duke Robert and Henry Beauleerc. See ENGLAND: 1087-1135.

1096.—Crusade of Duke Robert. See CRUSADES: 1006-1090.

1203-1205.—Wrested from England and restored to France. See FRANCE: 1180-1224; ENGLAND: 1205.

1419.—Conquest by Henry V of England. See FRANCE: 1417-1422.

1449.—Recovery from the English. See FRANCE: 1431-1453.

16th Century.—Spread of Reformation.—Strength of Protestantism. See FRANCE: 1559-1561.

NORMANS, NORSEMEN, NORTHMEN: Name and origin.—"The northern pirates, variously called Danes or Normans, according as they came from the islands of the Baltic Sea or the coast of Norway, . . . descended from the same primitive race with the Anglo-Saxons and the Franks; their language had roots identical with the idioms of these two nations: but this token of an ancient fraternity did not preserve from

their hostile incursions either Saxon Britain or Frankish Gaul, nor even the territory beyond the Rhine, then exclusively inhabited by Germanic tribes. The conversion of the southern Teutons to the Christian faith had broken all bond of fraternity between them and the Teutons of the north. In the 9th century the man of the north still gloried in the title of son of Odin, and treated as bastards and apostates the Germans who had become children of the church. . . . A sort of religious and patriotic fanaticism was thus combined in the Scandinavian with the fiery impulsiveness of their character, and an insatiable thirst for gain. They shed with joy the blood of the priests, were especially delighted at pillaging the churches, and stabled their horses in the chapels of the palaces. . . . In three days, with an east wind, the fleets of Denmark and Norway, two-sailed vessels, reached the south of Britain. The soldiers of each fleet obeyed in general one chief, whose vessel was distinguished from the rest by some particular ornament. . . . All equal under such a chief, bearing lightly their voluntary submission and the weight of their mailed armour, which they promised themselves soon to exchange for an equal weight of gold, the Danish pirates pursued the 'road of the swans,' as their ancient national poetry expressed it. Sometimes they coasted along the shore, and laid wait for the enemy in the straits, the bays, and smaller anchorages, which procured them the surname of Vikings, or 'children of the creeks;' sometimes they dashed in pursuit of their prey across the ocean."—A. Thierry, *Conquest of England by the Normans*, v. 1, bk. 2.—See *EUROPE*: Map showing barbaric migrations.

ALSO IN: T. Carlyle, *Early kings of Norway*.

Northern invasions in British Isles and on the continent.—Culture of Northmen.—"When the great northern invasions began at the close of the eighth century, Charles the Great ruled all the Christian lands of the western Continent. . . . By fire and sword he converted the heathen Saxons of the north to Christianity and civilization and advanced his frontier to the Danish border. . . . From the actuality of . . . an invasion [by the Danes] the great Charles was spared, but in the British Isles it had already begun. In 787 the Anglo-Saxon *Chronicle* tells us there 'first came three ships of Northmen out of Haeretha-land' [Denmark], whereupon the reeve of the Dorset port 'rode down to the place and would have driven them to the king's town, because he knew not who they were; and they there slew him. These were the first ships of Danishmen which sought the land of the English nation.' Six years later they fell upon the holy isle of Lindisfarne, pillaged the church sacred with the memories of Northumbrian Christianity, and slew the monks or drove them into the sea. In 807 they first landed in Ireland, and 'after this there came great sea-cast floods of foreigners into Erin, so that there was not a point thereof without a fleet.' Then came the turn of the Continent, first along the coast of Frisia and Flanders, and then in what is now France. In 841, when the grandsons of Charlemagne were quarrelling over the fragments of his empire at Fontenay, the first fleet of Northmen entered the Seine; in 843 when they were making their treaty of partition at Verdun, the Vikings entered Nantes on St. John's Day and slew the bishop before the high altar as he intoned the *Sursum corda* of the mass. Within two years they sacked Hamburg and Paris. Wherever possible they established themselves at the mouths of the great rivers, often on an island like Walcheren, Noirmoutier, or the Ile de Rhé, whence the rivers

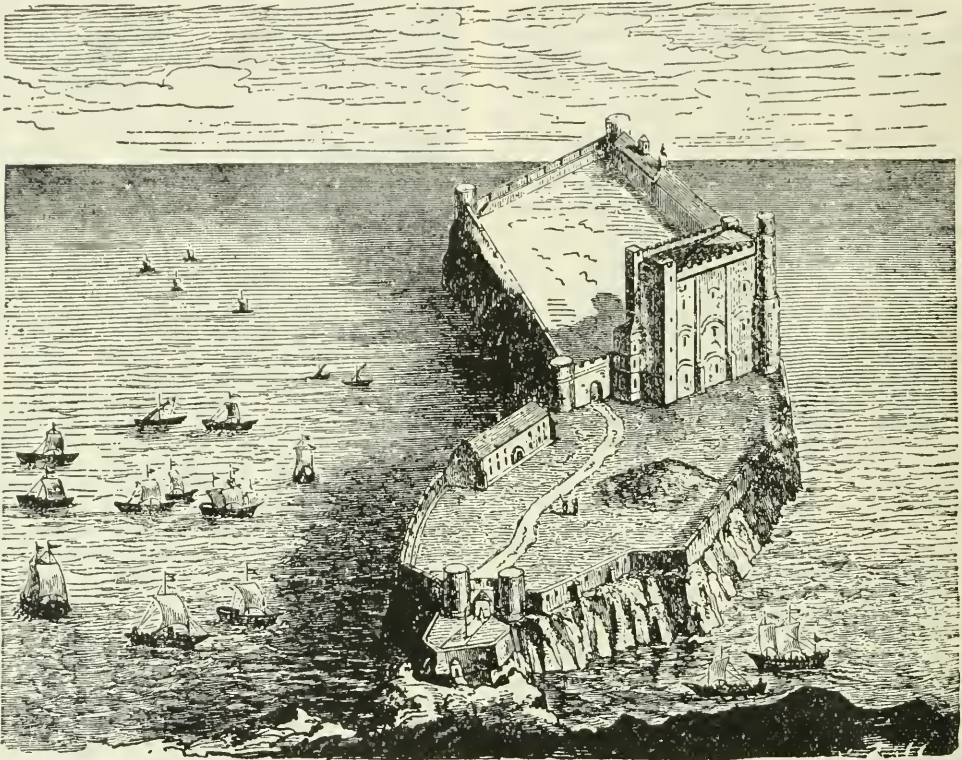
opened the whole country to them—Elbe and Weser, Rhine and Meuse, Scheldt, Seine, Loire, and Garonne, even to the Guadalquivir, by which the Arabic chronicler tells us the 'dark red seabirds' penetrated to Seville. One band more venturesome than the rest, entered the Mediterranean and reached Marseilles, whence under their leader Hastings they sacked the Italian town of Luna, apparently in the belief that it was Rome. About the middle of the ninth century the number of the Norse pirates greatly increased and their ravages became more regular and constant, leading in many cases to permanent settlements. In 855 the Old English *Chronicle* tells us 'the heathen men, for the first time, remained over winter in Sheppey,' at the mouth of the Thames, and thereafter, year by year, it recounts the deeds of the Viking band which wintered in England and is called simply *here*, the army. . . . In 878 during mid-winter 'the army stole away to Chippenham and overran the land of the West-Saxons and sat down there; and many of the people they drove beyond sea, and of the remainder the greater part they subdued and forced to obey them except King Alfred, and he, with a small band, with difficulty retreated to the woods and to the fastnesses of the moors.' The following year [879] a similar band, now swollen into 'the great army' made its appearance on the Continent and for fourteen years ravaged the territory between the Rhine and the Loire. Year after year 'the steel of the heathen glistened;' in 886 they laid siege to Paris, which was relieved not by the king's valor but by his offering them Burgundy to plunder instead. A century later the English began to buy them off with Danegeld. . . . There was nothing to do but add a new petition to the litany, 'From the fury of the Northmen, Good Lord, deliver us.' To the writers of the time, who could not see the permanent results of Viking settlement, the Northmen were barbarian pirates, without piety or pity, 'who wept neither for their sins nor for their dead,' and their expeditions were mere wanton pillage and destruction. Moreover, these writers were regularly monks or priests, and it was the church that suffered most severely. A walled town or castle might often successfully resist, but the monasteries, protected from Christian freebooters by their sacred character, were simply so many opportunities for plunder to the heathen of the north. Sometimes the monks perished with their monastery, often they escaped only with their lives and a few precious title-deeds, to find on their return merely a heap of blackened ruins and a desolate countryside. Many religious establishments utterly disappeared in the course of the invasions. In Normandy scarcely a church survives anterior to the tenth century. As the monasteries were at this time the chief centres of learning and culture throughout western Europe, their losses were the losses of civilization, and in this respect the verdict of the monastic chroniclers is justified. There is, however, another side to the story, which Scandinavian scholars have not been slow to emphasize. Heathen still and from one point of view barbarian, the Northmen had yet a culture of their own, well advanced on its material side, notable in its artistic skill, and rich in its treasures of poetry and story. . . . Judged by contemporary standards, the Vikings were not barbarians. They rather show a strange combination of the primitive and the civilized—elemental passions expressing themselves with a high degree of literary art, barbaric adornment wrought with skilled craftsmanship, Berserker rage supplemented by clever strategy, pitiless savagery combined with a strong sense of

public order, constant feuds and murders co-existent with a most elaborate system of law and legal procedure. Young from our point of view, the civilization of the Vikings had behind it a history of perhaps fifteen centuries."—C. H. Haskins, *Normans in European history*, pp. 31-35.—See also BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 5th-10th centuries; BRITANY: 912-936.

ALSO IN: P. B. Du Chaillu, *Viking age*.—S. Laing, *Preliminary dissertation to Heimskringla*.—C. F. Keary, *Vikings of western Christendom*, ch. 5.

Influence of Vikings upon British Isles and the continent.—"The Norsemen brought with them to Ireland the ideas of cities, commerce, and municipal life hitherto unknown. The introduction

England."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, v. 1, pp. 79-80.—"The English were satisfied with rural life; they were little attracted by the towns which the Romans had built, and they did not devote themselves to commercial pursuits or the manufacturing of articles for sale. The Danes [meaning all Vikings, Danes and Norwegians] though so closely allied in race, appear to have been men of a different type. They were great as traders and also as seamen. . . . England has attained a character for her shipping and has won the supremacy of the world in manufacturing; it almost seems as if she were indebted, on those sides of life on which she is most successful, to the fresh energy and enterprise ingrafted by Danish settlers and conquerors."—W. Cunningham



CASTLE OF A NORTHMAN SEA-KING

of these supposed a total change necessary in the customs of the natives, and stringent regulations to which the people could not but be radically opposed. . . . No more stringent rules could be devised, whether for municipal, rural or social regulations; and, as the Northmen are known to have been of a systematic mind, no stronger proof of this fact could be given."—A. J. Thebaud, *Ireland, past and present*, p. 122. See IRELAND: 5th-9th centuries.—"A lively intercourse was . . . maintained between Ireland and the English seacoast towns across the Irish Sea, which had either been founded or developed by the Vikings. Several of these towns grew into prominence, . . . especially Bristol, which had become a great trading center. . . . In the Midlands, the towns of the Five Boroughs, Lincoln, Leicester, Nottingham, Stamford and Derby became cities of importance. . . . At the time of the Domesday Book, York was next to London and Winchester, the largest city in

and E. A. McArthur, *Outlines of English industrial history*, p. 11.—"It is the great achievement of the Normans that they gave France a navy. There was no longer any navy in France, and she had ceased to be numbered among maritime nations. The Normans reestablished the marine, and William the Conqueror succeeded in forming a fleet, the like of which France had not seen. The conquests made by the Normans in Sicily were due in part to their superiority in navigation."—G. B. Depping, *Histoire des expéditions maritime des Normands, et leur établissement en France au dixième siècle*, book 4, ch. 3.—"The building of castles was first developed in Normandy, and the *donjon* or square tower, so typical in medieval castles, is thought to be of Viking origin. In Ireland the Norsemen began to build fortified strongholds as early as 846. . . . Dublin, where stood the royal hall or castle, with its massive stone tower, was surrounded by walls and moats. . . . York and the

cities of the Five Boroughs in England were also well fortified. The Roman towns in early Britain were destroyed by the Anglo-Saxons when they conquered the country. . . . Many of these old ruined cities were rebuilt by the Vikings, and many new ones were founded. These Viking cities were the first to show the signs of municipal and urban life, both in Great Britain and Ireland. They became centers, not only of trade, but also of industry, as the Danes and Norsemen also devoted themselves to industrial pursuits, and produced wares of their own make for the general market. The Vikings had a keen sense for legal justice, and maintained strict order in their towns. They developed a system of city laws of which traces are still found in English city government."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, v. 1, p. 81.

ALSO IN: A Bugge, *History of the Norsemen in Ireland*.

5th-9th centuries.—Military organization.—Types of warships. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 13; 15; SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-9th centuries; WARSHIPS: 9th century.

8th-9th centuries.—Island empire of Vikings. "We have hitherto treated the Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes under the common appellation of Northmen. . . . Still, in tracing the history of their conquests, we may lay it down as a general rule that England was the exclusive prey of the Danes, that Scotland and the islands to the north as far as Iceland, and to the south as far as Anglesea and Ireland, fell to the Norwegians, and Russia to the Swedes; while Gaul and Germany were equally the spoil of the Norwegians and the Danes. . . . While England had been overcome by the Danes, the Norwegians had turned their attention chiefly to the north of the British Isles and the islands of the West. Their settlements naturally fell into three divisions, which tally with their geographical position. 1. The Orkneys and Shetlands, lying to the N. E. of Scotland. 2. The isles to the west as far south as Ireland. 3. Iceland and the Faroë Isles. The Orkneys and Shetlands: Here the Northmen first appear as early as the end of the 8th century, and a few peaceful settlements were made by those who were anxious to escape from the noisy scenes which distracted their northern country. In the reign of Harald Harfagr [the Fairhaired] they assumed new importance, and their character is changed. Many of those driven out by Harald sought a refuge here, and betaking themselves to piracy periodically infested the Norwegian coast in revenge for their defeat and expulsion. These ravages seriously disturbing the peace of his newly acquired kingdom, Harald fitted out an expedition and devoted a whole summer to conquering the Vikings and extirpating the brood of pirates. The country being gained, he offered it to his chief adviser, Rögnwald, Jarl of Möri in Norway, father of Rollo of Normandy, who, though refusing to go himself, held it during his life as a family possession, and sent Sigurd, his brother, there. . . . Rögnwald next sent his son Einar, and from his time [875] we may date the final establishment of the Jarls of Orkney, who henceforth owe a nominal allegiance to the King of Norway. . . . In the Keltic annals these unwelcome visitors had gained the name of Fingall, 'the white strangers,' from the fairness of their complexion; and Dugall the black strangers, probably from the iron coats of mail worn by their chiefs. . . . By the end of the 9th century a sort of naval empire had arisen, consisting of the Hebrides, parts of the western coasts of Scotland, especially the modern Argyll-

shire, Man, Anglesea, and the eastern shores of Ireland. This empire was under a line of sovereigns who called themselves the Hy-Ivar (grandsons of Ivar), and lived now in Man, now in Dublin. Thence they often joined their kinsmen in their attacks on England, and at times aspired to the position of Jarls of the Danish Northumbria."—A. H. Johnson, *Normans in Europe*, ch. 2.—See also BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 5th-10th centuries.—"Under the government of these Norwegian princes [the Hy-Ivar] the Isles appear to have been very flourishing. They were crowded with people; the arts were cultivated, and manufactures were carried to a degree of perfection which was then thought excellence. This comparatively advanced state of society in these remote isles may be ascribed partly to the influence and instructions of the Irish clergy, who were established all over the island before the arrival of the Norwegians, . . . and partly to the arrival of great numbers of the provincial Britons flying to them as an asylum when their country was ravaged by the Saxons, and carrying with them the remains of the science, manufactures, and wealth introduced among them by their Roman masters. Neither were the Norwegians themselves in those ages destitute of a considerable portion of learning and of skill in the useful arts, in navigation, fisheries, and manufactures; nor were they in any respect such barbarians as those who know them only by the declamations of the early English writers may be apt to suppose them."—D. Macpherson, *Geographical illustrations of Scottish history* (quoted by J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland*, v. 2, ch. 15, footnote).—See also IRELAND: 9th-10th centuries; SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-11th centuries.

787-880.—So-called Danish invasions and settlements in England.—"In . . . [the] English chronicles, 'Dena' or Dane is used as the common term for all the Scandinavian invaders of Britain, though not including the Swedes, who took no part in the attack, while Northman generally means 'man of Norway.' Asser however uses the words as synonymous, 'Nordmanni sive Dani.' Across the channel 'Northman' was the general name for the pirates, and 'Dane' would usually mean a pirate from Denmark. The distinction however is partly a chronological one; as, owing to the late appearance of the Danes in the middle of the ninth century, and the prominent part they then took in the general Wiking movement, their name tended from that time to narrow the area of the earlier term of 'Nordmanni.'"—J. R. Green, *Conquest of England*, p. 68, footnote.—Prof. Freeman divides the Danish invasions of England into three periods: 1. The period of merely plundering incursions, which began 787. 2. The period of actual occupation and settlement, from 866 to the Peace of Wedmore, 880. 3. The later period of conquest, within which England was governed by Danish kings, 980-1042.—See also ENGLAND: 855-880; 976-1016.

ALSO IN: C. F. Keary, *Vikings in western Christendom*, ch. 6 and 12.

9th-11th centuries.—Conversion to Christianity. See CHRISTIANITY: 9th-11th centuries.

818-912.—Rule over Armorica. See ARMORICA; BRITANNY: 818-912.

841.—First expedition up the Seine.—In May, 841, the Seine was entered for the first time by a fleet of Norse pirates, whose depredations in France had been previously confined to the coasts. The expedition was commanded by a chief named Osler, whose plans appear to have been well laid. He led his pirates straight to the rich city of Rouen, never suffering them to slacken oar or sail,

or to touch the tempting country through which they passed, until the great prize was struck. "The city was fired and plundered. Defence was wholly impracticable, and great slaughter ensued. . . . Osler's three days' occupation of Rouen was remuneratingly successful. Their vessels loaded with spoil and captives, gentle and simple, clerks, merchants, citizens, soldiers, peasants, nuns, dames, damsels, the Danes dropped down the Seine, to complete their devastation on the shores. . . . The Danes then quitted the Seine, having formed their plans for renewing the encouraging enterprize,—another time they would do more. Normandy dates from Osler's three days' occupation of Rouen."—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: C. F. Keary, *Vikings in western Christendom*, ch. 9.

tlement lasted, it grew, it became a power in Europe, and in Gaul it became even a determining power. . . . The lasting character of his work at once proves that the founder of the Rouen colony was a great man, but he is a great man who must be content to be judged in the main by the results of his actions. The authentic history of Rolf, Rollo, or Rou, may be summed up in a very short space. We have no really contemporary narrative of his actions, unless a few meagre and uncertain entries in some of the Frankish annals may be thought to deserve that name. . . . He is described as having been engaged in the calling of a Viking both in Gaul and in Britain for nearly forty years before his final occupation of Rouen. . . . The exploits attributed to Rolf are spread over so many years, that we cannot help suspecting that the deeds of other chieftains have been attributed to



LEIF ERICSSON APPROACHING THE SHORE OF NORTH AMERICA

(After the painting by O. A. Wergeland)

845-861.—Repeated ravages in the Seine.—Paris thrice sacked. See PARIS: 845; 857-861.

860-1100.—Discovery and settlement of Iceland.—Development of saga literature. See ICELAND: Geography; 870-1004; SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 9th-13th centuries.

876-911.—Rollo's acquisition of Normandy.—"One alone among the Scandinavian settlements in Gaul was destined to play a real part in history. This was the settlement of Rolf or Rollo at Rouen. [The genuine name is Hrolfr, Rolf, in various spellings. The French form is Rou, sometimes Rous; . . . the Latin is Rollo.—Footnote.] This settlement, the kernel of the great Norman Duchy, had . . . results of its own and an importance of its own, which distinguish it from every other Danish colony in Gaul. But it is well to bear in mind that it was only one colony among several, and that, when the cession was made, it was probably not expected to be more lasting or more important than the others. But, while the others soon lost any distinctive character, the Rouen set-

him, perhaps that two leaders of the same name have been confounded. Among countless expeditions in Gaul, England, and Germany, we find Rolf charged with an earlier visit to Rouen [876], with a share in the great siege of Paris [885 (see PARIS: 885-886)], and with an occupation or destruction of Bayeux. But it is not till we have got some way into the reign of Charles the Simple, not till we have passed several years of the tenth century, that Rolf begins clearly to stand out as a personal historic reality. He now appears in possession of Rouen, or of whatever vestiges of the city had survived his former ravages, and from that starting-point he assaulted Chartres. Beneath the walls of that city he underwent a defeat [911] at the hands of the Dukes Rudolf of Burgundy and Robert of Paris, which was attributed to the miraculous powers of the great local relic, the under-garment of the Virgin. But this victory, like most victories over the Northmen, had no lasting effect. Rolf was not dislodged from Rouen, nor was his career of devastation and con-

quest at all seriously checked. But, precisely as in the case of Guthrum in England, his evident disposition to settle in the country suggested an attempt to change him from a devastating enemy into a peaceable neighbour. The Peace of Clair-on-Epte [911] was the duplicate of the Peace of Wedmore, and King Charles and Duke Robert of Paris most likely had the Peace of Wedmore before their eyes. A definite district was ceded to Rolf, for which he became the King's vassal; he was admitted to baptism and received the king's natural daughter in marriage. And, just as in the English case, the territory ceded was not part of the King's immediate dominions. . . . The grant to Rolf was made at the cost not of the Frankish King at Laon but of the French Duke at Paris. The district ceded to Rolf was part of the great Neustrian March or Duchy which had been granted to Odo [or Eudes] of Paris and which was now held by his brother Duke Robert. . . . It must not be thought that the district now ceded to Rolf took in the whole of the later Duchy of Normandy. Rouen was the heart of the new state, which took in lands on both sides of the Seine. From the Epte to the sea was its undoubted extent from the south-east to the north. But the western frontier is much less clearly defined. . . . The district granted to Rolf . . . had—sharing therein the fate of Germany and France—no recognized geographical name. Its inhabitants were the Northmen, the Northmen of the Seine, the Northmen of Rouen. The land itself was, till near the end of the century, simply the Land of the Northmen"—the Terra Northmannorum.—E. A. Freeman, *History of the Norman conquest of England*, v. 1, ch. 4.—See also FRANCE: 877-987.

ALSO IN: F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, bk. 1, ch. 3-5.—A Thierry, *Norman conquest of England*, bk. 2.—C. F. Keary, *Vikings in western Christendom*, ch. 9-15.

979-1016.—Danish conquest of England. See ENGLAND: 979-1016.

986-1011.—Supposed voyages to America. See AMERICA: 10th-11th centuries.

10th-11th centuries.—Stronghold of Danish vikings on the Oder river. See JOMSBORG.

10th-13th centuries.—Breaking up of the Norse island empire.—"At the close of the 10th and beginning of the 11th century the battles of Tara and Clontarf overthrew the power of these Norsemen (or Ostmen as they were called) in Ireland, and restored the authority of the native Irish sovereign. About this time they [the 'Hy-Ivar,' or sovereigns of the island empire of the Northmen (see above: 8th-9th centuries)] became Christians, and in the year 1066 we find one of their princes joining Harald Hardrada of Norway in his invasion of England, which ended so disastrously in the battle of Stamford Bridge. Magnus of Norway, thirty-two years later, after subduing the independent Jarls of Shetland and the Orkneys, attempted to reassert his supremacy along the western coast. But after conquering Anglesea, whence he drove out the Normans [from England] who had just made a settlement there, he crossed to Ireland to meet his death in battle. The sovereignty of the Isles was then restored to its original owners, but soon after split into two parts—the Suderies and Norderies (whence the term Sodor and Man), north and south of Ardnamurchan Point. The next glimpse we have of these dominions is at the close of the 12th century, when we find them under a chief named Somarled, who exercised authority in the islands and Argyleshire, and from him the clans of the Highlands and the Western Isles love to trace their ancestry. After

his death, according to the Highland traditions, the islands and Argyleshire were divided amongst his three sons. Thus the old Norse empire was finally broken up, and in the 13th century, after another unsuccessful attempt by Haco, King of Norway, to re-establish the authority of the mother kingdom over their distant possessions, an attempt which ended in his defeat at the battle of Largs by the Scottish king, Alexander III., they were ceded to the Scottish kings by Magnus IV., his son, and an alliance was cemented between the two kingdoms by the marriage of Alexander's daughter, Margaret, to Eric of Norway." At the north of Scotland the Jarls of Orkney, in the eleventh century, "conquered Caithness and Sutherland, and wrested a recognition of their claim from Malcolm II. of Scotland. Their influence was continually felt in the dynastic and other quarrels of Scotland; the defeat of Duncan, in 1040, by the Jarl of Orkney, contributing not a little to Duncan's subsequent overthrow by Macbeth. They fostered the independence of the north of Scotland against the southern king, and held their kingdom until, in 1355, it passed by the female line to the house of Sinclair. The Sinclairs now transferred their allegiance to their natural master, the King of Scotland; and finally the kingdom of the Orkneys was handed over to James III. as the dowry of his bride, Margaret of Norway."—A. H. Johnson, *Normans in Europe*, ch. 2.—See also IRELAND: 1014; SHETLAND, OR ZETLAND, ISLANDS: 8th-13th centuries.

ALSO IN: J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland*, v. 2, ch. 15.

1000-1063.—Northmen in France become French. See NORMANDY: 911-1000; 1035-1063.

1000-1194.—Conquests and settlement in Southern Italy and Sicily. See ITALY (SOUTHERN): 1000-1090; 1081-1194; GERMANY: 1138-1197.

1014.—Defeat by Brian Boru in Ireland. See IRELAND: 1014.

1016-1042.—Reign of Danish kings in England. See ENGLAND: 1016-1042.

1066-1071.—Conquest of England by Duke William of Normandy.—Effect on Scotland.—Norman London. See ENGLAND: 1042-1066; 1066; 1066-1071; LONDON: 1054-1066; SCOTLAND: 1066.

1081-1085.—Attempted conquest of Byzantine empire. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1081-1085.

1084.—Sack and burning of Rome. See ROME: Medieval city: 1081-1084.

1146.—Ravages in Greece. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1146.

1199-1260.—Fighting in Ulster against Irish king.—Norman victory at Downkirkpatrick. See ULSTER: 1199-1260.

14th century.—Extent of holdings in Ireland. See IRELAND: 13th-14th centuries.

1504.—Early enterprise on Newfoundland fishing banks. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1501-1578.

See also ARCHITECTURE: Medieval: French and Norman; ENGLISH LITERATURE: Formation; 6th-11th centuries; 11th-14th centuries; FEUDALISM: Continental growth.

NORSE LITERATURE. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE.

NORSE MYTHOLOGY. See MYTHOLOGY: Germanic: Identification of Germanic gods.

NORSEMEN. See NORMANS.

NORTH, Frederick, 2nd Earl of Guilford (1732-1792). English statesman. Prime minister, 1778-1782. See ENGLAND: 1770; 1776-1778; 1782-1783; INDIA: 1770-1773; U.S.A.: 1782 (February-May).

NORTH AMERICA, Bank of. See **BANK OF NORTH AMERICA**.

NORTH ANNA, Passage of. See **U.S.A.**: 1864 (May: Virginia).

NORTH BRITON NO. 45, article which appeared in the magazine *North Briton*, attacking a speech made by George III. See **ENGLAND**: 1762-1764.

NORTH CAROLINA: Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—North Carolina is a south Atlantic state, bounded on the north by Virginia, on the east by the Atlantic ocean, on the south by the Atlantic and South Carolina, and on the west by Tennessee. Its total area is 54,426 square miles, of which 3,686 square miles are water. It comprises a sandy coastal plain on the east, a central plateau, and a mountainous western region. An equable climate free from intense extremes of heat and cold, and water-power exceeding that of any other eastern state except Maine, explain both the agricultural and the recent remarkable industrial development of the state. The population in 1920 was 2,559,123, an increase of 352,836 over that of 1910. Less than two per cent are of foreign birth or descent, and seven out of every ten persons are dwellers in solitary, widely scattered farm homes.

Resources.—North Carolina was almost purely agricultural until the Civil War and is still predominantly rural. Despite the constantly increasing proportion of industrial workers, there are no large cities and in the rural districts land is divided into numerous small holdings, as in colonial days. The chief crops are cotton, corn, tobacco, hay, wheat, sweet potatoes and peanuts. In manufactures cotton and tobacco lead. In 1920 Winston-Salem and Durham held first and second places among the cities of the world in the manufacture of tobacco, and as a textile manufacturing center North Carolina is now second only to Massachusetts. See **U.S.A.**: Economic Map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Name; **IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY**: Tribes of the south.

1524.—Verrazano's voyages along coast. See **AMERICA**: 1523-1524.

1585-1587.—Raleigh's attempted settlements at Roanoke. See **AMERICA**: 1584-1586; 1587-1590.

1606-1620.—Part included in King James' grant to London Company. See **AMERICA**: Map of King James' grants.

1629.—Grant to Sir Robert Heath. See **AMERICA**: 1629.

1639-1663.—Pioneer and unorganized colonization.—"An abortive attempt at colonization was made in 1639, and a titular governor appeared in Virginia; but this, and a number of conflicting claims . . . [originating in a patent to Sir Robert Heath], and sufficiently troublesome to the proprietaries of a later time, were the only results of the grant of Charles I. This action on the part of the Crown, and the official information received, did not, however, suffice to prevent the Virginia Assembly lending itself to a scheme by which possession might be obtained of the neighboring territory, or at least substantial benefits realized therefrom by their constituents. With this object, they made grants to a trading company, which led, however, only to exploration and traffic. Other grants of a similar nature followed for the next ten years, at the expiration of which a company of Virginians made their way from Nansemond to Albemarle, and established a settlement there. The Virginian Burgesses granted them lands, and promised further grants to all who would extend these settlements

to the southward. Emigration from Virginia began. Settlers, singly and in companies, crossed the border, and made scattered and solitary clearings within the wilds of North Carolina. Many of these people were mere adventurers; but some of them were of more substantial stuff, and founded permanent settlements on the Chowan and elsewhere. Other eyes, however, as watchful as those of the Virginians, were also turned to the rich regions of the South. New England enterprise explored the American coast from one end to the other, in search of lucrative trade and new resting-places. After a long acquaintance with the North Carolina coast, they bought land of the Indians, near the mouth of Cape Fear River, and settled there. For some unexplained cause—possibly on account of the wild and dangerous character of the scattered inhabitants, who had already drifted thither from Virginia, possibly from the reason which they themselves gave—the New England colonists abandoned their settlement and departed, leaving a written opinion of the poor character of the country expressed in very plain language and pinned to a post. Here it was found by some wanderers from Barbadoes, who were of a different opinion from the New Englanders as to the appearance of things; and they accordingly repurchased the land from the Indians and began a settlement. At this date [1663], therefore, there was in North Carolina this infant settlement of the Barbadoes men, on the extreme southeastern point of the present State, and in the north-eastern corner the Virginia settlers scattered about, with here a solitary plantation and there a little group of farms, and always a restless van of adventurers working their way down the coast and into the interior. . . . Whatever rights the North Carolina settlers may have had in the eyes of the Virginians, who had granted them land, or in those of the Indians, who had sold it, they had none recognized by the English King, who claimed to own all that vast region. It may be doubted whether anything was known of these early colonists in England; and their existence was certainly not regarded in the least when Charles II. lavished their territory, and much besides, upon a band of his courtiers and ministers."—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: J. W. Moore, *History of North Carolina*, v. 1, ch. 2.—H. L. Osgood, *American colonies in the seventeenth century*, v. 2, pp. 200-202, 232.—C. M. Andrews, *Colonial self-government (American Nation Series)*, pp. 130-132.—E. Channing, *History of the United States*, v. 2, pp. 13-14.

1663-1670.—Grant to Monk, Clarendon, Shaftesbury and others.—Organized colonies.—"On the 24th March, 1663, King Charles II. granted to Edward, Earl of Clarendon; George [Monk], Duke of Albermarle; William, Earl of Craven; John, Lord Berkeley; Anthony, Lord Ashley [Earl of Shaftesbury]; Sir George Carteret, Sir John Colleton, and Sir William Berkeley, all the country between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, between 31° and 36° parallels of latitude, called Carolina, in honor of Charles. [The grant embraced the present states of Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi, as well as the two Carolinas.] In 1663, Sir William Berkeley, Governor of the Colony of Virginia, visited the province, and appointed William Drummond Governor of the Colony of Carolina. . . . Drummond, at his death in 1667, was succeeded by Stevens as governor. . . . The first assembly that made laws for Carolina, assembled in the fall of 1669. . . . On the death of Governor Stevens, who died in the colony full of years and wealth, the assembly chose Carteret for their governor, and on

his return to England soon after, Eastchurch, who then was in England, was appointed governor, and Miller secretary."—J. H. Wheeler, *Historical sketches of North Carolina*, ch. 4.—"The earliest grant made to the lords proprietors did not include the whole of the present State of North Carolina. Its northern line fell short of the southern boundary of Virginia by half a degree of latitude. Notwithstanding this, an unwarranted exhibition of authority established virtually the proprietary dominion over this unappropriated territory. . . . Colonel Byrd of Virginia, who was born not long after the charter of 1665 was made, and who lived during the administration of Berkeley, states, and no doubt truly, that 'Sir William Berkeley, who was one of the grantees, and at that time governor of Virginia, finding a territory of 31 miles in breadth between the inhabited part of Virginia and the above-mentioned boundary of Carolina [36°], advised the Lord Clarendon of it. And his lordship had interest enough with the king to obtain a second patent to include it, dated June 30th, 1665.' By this patent very large powers were granted; so large that, as Chalmers has remarked, 'no one prerogative of the crown was preserved, except only the sovereign dominion. . . . The existence of the colony from Barbadoes, under Sir John Yeamans, that settled in the old county of Clarendon, from its inception in 1665 to its abandonment in 1690, forms but an episode in the proprietary history of North Carolina. The colony, like all others similarly situated, sought at first to make provision for the supply of bodily wants, in securing food and shelter only; but having done this it next proceeded to make profitable the gifts of Heaven that were around it. Yeamans had brought with him negro slaves from Barbadoes, and so inviting was the new settlement deemed, that in the second year of its existence it contained 800 inhabitants. . . . But with all this prosperity, the colony on the Cape Fear was not destined to be permanent. The action of the lords proprietors themselves caused its abandonment. . . . In 1670, the lords proprietors, who seem to have been anxious to proceed more and more to the southward, sent out a considerable number of emigrants to form a colony at Port Royal, now Beaufort, in the present State of South Carolina. The individual who led the expedition was William Sayle, 'a man of experience,' says Chalmers, 'who had been appointed governor of that part of the coast lying southwestward of Cape Carteret.' . . . Scarcely however, had Sayle carried out his instructions and made his colonists somewhat comfortable, before his constitution yielded to a new and insalubrious climate, and he died. . . . It was not easy for the proprietors immediately to find a fit successor; and, even had such been at hand, some time must necessarily have elapsed before he could safely reach the scene of his labors. But Sir John Yeamans was near the spot: his long residence had acclimated him, and, as the historian states, he 'had hitherto ruled the plantation around Cape Fear with a prudence which precluded complaint.' He therefore was directed to extend his command from old Clarendon, on the Cape Fear, to the territory which was southwest of Cape Carteret. This was in August, 1671. The shores with the adjacent land, and the streams making into the sea, were by this time very well known to all the dwellers in Carolina, for the proprietors had caused them to be surveyed with accuracy. On the banks of Ashley River there was good pasturage, and land fit for tillage. The planters of Clarendon, therefore, turned their faces southward, while those from Port Royal travelled northward; and so the colonists from both settlements met on the banks of the

Ashley, as on a middle ground, and here in the same year (1671) they laid, on the first high land, 'the foundations of 'old Charlestown.' In 1679, it was found that 'Oyster Point,' formed by the confluence of Ashley and Cooper rivers, was more convenient for a town than the spot previously selected, and the people, with the encouragement of the lords proprietors, began to remove thither. In the next year (1680) were laid the foundations of the present city of Charleston; thirty houses were built, and it was declared to be the capital of the southern part of the province, and also the port of all commercial traffic. This gradually depopulated old Clarendon. . . . We now return to trace the fortunes of the settlement on Albermarle, under Stephens. As before stated he entered upon his duties as governor in October, 1667. . . . His instructions were very full and explicit. The Assembly was to be composed of the governor, a council of twelve, and twelve delegates chosen by the freeholders. Of the twelve councillors, whose advice, by the way, the governor was required always to take and follow, one half was to be appointed by the Assembly, the other half by himself. To this Assembly belonged not only the power to make laws, but a large share of the executive authority also. . . . In 1669, the first legislature under this constitution assembled. And it is worthy of remark, that at this period, when the province may be said to have had, for the first time, a system of regular government, there was in it a recognition of two great principles which are now part of the political creed of our whole country, without distinction of party. These are, first, that the people are entitled to a voice in the selection of their law-makers; and secondly, that they cannot rightfully be taxed but by their own representatives. . . . The people, we have reason to believe, were contented and happy during the early part of Stephens' administration. . . . But this quiet condition of affairs was not to last. We have now reached a period in our history which illustrates the fact, that whatever wisdom may be apparent in the constitution given to the Albermarle colony by the proprietors, on the accession of Stephens, was less the result of deliberation than of a happy accident. . . . But the time had now come for the proprietors to carry out their magnificent project of founding an empire; and disregarding alike the nature of man, the lessons of experience, and the physical obstacles of an unsubdued wilderness, . . . they resolved that all should yield to their theories of government, and invoked the aid of philosophy to accomplish an impossibility. Locke was employed to prepare 'the fundamental constitutions.'"—F. L. Hawks, *History of North Carolina*, v. 2, pp. 441-462.

ALSO IN: W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular history of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 12.—S. A. Ashe, *History of North Carolina*, v. 2, ch. 5.—C. L. Raper, *North Carolina, a study in English colonial government*, pp. 1-5, 17-20.—E. McCrady, *History of South Carolina under the proprietary government*, pp. 50-68.—K. P. Battle, *Lords proprietors of Carolina (North Carolina Booklet, May, 1904, pp. 8-22)*.

1669-1693. — Fundamental Constitutions of John Locke, and their failure.—The royal grant of the Carolinas to Monk, Shaftesbury, Clarendon, and their associates invested them with "all the rights, jurisdiction, royalties, privileges, and liberties within the bounds of their province, to hold, use, and enjoy the same, in as ample a manner as the bishop of Durham did in that county-palatine in England. . . . Agreeably to these powers, the proprietors proceeded to frame a system of laws

for the colony which they projected. [John] Locke, the well-known philosopher, was summoned to this work, and the largest expectations were entertained in consequence of his co-operation. Locke, though subsequently one of the proprietors, was, at the beginning, simply the secretary of the earl of Shaftesbury. The probability is that, in preparing the constitution for the Carolinas, he rather carried out the notions of that versatile nobleman than his own. . . . The code of laws called the 'Fundamental Constitutions,' which was devised, and which subsequently became unpopular in the colony, is not certainly the work of his hands. It is ascribed by Oldmixon, a contemporary, to the earl of Shaftesbury, one of the proprietors. The most striking feature in this code provided for the creation of a nobility, consisting of landgraves, cassiques, and barons. These were to be graduated by the landed estates which were granted with the dignity; the eldest of the proprietary lords was to be the superior, with the title of Palatine, and the people were to be serfs. [The tenants, and the issue of the tenants] were to be transferred with the soil, and not at liberty to leave it, but with the lord's permission, under hand and seal. The whole system was rejected after a few years' experiment. It has been harshly judged as . . . the crude conception of a mind conversant rather with books than men—with the abstract rather than the practical in government and society. And this judgment is certainly true of the constitutions in the case in which they were employed. They did not suit the absolute conditions of the country, or the class of people which subsequently made their way to it. But contemplating the institution of domestic slavery, as the proprietors had done from the beginning—a large villanage and a wealthy aristocracy, dominating almost without restraint or responsibility over the whole—the scheme was not without its plausibilities. But the feudal tenures were everywhere dying out. The time had passed, even in Europe, for such a system. . . . The great destitution of the first settlers left them generally without the means of procuring slaves; and the equal necessities, to which all are subject who peril life and fortune in a savage forest and on a foreign shore, soon made the titular distinctions of the few a miserable mockery, or something worse."—W. G. Simms, *History of South Carolina*, bk. 2, ch. 1.—"The constitutions were signed on the 21st of July, 1669 [but subsequently revised by the interpolation of a clause, against the wishes of Locke, establishing the Church of England]. . . . This revised copy of 'the model' was not signed till March, 1670. To a colony of which the majority were likely to be dissenters, the change was vital; it was scarcely noticed in England, where the model became the theme of extravagant applause. . . . As far as depended upon the proprietaries, the government was immediately organized with Monk, duke of Albemarle, as palatine. [But, meantime, the colonists in the northern part of the Carolina province had instituted a simple form of government for themselves, with a council of twelve, and an assembly composed of the governor, the council, and twelve delegates from the freeholders of the incipient settlements. The assembly had already met and had framed some important laws, which remained] . . . valid in North Carolina for more than half a century. Hardly had these laws been established when the new constitution was forwarded to Albemarle. Its promulgation did but favor anarchy by invalidating the existing system, which it could not replace. The proprietaries, contrary to stipulations with the colonists, superseded the existing govern-

ment, and the colonists resolutely rejected the substitute. [Much the same state of things appeared in the South Carolina settlements (not yet separately named), and successive disorders and revolutionary changes made up the history of the pseudo palatinate for many years.]—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 7.—In 1693, "to conciliate the colonists, and to get rid of the dispute which had arisen as to the binding force of the 'Grand Model,' the proprietors voted that, 'as the people have declared they would rather be governed by the powers granted by the charter, without regard to the fundamental constitutions, it will be for their quiet, and the protection of the well-disposed, to grant their request.' This abrogation of the labors of Locke removed one bone of contention; but as the 'Grand Model' had never been actually carried into effect, the government went on much as before. Each of the proprietaries continued to have his special delegate in the colony, or rather two delegates, one for South Carolina, the other for Albemarle, the eight together constituting the council in either province, over which the governor presided as delegate of the palatine, to whom his appointment belonged."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 21.—The text of the "fundamental constitutions" is printed in volume 9 of the 12th edition of Locke's complete works, and in volume 10 of several prior editions.

ALSO IN: E. Channing, *History of the United States*, v. 2, pp. 18-24.—H. L. Osgood, *American colonies in the seventeenth century*, v. 2, pp. 208-227, 236-242.—C. M. Andrews, *Colonial self-government*, pp. 139-161.

1688-1729.—Slow progress and unprosperous state of colony.—End of proprietary government.—In 1688, Carolina (the northern province) being afflicted with a governor, one Seth Sothel, who is accused of every variety of extortion and rapacity, the colonists rose up against him, tried him before their assembly, deposed him from his office and drove him into exile. "The Proprietors demurred to the form of this procedure, but acquiesced in the substance of it, and thereby did something to confirm that contempt for government which was one of the leading characteristics of the colony. During the years which followed, the efforts of the Proprietors to maintain any authority over their Northern province, or to connect it in any way with their Southern territory, were little more than nominal. For the most part the two settlements were distinguished by the Proprietors as 'our colony north-east of Cape Fear,' and 'our colony south-west of Cape Fear.' As early as 1691 we find the expression North Carolina once used. After that we do not meet with it till 1696. From that time onward both expressions are used with no marked distinction, sometimes even in the same document. At times the Proprietors seem to have aimed at establishing a closer connexion between the two colonies by placing them under a single Governor. But in nearly all these cases provision was made for the appointment of separate Deputy-Governors, nor does there seem to have been any project for uniting the two legislative bodies. . . . In 1720 the first event occurred which throws any clear light from without on the internal life of the colony. In that year boundary disputes arose between Virginia and her southern neighbour and it was found necessary to appoint representatives on each side to settle the boundary line. The chief interest of the matter lies in the notes left to us by one of the Virginia Commissioners [Colonel William Byrd]. . . . After making all . . . deductions and checking Byrd's report by that of graver

writers, there remains a picture of poverty, indolence, and thriftlessness which finds no counterpart in any of the other southern colonies. That the chief town contained only some fifty poor cottages is little or nothing more than what we find in Maryland or Virginia. But there the import trade with England made up for the deficiencies of colonial life. North Carolina, lacking the two essentials of trade, harbours and a surplus population, had no commercial dealings with the mother country. . . . The only possessions which abounded were horses and swine, both of which could be reared in droves without any care or attention. . . . The evils of slavery existed without its counterbalancing advantages. There was nothing to teach those habits of administration which the rich planters of Virginia and South Carolina learnt as part of their daily life. At the same time the colony suffered from one of the worst effects of slavery, a want of manual skill. . . . In 1729 the faint and meaningless shadow of proprietary government came to an end. The Crown bought up first the shares of seven Proprietors, then after an interval that of the eighth. In the case of other colonies the process of transfer had been effected by a conflict and by something approaching to revolution. In North Carolina alone it seems to have come about with the peaceful assent of all parties. . . . Without a struggle, North Carolina cast off all traces of its peculiar origin and passed into the ordinary state of a crown colony."—J. A. Doyle, *English in America: Virginia, Maryland and the Carolinas*, ch. 12.

1710.—Palatine colonization at New Berne. See PALATINES.

1711-1714.—Indian rising and massacre of colonists.—Subjugation and expulsion of Tuscaroras. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Tribes of the south.

1717-1732.—Pioneer migrations begin.—"At the opening of the eighteenth century the tide of population had swept inland to the 'fall line,' the westward boundary of the established settlements. The actual frontier had been advanced by the more aggressive pioneers to within fifty miles of the Blue Ridge. So rapid was the settlement in North Carolina that in the interval 1717-32 the population quadrupled in numbers. A map of the colonial settlements in 1725 reveals a narrow strip of populated land along the Atlantic Coast, of irregular indentation, with occasional isolated nuclei of settlements further in the interior. The civilization thus established continued to maintain a close and unbroken communication with England and the Continent. As long as the settlers, for economic reasons, clung to the coast, they reacted but slowly to the transforming influences of the frontier. Within a triangle of continental altitude with its apex in New England, bounded on the east by the Atlantic and on the west by the Appalachian range, lay the settlements, divided into two Zones—tide-water and piedmont. As no break occurred in the great mountain system south of the Hudson and Mohawk valleys, the difficulties of cutting a passage through the towering wall of living green long proved an effective obstacle to the crossing of the grim mountain barrier. In the beginning the settlements gradually extended westward from the coast in irregular outline, the indentations taking form around such natural centers of attraction as areas of fertile soil, frontier posts, mines, salt-springs, and stretches of upland favorable for grazing. After a time a second advance of settlement was begun in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, running in a southwesterly direction along the broad terraces to the east of the Appala-

chian Range, which in North Carolina lies as far as two hundred and fifty miles from the sea. The Blue Ridge in Virginia and a belt of pine barrens in North Carolina were hindrances to this advance, but did not entirely check it. This second streaming of the population thrust into the long, narrow wedge of the piedmont zone a class of people differing in spirit and in tendency from their more aristocratic and complacent neighbors to the east. These settlers of the Valley of Virginia and the North Carolina piedmont region—English, Scotch-Irish, Germans, Scotch, Irish, Welsh, and a few French—were the first pioneers of the Old Southwest. From the joint efforts to two strata of population, geographically, socially, and economically distinct—tide water and piedmont, Old South and New South—originated and flowered the third and greatest movement of westward expansion, opening with the surmounting of the mountain barrier and ending in the occupation and assumption of the vast medial valley of the continent."—A. Henderson, *Conquest of the Old Southwest*, pp. 3-6.

ALSO IN: T. Roosevelt, *Winning of the West*, v. 1, ch. 5.

1729.—Founding of North Carolina. See U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

1732.—Boundaries defined. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1712-1732.

1735-1776.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1740.—War with Spaniards in Florida. See GEORGIA: 1738-1743.

1754.—Colonial congress at Albany and Plan of Union. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1755-1759.—Settlement of highlands.—Cradle of westward expansion.—Characteristics of population.—"An excellent pen-picture of educational and cultural conditions in the backwoods of North Carolina, by one of the early settlers in the middle of the century, exhibits in all their barren cheerlessness the hardships and limitations of life in the wilderness. The father of William Few, the narrator, had trekked down from Maryland and settled in Orange County, some miles east of the little hamlet of Hillsborough. 'In that country at that time there were no schools, no churches or parsons, or doctors or lawyers; no stores, groceries or taverns, nor do I recollect during the first two years any officer, ecclesiastical, civil or military, except a justice of the peace, a constable and two or three itinerant preachers. . . . These people had few wants, and fewer temptations to vice than those who lived in more refined society, though ignorant. They were more virtuous and more happy. . . . A schoolmaster appeared and offered his services to teach the children of the neighborhood for twenty shillings each per year. . . . In that simple state of society money was but little known; the schoolmaster was the welcome guest of his pupil, fed at the bountiful table and clothed from the domestic loom. . . . In that country at that time there was great scarcity of books.' . . . Such then, were the rude and simple people in the back country of the Old Southwest—the deliberate and self-controlled English, the aggressive, land-mongering Scotch-Irish, the buoyant Welsh, the thrifty Germans, the debonair French, the impetuous Irish, and the calculating Scotch. The lives they led were marked by independence of spirit, democratic instincts, and a forthright simplicity. In describing the condition of the English settlers in the backwoods of Virginia, one of their number, Doddridge says: 'Most of the articles were of domestic manufacture. There might have been incidentally a few things brought to the country for sale in a primitive way, but there was no

store for general supply. The table furniture usually consisted of wooden vessels, either turned or coopered. Iron forks, tin cups, etc., were articles of rare and delicate luxury. The food was of the most wholesome and primitive kind. The richest meat, the finest butter, and best meal that ever delighted man's palate were here eaten with a relish which health and labor only know. The hospitality of the people was profuse and proverbial. . . . The frontier life, with its purifying and hardening influence, bred in these pioneers intellectual traits which constitute the basis of the American character. The single-handed and successful struggle with nature in the tense solitude of the forest developed a spirit of individualism, restive under control. On the other hand, the sense of sharing with others the arduous tasks and dangers of conquering the wilderness gave birth to a strong sense of solidarity and of human sympathy. With the lure of free lands ever before them, the pioneers developed a restlessness and a nervous energy, blended with a buoyancy of spirit, which are fundamentally American. Yet this same untrammelled freedom occasioned a disregard for law and a defiance of established government which have exhibited themselves throughout the entire course of our history. Initiative, self-reliance, boldness in conception, fertility in resource, readiness in execution, acquisitiveness, inventive genius, appreciation of material advantages—these, shot through with a certain fine idealism, genial human sympathy, and a high romantic strain—are the traits of the American national type as it emerged from the Old Southwest.”—A. Henderson, *Conquest of the Old Southwest*, pp. 25-26, 28-31.

ALSO IN: F. J. Turner, *Significance of the frontier in American history*.

1759-1761.—Cherokee War. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1759-1761.

1760-1766.—Question of taxation by parliament.—Stamp Act.—Stamp Act Congress.—Repeal of Stamp Act and passage of Declaratory Act. See U.S.A.: 1760-1775; 1763-1764; 1765: News of the Stamp Act in the colonies; Stamp Act; 1766: Repeal of Stamp Act.

1766-1768.—Townshend duties.—Circular letter of Massachusetts. See U.S.A.: 1766-1767; 1767-1768.

1766-1771.—Insurrection of Regulators.—Battle of Alamance.—Complaints of official extortion, which were loud in several of the colonies at about the same period, led to serious results in North Carolina. “Complaints were most rife in the middle counties, a very barren portion of the province, with a population generally poor and ignorant. These people complained, and not without reason—for the poor and ignorant are ever most exposed to oppression—not only that excessive fees were extorted, but that the sheriffs collected taxes of which they rendered no account. They seem also to have held the courts and lawyers—indeed, the whole system for the collection of debts—in great detestation. Presently, under the name of ‘Regulators,’ borrowed from South Carolina, they formed associations which not only refused the payment of taxes, but assaulted the persons and property of lawyers, judges, sheriffs, and other obnoxious individuals, and even proceeded so far as to break up the sessions of the courts. The common name of Regulators designated, in the two Carolinas, combinations composed of different materials, and having different objects in view. The Assembly of the province took decided ground against them, and even expelled one of their leaders, who had been elected a member. After negotiations and delays, and broken promises to

keep the peace, Governor Tryon, at the head of a body of volunteers, marched into the disaffected counties. The Regulators assembled in arms, and an action was fought at Alamance, on the Haw, near the head waters of Cape Fear River, in which some 200 were left dead upon the field. Out of a large number taken prisoners, six were executed for high treason. Though the Regulators submitted, they continued to entertain a deadly hatred against the militia of the lower counties, which had taken part against them. Tryon was presently removed from North Carolina to New York. His successor, Joseph Martin, anxious to strengthen himself against the growing discontents of the province, promised to redress the grievances, and sedulously cultivated the good will of the Regulators, and with such success that they became, in the end, staunch supporters of the royal authority.”—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 29.

ALSO IN: F. X. Martin, *History of North Carolina*, ch. 7-8.—J. H. Wheeler, *History of North Carolina*, ch. 8.—F. L. Hawks, *Battle of the Alamance (Revised history of North Carolina)*.—C. L. Raper, *North Carolina, a study in English colonial government*, pp. 61-67, 143-144, 238-240.—A. Henderson, *Origin of the regulation in North Carolina*, (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1916, pp. 320-332).—J. S. Bassett, *Regulators of North Carolina*, (*Annual Report of the American Historical Association*, 1894, pp. 141-212).

1768-1774.—Opening events of Revolution. See BOSTON: 1768, to 1774; U.S.A.: 1770, to 1774.

1769-1772.—First settlement of Tennessee.—Watauga Association. See TENNESSEE: 1769-1772.

1770.—Repeal of Townshend duties. See U.S.A.: 1770.

1774.—First Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September); (September-October).

1774-1776.—Social and political life just before the Revolution.—Miss Janet Schaw, a Scotch observer, describes political and social conditions in the Cape Fear section which were typical of many other colonial centers in the days immediately preceding the War for Independence. “On our arrival here the stalks of last year's crop still remained on the ground. At this I was greatly surprised, as the season was now so far advanced, I expected to have found the fields completely ploughed at least, if not sown and harrowed; but how much was my amazement increased to find that every instrument of husbandry was unknown here; not only all the various ploughs, but all the machinery used with such success at home, and that the only instrument used is a hoe, with which they at once till and plant the corn. To accomplish this a number of Negroes follow each other's tail the day long, and have a task assigned them, and it will take twenty at least to do as much work as two horses with a man and a boy would perform. . . . I have been at a fine plantation called Hunthill belonging to Mr. Rutherford. On this he has a vast number of Negroes employed in various works. He makes a great deal of tar and turpentine, but his grand work is a saw-mill, the finest I ever met with. It cuts three thousand lumbers . . . a day, and can double the number, when necessity demands it. The woods round him are immense, and he has a vast piece of water, which by a creek communicates with the river, by which he sends down all the lumber, tar and pitch, as it rises every tide sufficiently high to bear any weight. This is done on what is called rafts, . . . and the barrels depending from the

sides. In this manner they will float you down fifty thousand deals at once, and 100 or 200 barrels, and they leave room in the centre for the people to stay on, who have nothing to do but prevent its running on shore, as it is floated down by the tides, and they must lay to, between tide and tide, it having no power to move but by the force of the stream."—J. Schaw, *Journal of a lady of quality, 1774-1776*, pp. 163, 185.

1775-1783.—War of American Revolution. See U. S. A.: 1775 (April), to 1783 (September).

1775 (May).—Mecklenburg Declaration.—"It has been strenuously claimed and denied that, at a meeting of the people of Mecklenburg County, in North Carolina, on May 20, 1775, resolutions were passed declaring their independence of Great Britain. The facts in the case appear to be these:—On the 31st of May, 1775, the people of this county did pass resolutions quite abreast of the public sentiment of that time, but not venturing on the field of independency further than to say that these resolutions were to remain in force till Great Britain resigned its pretensions. These resolutions were well written, attracted notice, and were copied into the leading newspapers of the colonies, North and South, and can be found in various later works (Lossing's 'Field-Book,' ii, 619, etc.). A copy of the 'S. Carolina Gazette' containing them was sent by Governor Wright, of Georgia, to Lord Dartmouth, and was found by Bancroft in the State Paper Office, while in the Sparks MSS. (no. lvi) is the record of a copy sent to the home government by Governor Martin of North Carolina, with a letter dated June 30, 1775. Of these resolutions there is no doubt (Frothingham's 'Rise of the Republic,' 422). In 1793, or earlier, some of the actors in the proceeding, apparently ignorant that the record of these resolutions had been preserved in the newspapers, endeavored to supply them from memory, unconsciously intermingling some of the phraseology of the Declaration of July 4th, in Congress, which gave them the tone of a pronounced independency. Probably through another dimness of memory they affixed the date of May 20, 1775, to them. These were first printed in the 'Raleigh Register,' April 30, 1819. They are found to resemble in some respects the now known resolves of May 31st, as well as the national Declaration in a few phrases. In 1829 Martin printed them, much altered, in his 'North Carolina' (ii, 272) but it is not known where this copy came from. In 1831 the State printed the text of the 1819 copy, and fortified it with recollections and certificates of persons affirming that they were present when the resolutions were passed on the 20th."—J. Winsor, *Note in narrative and critical history of America*, v. 6, p. 256.—"We are inclined to conjecture that there was a popular meeting at Charlottetown on the 19th and 20th of May, where discussion was had on the subject of independence, and probably some more or less explicit understanding arrived at, which became the basis of the committee's action on the 31st. If so, we make no doubt that J. McN. Alexander was secretary of that meeting. He, probably, in that case, recorded the proceedings, and among them some resolution or resolutions in regard to the propriety of throwing off the British yoke. . . . It was in attempting to remember the records of that meeting, destroyed by fire, that John McN. Alexander, then an old man, fell into the errors [which led him, in 1800, to certify, as Secretary, a copy of the document called the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence]."—H. S. Randall, *Life of Jefferson*, v. 3, appendix 2.

ALSO IN: W. A. Graham, *Address on the Mecklenburg Declaration, 1875*.—F. L. Hawks, *Mecklenburg Declaration (Revised History of Georgia)*.—W. H. Hoyt, *Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence*.—A. Henderson, *General meeting of freeholders of the county of Mecklenburg, July 29, 1774 (Virginia Magazine of History, January, 1920)*.

1775 (May-August).—Second Continental Congress. See U. S. A.: 1775 (May-August).

1775-1776.—Arming of loyalist Highlanders and their defeat at Moore's Creek.—First colony vote for independence.—"North Carolina was the first colony to act as a unit in favor of independence. It was the fourth in importance of the United Colonies. Its Provincial Congress had organized the militia, and vested the public authority in a provincial council for the whole colony, committees of safety for the districts, and county and town committees. A large portion of the people were adherents of the crown,—among them a body of Highland emigrants, and most of the party of regulators. Governor Martin represented, not without grounds, that, if these loyalists were supported by a British force, the colony might be gained to the royal side. The loyalists were also numerous in Georgia and South Carolina. Hence it was determined by the King to send an expedition to the Southern Colonies in the winter, to restore the royal authority. This was put under the command of Sir Henry Clinton, and ordered to rendezvous at Cape Fear. 'I am clear,' wrote George III., 'the first attempt should be made on North Carolina, as the Highland settlers are said to be well inclined.' Commissions were issued to men of influence among them, one being Allan McDonald, the husband of the chivalrous Flora McDonald, who became famous by romantic devotion to Prince Charles Edward. Donald McDonald was appointed the commander. These officers, under the direction of the governor, after much secret consultation, enrolled about 1,500 men. The popular leaders, however, were informed of their designs. The militia were summoned, and took the field under Colonel James Moore. At length, when Sir Henry Clinton was expected at Cape Fear, General McDonald erected the royal standard at Cross Creek, now Fayetteville, and moved forward to join Clinton. Colonel Moore ordered parties of the militia to take post at Moore's Creek Bridge, over which McDonald would be obliged to pass. Colonel Richard Caswell was at the head of one of these parties: hence the force here was under his command; and this place on the 27th of February [1776] became a famous battle-field. The Provincials were victorious. They captured a great quantity of military supplies, nearly 900 men, and their commander. This was the Lexington and Concord of that region. The newspapers circulated the details of this brilliant result. The spirit of the Whigs run high. . . . A strong force was soon ready and anxious to meet Clinton. Amidst these scenes, the people elected delegates to a Provincial Congress, which met, on the 4th of April [1776], at Halifax. . . . Attempts were made to ascertain the sense of the people on independence. . . . The subject was referred to a committee, of which Cornelius Harnett was the chairman. They reported an elaborate preamble . . . and a resolution to empower the delegates in the General Congress 'to concur with the delegates in the other colonies in declaring independency and forming foreign alliances,—reserving to the colony the sole and exclusive right of forming a constitution and laws for it,' also 'of appointing delegates in a gen-

eral representation of the colonies for such purposes as might be agreed upon.' This was unanimously adopted on the 12th of April. Thus the popular party carried North Carolina as a unit in favor of independence, when the colonies, from New England to Virginia, were in solid array against it. The example was warmly welcomed by the patriots, and commended for imitation."—R. Frothingham, *Rise of the republic*, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: J. W. Moore, *History of North Carolina*, v. 1, ch. 10.—D. L. Swain, *British invasion of North Carolina in 1776* (*Revised history of North Carolina*).—R. D. W. Connor, *Revolutionary leaders of North Carolina*.—W. K. Boyd and J. G. deR. Hamilton, *Syllabus of North Carolina history, 1584-1876*.

1776.—Annexation of Watauga settlements (Tennessee). See TENNESSEE: 1776-1784.

1776 (July).—Authorship, adoption and signing of Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Authorship, etc.

1776-1780.—Independence declared.—Adoption of state constitution. See U.S.A.: 1776 (January-June): King George's war measures; 1776-1779.

1776-1787.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1776-1787.

1777-1778.—Adoption and ratification of Articles of Confederation. See U.S.A.: 1777-1781.

1780-1781.—War in the South.—Greene's campaign. See U.S.A.: 1780-1781.

1784.—Revolt of Tennessee settlements against their cession to Congress. See TENNESSEE: 1776-1784.

1785-1788.—State of Franklin organized by Tennessee settlers.—Its brief and troubled history. See TENNESSEE: 1785; 1785-1796.

1786.—Importation of negroes discouraged. See SLAVERY: 1776-1808.

1787-1789.—Formation and adoption of Federal constitution. See U.S.A.: 1787; 1787-1789.

1790.—Renewed cession of Western Territory (Tennessee) to the United States. See TENNESSEE: 1785-1796; U.S.A.: 1781-1786.

1798.—Movement to induce North Carolina to join revolt against alien and sedition laws. See U.S.A.: 1798.

1800-1864.—Manhood suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1800-1864.

1812.—Part played in War of 1812. See U.S.A.: 1812-1814.

1835.—Constitutional convention.—A constitutional convention, in 1835, removed the restriction on non-Protestants as office holders, maintaining the exclusion of non-Christians. The convention changed the terms of several state officers and enacted laws placing questions of marriage and divorce under general law. Impeachment was provided for.

1835-1860.—Backward in education.—"North Carolina has little reason to be proud of her early history in the cause of education. For years there was greater illiteracy in this state than in any other. Public schools were begun in 1840. . . . The schools grew from 777 in 1840 to 4,369 in 1860. The number of all students in colleges, academies and primary schools increased from 18,681 in 1840 to 177,400 in 1860."—J. P. Arthur, *Western North Carolina*, p. 420.

1850.—Slavery question. See U.S.A.: 1850 (June).

1860.—Occupation of Fort Macon. See U.S.A.: 1860-1861 (December-February).

1861 (January-May).—Popular opposition to secession.—"A large majority of the people of North Carolina were opposed to secession. They

did not regard it as a constitutional right. They were equally opposed to a separation from the Union in resentment of the election of Mr. Lincoln. But the Governor, John W. Ellis, was in full sympathy with the secessionists. He spared no pains to bring the state into line with South Carolina [which had passed her ordinance of Secession December 20, 1860. See U.S.A.: 1860 (November-December).] The legislature met on the 20th of November. The governor, in his message, recommended that the legislature should invite a conference with the Southern States, or send delegates to them for the purpose of securing their co-operation. He also recommended the reorganization of the militia, and the call of a state convention. Bills were introduced for the purpose of carrying these measures into effect. . . . On the 30th of January, a bill for calling a state convention was passed. It provided that no secession ordinance, nor one connecting the state with the Southern Confederacy, would be valid until it should be ratified by a majority of the qualified voters of the state. The vote of the people was appointed to take place on the 28th of February. The delegates were elected on the day named. A large majority of them were Unionists. But, at the same time, the convention itself was voted down. The vote for a convention was 46,671; against a convention, 47,333. The majority against it was 662. This majority against a convention, however, was no criterion of popular sentiment in regard to secession. The true test was the votes received, respectively, by the Union and secession delegates. The former received a majority of nearly 30,000. But the indefatigable governor was not to be balked by the popular dislike for secession. The legislature was called together in extra session on May 1. On the same day they voted to have another election for delegates to a state convention on the 13th of the month. The election took place accordingly, and the delegates convened on the 20th. On the following day the secession ordinance [framed by Judah P. Benjamin] was adopted, and the Confederate Constitution ratified. To save time, and avoid further obstructions, the question of popular approval was taken for granted.—S. S. Cox, *Three decades of Federal legislation*, pp. 119-120.—See also U.S.A.: 1861 (March-April).

ALSO IN: I. G. de R. Hamilton, *Reconstruction in North Carolina*.—J. W. Moore, *History of North Carolina*, v. 2, ch. 5.

1861 (April).—Governor Ellis's reply to President Lincoln's call for troops. See U.S.A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.

1861 (August).—Hatteras inlet taken by Union forces. See U.S.A.: 1861 (August: North Carolina).

1861-1865.—North Carolina's services to Confederacy during Civil War.—"Out of less than 700,000 white population, the state sent 125,000 soldiers to the front, or one in every five of the total white population. . . . Of the armies of the thirteen Confederate States, more than one-sixth were soldiers from North Carolina. The state, which was the last to secede, also furnished one-fifth of the provisions and other supplies for the Confederate armies. Its blockading steamers brought in the greater portion of the medical supplies for the Southern army."—W. Clark, *Raising, organization and equipment of North Carolina troops during the Civil War* (*North Carolina Booklet*, July-October, 1919, pp. 60, 65).

ALSO IN: J. P. Arthur, *Western North Carolina*, ch. 27.—North Carolina Historical Society, *Five points in the record of North Carolina in the Great War of 1861-1865*.

1862 (January-April).—Capture of Roanoke island, Newbern and Beaufort by Union forces. See U. S. A.: 1862 (January-April: North Carolina).

1862 (May).—Appointment of military governor. See U. S. A.: 1862 (March-June).

1864 (April-May).—Exploits of the ram Albemarle.—Confederate capture of Plymouth. See U. S. A.: 1864 (April-May: North Carolina).

1864 (October).—Destruction of the ram Albemarle. See U. S. A.: 1864 (October: North Carolina).

1864-1865 (December-January).—Capture of Fort Fisher. See U. S. A.: 1864-1865 (December-January: North Carolina).

1865 (February-March).—Sherman's march.—Battle of Bentonville. See U. S. A.: 1865 (February-March: The Carolinas).

1865 (February-March).—Federal occupation of Wilmington.—Battle of Kinston. See U. S. A.: 1865 (February-March: North Carolina).

1865 (May).—Provisional government under President Johnson's plan of reconstruction. See U. S. A.: 1865 (May-July).

1865-1868.—Reconstruction. See U. S. A.: 1865 (May-July), to 1868-1876.

1866-1871.—Ku Klux Klan outrages. See U. S. A.: 1866-1871.

1868-1876. — Political regeneration. — Political recovery from the effects of Reconstruction began with the impeachment and removal from office of Governor Wm. H. Holden on March 22, 1871. The great need was now for constitutional reform and after a struggle of four years a convention met on September 5, 1875. It "authorized the legislature to forbid the carrying of concealed weapons [and forbade] secret political societies. . . . Quite a number of important changes were made in the judicial department. The number of Supreme Court justices was reduced from five to three and of Superior Court judges from twelve to nine. All were to be chosen by the people on a general ticket for a term of eight years, but it was left within the power of the legislature to return to election by district and to increase the number of districts and judges. The principle of rotation of the judges was adopted. The legislature was given power to alter and distribute the judicial power among the courts inferior to the Supreme Court, and to provide for election of judges. In this way control of the justices of the peace was gained by the legislature. It was also provided that any judge might be removed from office by a two-thirds vote of both houses of the legislature for mental or physical incapacity. [The new legislature adopted a system of county government which assured white government in black counties, but which also assured democratic control of white counties. This violation of local self-government caused great disturbance for years and finally contributed to the overthrow of the democratic party.] . . . Constitutional reform secured, the conservatives turned their attention to the state officers and with 1876 came the final redemption of the state after a campaign never equalled in the state in its spirit and vivid interest. The democrats, as the conservatives now frankly called themselves, nominated Vance for governor and Thomas J. Jarvis for lieutenant-governor. . . . The [republican] convention unanimously nominated Thomas Settle, who was Grant's candidate, Oliver H. Dockery, who had been a prominent candidate, having bowed to the inevitable and withdrawn. W. A. Smith was selected for lieutenant-governor. In the campaign the race issue was dominant, the democrats finding it an effective reply to the 'bloody shirt' waving of the

republicans."—J. G. de R. Hamilton, *North Carolina since 1860* (History of North Carolina, v. 3, pp. 187-190).

1870-1892.—Failure of old political parties to satisfy the people.—Adverse agricultural conditions.—Political and economic legacy of reconstruction days.—Railway oppression.—Organization of populist party.—Its political influence. —"The conservative-democratic party of Reconstruction saved the state, gave it peace and good order, solved, temporarily, at least,—for there was no permanency in the solution,—the negro question as it existed at the close of Reconstruction, kept expenses down and thus gave a desperate and largely poverty-stricken people a breathing spell, and was along some lines moderately progressive. Its chief defects were the timidity of its leaders and its lack of social responsibility. The state was crippled by an inequitable, dishonest, and inefficient system of taxation and the party did not want, or feared, to correct it. . . . On the other hand there was no hope in the republican party which was as unsocialized and unprogressive as its opponent, with the additional handicap of having ignorant negroes compose more than half its voting membership. That single fact determined the place and character of the party. It was manifest that before it could offer progress to the state it [too] must be reconstructed. . . . In the period following 1870 conditions [in agriculture, the dominant industry,] were far from good, but there was steadily increasing prosperity. Beginning about 1886 or 1887 depression set in. Cotton prices in spite of fluctuations from year to year had steadily fallen, the average price from 1880 to 1887 being 9 cents. It was 11 cents in 1890, 9 in 1891 and about 6½ in 1892. Grain was similarly affected by the tremendous expansion of the grain fields of the northwest and the enormous crops which were produced. Wheat, which had averaged \$1.07 from 1880 to 1887 was 86 cents in 1887 and still falling. Corn, averaging 46 cents for the same period, had dropped to 34 cents in 1888, to 28 in 1889. In 1890 it rose to 37 cents. Tobacco was beginning to show the effect of consolidation of manufacturers by which the price was controlled. Conditions were indicated in another way. The mortgage burden of the state was heavy. During the decade from 1880 to 1890 it amounted to \$55,832,062 and in 1890 it was \$21,471,428 and steadily increasing. Nearly 18 per cent of the taxed acres were under mortgage and on the average every taxed acre bore a mortgage burden of 53 cents. The average debt was \$13, but this was low, only South Carolina of all the states having a lower rate. A hopeful sign was the steady increase in the number of farms and the decreasing size, tending to intensive agriculture and a wider spread of opportunity. . . . The effects of the war and of Reconstruction were still clearly visible in the state [however], and the farmers, . . . [most of whom were] living from hand to mouth, were without an adequate reserve to carry them over a lean year, much less to bear the burden of a succession of them. [Furthermore restlessness among the negroes, who were migrating to Arkansas and Nebraska in large numbers, was producing a shortage of labor in some parts of the state.] To all this was added the pressure of high railway rates, poor service and discrimination. Attempts to secure a remedy for railroad oppression, which was, it is fair to say, highly magnified, for the railroads themselves were not over-prosperous, were uniformly and successfully thwarted by the railroad interests which, in one way or another, dominated the legislature of the state. . . . [The

steadily growing discontent of the late eighties finally found expression in agrarian organizations.] "In February, 1887, a farmers' convention met in Raleigh, perfected a plan of organization, and elected Elias Carr president. To its influence and activity was due, to a considerable extent the foundation (1880) of the Agricultural and Mechanical College [at West Raleigh] and the withdrawal of the landscrip fund from the University. It is probable that it was called chiefly for that purpose. Its success indicated that the time was ripe for a more complete organization which speedily followed. The Farmers' Alliance was first organized in North Carolina in October, 1887, and was at the time composed of 132 subordinate alliances situated in eight counties. The first local sub-alliance had been organized in April. It spread rapidly and by the following summer had 1,018 local branches in sixty-two counties of the state and membership of more than 42,000. . . . In its inception in North Carolina there was no conscious political purpose in the mass of the members, whatever may have been the aims of the leaders, but it had certain practical aims which made political activity inevitable, and the foundation of a new party, in the event of failure to control the old ones, almost a certainty. These aims were all in the direction of correcting outstanding abuses. Because of railway discrimination and high rates, they advocated state control of freight rates, and later demanded the public ownership of railways and telegraph lines. . . . The first populist convention [held in 1892] was an interesting body. . . . In the convention were a number of republicans who had never left the republican party in reality but, more or less openly, were there primarily to assist in the defeat of the democratic party and if possible to engineer a fusion in the interest of the republican party. The platform adopted called for economy in state government, encouragement to education, agriculture, and manufacturing, a 6 per cent interest law, secret ballot, purity of elections, and the taxation of all railroads. . . . While the elections resulted in a rather sweeping democratic victory, the party winning the state and electoral tickets, eight out of nine members of Congress, and a majority in both Houses of the Legislature, the populists gave a good account of themselves for so young a party. In a number of counties, notably in Chatham, Nash, and Sampson they showed great strength. . . . The vote for governor showed a shrinkage of republican votes from 1888 of almost 40,000 and of democratic votes nearly 13,000. The democrats with a plurality of approximately 40,000 were still 7,000 short of a majority of the total vote. The plurality of the electoral vote was about 33,000 in a much lighter vote, with more than 10,000 votes lacking of a majority."—J. G. de R. Hamilton, *North Carolina since 1860* (*History of North Carolina*, v. 3, pp. 218-219, 221-222, 225-226, 238-241).—For the Populists, fusion with the Republicans in 1894 was a serious mistake. Their program was set at naught and their principles were ignored. Instead of economy, extravagance prevailed; in place of governmental efficiency, there was corruption and disorder. And yet they accomplished much good. The defeat which they inflicted on the Democrats in 1894 caused that party to liberalize its policies, notably in education and social improvement and led to the reassertion of white supremacy.

1890-1900.—Transition from rural to urban and industrial life.—In 1890, less than one tenth of the population was engaged in manufacturing, and almost seven tenths in agriculture. The con-

struction of cotton mills in the South began in earnest at this time and "for the next fifteen years assumed the proportions of a craze in some sections. Some Northern capital was invested, machinery houses took stock, and some Northern mills built branch establishments in the South, but the greater part of the capital came from the savings of the people or from the profits of earlier mills. These profits were for a time enormous. Land was secured and buildings erected for a smaller proportion of the capital than was possible in New England, fuel was abundant and cheap, and where the local supply of cotton was sufficient, freights were saved. There were no restrictions on hours of labor or age of the workers, and operatives were drawn from the farms at low wages. Taxes were low, and it seemed that for a time no mill could fail to be profitable whether well managed or not."—H. Thompson, *New South, economic and social* (*Studies in Southern history and politics*, pp. 300-301).—In 1900 the proportion engaged in manufacture in North Carolina showed an increase of two and one-half per cent. Production of the coarser grades of yarn was more than eighteen times that of 1890 and finer grades were being developed.

ALSO IN: H. Thompson, *From the cotton field to the cotton mill*, pp. 2, 66-68.

1897-1899.—Local dispensary laws.—An Act applying the South Carolina "dispensary" system of regulation for the liquor traffic (see SOUTH CAROLINA: 1892-1899) to Fayetteville was passed by the legislature in 1897, and several smaller towns secured local legislation to the same effect in 1899; but attempts to carry a general dispensary law for the State were defeated.

1898.—Race war in Wilmington.—Wilmington, N. C., was the scene, in November, 1898, of what can only be called a fierce revolution, whereby the city government, dominated by the colored population, which outnumbered the white, was violently overturned by the latter. The race conflict was precipitated by an article in a Republican newspaper, edited by a negro, which reflected on the honor of some of the white women and caused wild excitement among the white men. The offending newspaper office was destroyed and its editor fled. Resistance being offered, furious fighting occurred, in which a considerable number of negroes were killed, many were wounded, and hundreds were driven by terror from the town. White Republican officials were also expelled or took to flight, and their opponents secured control of city affairs.

1900.—Constitutional amendment for qualification of suffrage.—By a constitutional amendment, adopted in August, 1900, the following qualification of the suffrage was established:

"Sect. 4. Every person presenting himself for registration shall be able to read and write any section of the constitution in the English language; and, before he shall be entitled to vote, he shall have paid, on or before the 1st day of May of the year in which he proposes to vote, his poll tax for the previous year as prescribed by Article V, section 1, of the constitution. But no male person who was on January 1, 1867 or at any time prior thereto, entitled to vote under the laws of any State in the United States wherein he then resided, and no lineal descendant of any such person, shall be denied the right to register and vote at any election in this State by reason of his failure to possess the educational qualification herein prescribed, provided he shall have registered in accordance with the terms of this section prior to December, 1908. The general assembly shall provide for the registration of all persons entitled

to vote without the educational qualifications herein prescribed, and shall, on or before November 1, 1908, provide for the making of a permanent record of such registration, and all persons so registered shall forever thereafter have the right to vote in all elections by the people in this State, unless disqualified under section 2 of this article: Provided, Such person shall have paid his poll tax as above required."

Governor Aycock, who was elected on the suffrage amendment issue, received a majority of 60,354 votes, the largest majority ever received by any man in the history of North Carolina for the office of governor. The amendment was drawn with great skill, he declared, "with the deliberate purpose of depriving the negro of the right to vote, and of allowing every white man to retain that right . . . its passage will mean peace to the land, it will mean an end to an era of crime and lawlessness, security to property and purity of politics. There will be no more dead negroes on the streets of Wilmington, no more rule of the incompetent and corrupt."—R. D. W. Connor and C. Poe, *Life and speeches of Charles B. Aycock*, p. 81.

1900-1920.—Distribution and slow growth of population.—Recent trend toward cities.—In 1860 the slave population of western North Carolina was thirty-eight per cent of the white, while in the East it was more than seventy-five per cent. The fugitive slave laws held the negroes; the whites emigrated—the shiftless "poor whites" to the pine barrens and still more lonely mountains, the better sort to the western states and to the cities. But in North Carolina itself, as late as 1900, there was not a single city with a population of 25,000. The entire population of the state in that year was 1,893,810, of which 386,251 were colored. In 1920 Winston-Salem and Charlotte each approximated 50,000; Wilmington, the seaport, had 33,372; Raleigh, the capital, 24,418; Asheville, the principal city in western Carolina, 28,504; Durham and Greensboro, each in the neighborhood of 20,000. The total population in 1910 was only 2,206,287 of whom 1,500,511 were white and 697,843 negro. The population in 1920 was 2,559,123, of whom 1,783,779 were white and 763,407 negro. The proportion of the population of North Carolina living in places of 2,500 or more increased from 9.9 per cent in 1900 to 14.4 per cent in 1910 and to 19.2 per cent in 1920.

1900-1920.—Education.—"Gov. Aycock did much for education during his term from 1900 to 1904. Rural libraries were started and a loan fund provided."—J. P. Arthur, *Western North Carolina*, pp. 420-421.—School attendance is now compulsory and separate schools are provided for white and colored pupils. There were 7,877 elementary schools with 634,250 pupils in 1918; 248 high schools with 12,788 pupils; nine normal schools for the training of teachers and fifteen universities and colleges. In 1880 the average school term in rural white schools was only 48 days; in 1919, as a result of the new school law the term was 120 days. . . . From 1880-1918 the enrollment of the white school population rose from 54 to 78 per cent and the enrollment of the colored school population from 47 to 69 per cent."

—Public education in North Carolina (*Report by the State Educational Commission, 1920*, pp. 6-8). —The University of North Carolina, founded in 1795, had in 1922 an enrollment of 1,870. It has played an important part in the recent remarkable progress of the state. Through its courses, its publications, its news-letters, its surveys and its incessant activity in behalf of the public wel-

fare, the people of the state are kept constantly aware of their social, economic and intellectual needs, shown how to meet those needs, and most important of all, are assured of constructive leadership.—See also below: 1915-1922.

Also in: R. D. W. Connor and C. Poe, *Life and speeches of Charles B. Aycock*, ch. 8, 10.

1900-1922.—Political issues.—Governors.—Since 1900 the Democrats have been securely in power in state government and in most of the counties. A contest in 1907 over railroad passenger rates (provided for by The Maximum Railway Fare Act of 1907) was carried to the United States Supreme Court, which in 1908 declared the rate law unconstitutional. In the same year a special session of the state legislature submitted to the people the question of state-wide prohibition, which was carried by a majority of 44,196. Special and local legislation increased during these years to such an extent that in 1911 Governor Kitchin recommended its limitation by constitutional amendment. This was accomplished, after a contest, by the adoption in 1916 of four constitutional amendments restricting special legislation; providing emergency judges to prevent delays in trials; forbidding the General Assembly to grant special charters to corporations; or to towns, cities and incorporated villages. In 1915 the direct primary was adopted. Since 1901 there has been a marked tendency toward long terms for members of Congress. "Three of the four gubernatorial contests in the democratic party have been intense. In 1904 there was an excited pre-convention campaign between R. B. Glenn, Charles M. Stedman, W. D. Turner, and T. F. Davidson, but with only the first two really having a chance. Glenn was nominated on the fifth ballot and in November carried the state by forty-nine thousand, defeating Charles J. Harris, the republican candidate. In 1908 there was an intense contest between Locke Craig, W. W. Kitchin, and Ashley Horne. The convention which met in Charlotte was deadlocked for almost a week, but Kitchin was finally nominated on the sixty-first ballot and in the election defeated J. Elwood Cox by thirty-eight thousand majority. Locke Craig was nominated without opposition in 1912 and ran against Thomas Settle on the republican ticket and Iredell Meares on the progressive ticket, defeating both with a majority of more than fifty-six thousand. Meares led Settle by more than six thousand. In 1916 Thomas W. Bickett, who had leaped to state-wide reputation by his nominating speech in behalf of Ashley Horne in 1908, and had been nominated for attorney-general when he was not a candidate for the office, defeated Lieutenant-Governor E. B. Daughtridge in the primary by twenty-six thousand. The republicans nominated Frank A. Linney, and a spirited campaign followed in which the two candidates carried on a joint canvass, marked by debate of a high order and fine spirit. Bickett received a majority of forty-seven thousand."—J. G. de R. Hamilton, *North Carolina since 1860 (History of North Carolina, v. 3, pp. 341-342)*.

1902-1922.—Industrial development.—Labor conditions.—"The Southern cotton mill is no longer sure of profits, for some of the former advantages have disappeared with the growth of the industry and increased competition. Since much of the cotton must now be brought from a distance by rail, the freight rate is often greater than the water rate New England pays, and there is the added cost of shipping the product to market. Fuel is more expensive than formerly, though many mills are able to use hydro-electric power generated on the rivers. The farming population is more prosperous and no longer flecks so readily to the

mills. Wages are rising toward the New England level, and, measured by purchasing power, almost if not quite reach it; for though the cost of food and shelter is rising, they are still low, compared with the older manufacturing districts."—H. Thompson, *New South, economic and social (Studies in Southern history and politics, p. 301)*. —The mills are chiefly to be found in "four States, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, and in the hill country of these States, though a few large mills are situated in the lowlands. North Carolina, with over three hundred mills, has more than any other State, North or South, and consumes more cotton than any other Southern State—over a million bales. . . . [It] is second only to Massachusetts in the value of its cotton products. . . . There is some localization of industry: a very large number of mills, for instance, may be found in a radius of one hundred miles from Charlotte, North Carolina, and one North Carolina county has more than fifty mills, though the total number of spindles in that county is not much greater than in some single New England establishment. In the allied knitting industry . . . North Carolina led the South in 1914. . . . [The lucrative fertilizer and cottonseed oil products industries are based on by-products of the cotton industry. Lumbering, the manufacture of furniture and the cultivation of tobacco are also important.] The laborer employed in the manufacturing enterprises of the South, whether white or black, is native born and Southern born. . . . Speaking broadly, those dealing with complicated machines are white, while those engaged in simpler processes are white or black. We find, therefore, a preponderance of whites in the textile industries and in the shops producing articles from wood and iron, while the blacks are found in the lumber industry, in the tobacco factories, in the mines, and at the blast furnaces. There are some skilled workmen among the negroes especially in tobacco, but generally they furnish the unskilled labor. [In 1920 a sixty hour week for workers in mills and factories was adopted. Between 1900 and 1920 industrial wages rose from 14 to 137 million dollars and capital employed from 68 to 669 millions.]"—H. Thompson, *New South (Chronicle of America Series, v. 42, pp. 97-98, 106-107)*. —Since 1915 industrial development has been so rapid as to change North Carolina from a primarily agricultural state to an industrial community. "Agriculture no longer leads in North Carolina; manufacture leads for the first time in the history of the State. It means that North Carolina has moved up from small-scale farm production on domestic levels into big-scale factory production on commercial levels. The volume of wealth created by our factories has been doubled and trebled and quadrupled in quantity since 1914, and its value has been increased even more amazingly. The creation of industrial values shows nearly a sixfold increase during the last five years, against a threefold increase in the value of our agricultural output during the last ten years."—E. C. Branson, *Presidential address (State Social Work Conference, Raleigh, Jan. 25, 1921)*. 1915-1922.—Complete transformation in social outlook.—Carolina playmakers.—Solution of rural problems.—From the most backward of the southern states, proud to be known as "a valley of humiliation between two mountains of conceit," North Carolina has become the foremost southern state in industrial development and in social vision. Road-building, education, and advanced social legislation are creating a self-conscious community with a common life out of a

great number of isolated individuals. Modern methods are working wonders in the material life of town and country alike. In the first ten months of 1922 North Carolina voted \$11,000,000 for school buildings—more than Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, and Tennessee combined. At the state university at Chapel Hill, Professor Koch (in 1922) was teaching students how to create a folk literature and a folk theater from their rich native history and traditions. This group, called the Carolina Playmakers, marks the appearance of an original cultural movement among a people hitherto devoid of culture. The story of North Carolina's attack on rural problems since 1915 "covers a common-school fund nearly doubled during the war and a fifty per cent salary increase for public school teachers as a legal requirement; an illiteracy commission with a support fund of \$25,000 a year; a compulsory school attendance law, together with a standard child-labor law; three and a half millions of bond money for enlarging and equipping . . . public institutions of learning and benevolence; nearly \$250,000 a year for public health work, for the medical and dental inspection of schools and the free treatment of indigent school children, and for the defense of . . . homes against the ravages of social disease; around a million two hundred thousand dollars a year of local, state and federal funds for agricultural education and promotion; a law sanctioning co-operative enterprise in general, and in particular the best co-operative credit-union law in the United States, as a result of which . . . [North Carolina has] more farm credit-unions than all the rest of the states combined; a statewide cotton warehouse system based on the best law in the South; a public welfare law establishing a state welfare board with ample authority and support, and . . . [requiring] county welfare boards and superintendents; a juvenile court and probation officer in every county, and in every city with 10,000 inhabitants or more; a rural township incorporation law and a state commission charged with rural organization and recreation; a state-wide social service organization, and public welfare courses at the state university. And so on and on. Thirty-five laws of economic and social import have gone on . . . [the] statute books in four years, all of them directly or indirectly related to rural social welfare."—E. C. Branson, *North Carolina scheme of rural development (Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work at 46th annual session held in Atlantic City, New Jersey, June 1-8, 1919, pp. 547-548)*.

ALSO IN: F. H. Koch, *Play production for amateurs*.

1916-1917.—Migration of negroes. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1905-1921.

1917.—Opposition to Owen-Keating child labor law. See U.S.A.: 1916-1917: Opposition to Owen-Keating child labor law.

1918-1920.—Part played in World War.—Prohibition.—Election of governor.—Woman suffrage.—The state furnished 73,003 soldiers, or 1.94 per cent of the whole force. North Carolina ratified the National Prohibition Amendment on January 14, 1919. In 1920 Cameron Morrison was elected governor and ratification of the Federal Woman Suffrage Amendment was defeated.

1921-1922.—Failure of strike of cotton mill operatives.—Creation of cotton commission.—"A strike of the cotton mill operatives in North Carolina, which began in February, 1921, ended in August, 1922, with the complete victory of the owners. Wage reductions ranging from thirty-

eight to fifty per cent were made."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, Supplement, p. 55.—In 1921 the legislature created a cotton commission "to confer with commissions from other cotton states to ascertain the world's demand for cotton, the cost of cotton production, the price to be fixed by the planters; and to work out a scheme to finance the crops in order to maintain the price so fixed."—*American Political Science Review*, Nov., 1922, p. 655.

NORTH DAKOTA: Its location, area, and resources.—North Dakota, one of the western states of the United States, is bounded on the north by the Canadian provinces of Manitoba and Saskatchewan, on the south by South Dakota, on the east by Minnesota, and on the west by Montana. Its area is 70,837 square miles. It is one of the chief wheat producing states, having a larger area of fertility than any other of the western states. Though its interests are mainly agricultural, its manufactured products are flour and pottery. There are large coal deposits, not yet fully developed, in the state. In 1920 the population of North Dakota was 646,872. The state capital is at Bismarck.—See also U.S.A.: Economic Map.

Early history. See DAKOTA TERRITORY.

1803.—Included in Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

1880-1892.—Influence of railroads.—"For years the eye of a master mind had been keenly observant of the happenings in Dakota, and the idea of another road to the Pacific coast, paralleling the Northern Pacific on a more northerly route, was conceived by James J. Hill. . . . Following the financial panic of 1873, in which so many of the leading financiers of the country went down to ruin, Mr. Hill took over the mortgage-encumbered St. Paul and Pacific Railroad, and reorganized it on a sound basis, under the name of the St. Paul, Minneapolis & Manitoba Railroad Company. . . . In 1880 the new transcontinental line crossed the Red River of the North at Grand Forks, and, under the name of the Great Northern Railway, which it still retains, the road continued on its way across the northern part of the state, opening up fresh territory, and with feeder lines furnishing to the new settlers, who followed along its line, marketing facilities for their grain and produce. Response to the railway's initiative was immediate and extensive. All along its route towns and villages sprang up, and the wild country was rapidly settled by an enterprising and aggressive class of farmers and business men, even more rapidly than had been the more southern settlement along the Northern Pacific. Unhampered by the speculative holdings of alternate sections which the huge land grant of the Northern Pacific rendered possible along its territory, every arable section contiguous to the Great Northern was susceptible to homestead entry under the United States government laws, and the development of that part of the country was therefore that much more rapidly accomplished, nor was it long before the northern half of the state was striding side by side in population and wealth with the older settled southern half."—*Development of North Dakota* (Year Book of 1909, North Dakota Magazine, Feb., 1910, p. 8).

1880-1916.—Admitted to Union.—Settled under new conditions of immigration.—Political character as a state.—North Dakota was created by the division of the territory of Dakota into North and South Dakota, by the votes of the inhabitants, and was admitted into the Union in 1889. (See DAKOTA TERRITORY: 1882-1889;

U.S.A.: 1889-1890.) President Harrison signed the Enabling Act, February 22, 1889, and the constitutional convention was called at Bismarck on July 4 of the same year. The unique provision in North Dakota's state constitution was the prohibition of the liquor traffic at the inception of statehood. The Constitution was ratified in October, 1889, and on November 2, President Harrison proclaimed North Dakota a state. Four years before, as chairman of the Committee on Territories, during the agitation in Congress for statehood of Dakota, he had attributed the phenomenal development of the territory, whose population had increased 885 per cent. in a decade, to the easy conditions of immigration created by the railroad. "The emigrant who is seeking a home in the West does not now use as his vehicle a pack-train, a Conestoga wagon, or even a broadhorn. The great bulk of the people who have gone into Dakota have gone upon the steam-car, many of them, within sight of the home which they were to take up under the homestead laws of the United States. . . . Therefore, . . . the ratio of emigration and settlement in these new States outstrips almost beyond description the settlements of the earlier States in the West. Looking at some of the statistics upon this question, I find by the Railroad Manual of 1883 that Dakota had eleven railroads and nearly 2,500 miles of completed railway."—Speech by Benjamin Harrison, *Congressional Record*, 48th Congress, 2nd Session, v. 16, Part 1, Dec. 1, 1884-Jan. 22, 1885, pp. 109-110.—"Without the railroad a farm in North Dakota . . . is worthless. [But, entirely dependent on railroad transportation for the marketing of their products,] the farmers began to complain of extortionate charges, discriminating rates, rebates, and corruption of legislatures."—G. Plumb and W. G. Roylance, *Industrial democracy*, p. 169.—The political cast of this great agricultural community, welcomed into the Union under a Republican administration, has been Republican except in 1892 during the Populist movement, and in 1916, when a political revolution was brought about by the Non-Partisan League. The League's program for the state ownership of grain elevators, and other marketing utilities, made a vital appeal to the North Dakota farmers, who in 1916 were producing 39,325,000 bushels of wheat, 13,515,000 bushels of corn, and 53,750,000 bushels of oats, besides crops of all the other cereals grown in the north temperate zone.—Based on *International Year Book*, 1917.

1892-1896.—Farmers' alliances in politics.—The farmers' alliances, which had developed early in North Dakota, were the organized groups to register a protest against the tyranny of the railroads. They found in the platform of the Populist party the promise of relief from their economic ills, and merged themselves with the growing movement of this third national party. In 1892 North Dakota gave her support to the Populist candidate for President, James B. Weaver of Iowa.

1899.—Decision of State Supreme Court regarding divorce.—In 1899, by Supreme Court decision, divorce proceedings were limited to citizens of the state or persons intending to become bona fide residents.

1900-1914.—Public education.—Growth of railroads.—Irrigation.—Indian reservation.—Initiative and referendum.—"In keeping with the traditions of all agricultural states, North Dakota has shown the intelligence and progressive character of her population by the state and social institutions which have grown up as her territorial youth developed into the lusty growth of statehood. Rec-

ognizing the supreme importance of a liberal and easily available system of education for the coming generations, this subject has been always prominent in the consideration of our legislatures, and . . . the people of North Dakota point with pride to the efficiently conducted schools, both rural and urban, which offer on every hand an education to all who seek it. . . . The railroad development of the state has been, [rapid]. . . . Three great trunk lines pass through the state, the Great Northern, running east and west on its way to the Coast through the upper-one-third; the Northern Pacific, averaging one hundred miles south of the Great Northern, following the same general direction, and the Minneapolis, St. Paul and Sault Ste. Marie railway, following a diagonal course from southeast to northwest, joining the Canadian Pacific line north of the boundary line."—*Development of North Dakota (Year Book of 1909, North Dakota Magazine, Feb., 1910, p. 9)*.—"June 20th, 1907, will go down in history as a red letter day in the development of the state of North Dakota and especially the northwestern section thereof. On that day James Rudolph Garfield, Secretary of the Interior . . . and others of the Reclamation Service, arrived at Williston, Williams County, to inspect and formally open the Buford-Trenton and the Williston irrigation projects, . . . constructed by the United States government through the Reclamation Service. . . . [Under the Reclamation Act, as approved by Congress June 17, 1902, of the \$30,000,000 already in the fund created by the act] \$4,500,000 is credited to North Dakota. . . . The Williston project will eventually bring under irrigation some 40,000 acres of land in the valley of the Little Muddy which empties into the Missouri River just below the city at Williston."—J. W. Jackson, *Williston and Buford-Trenton irrigation projects (North Dakota Magazine, Aug., 1907)*.—See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1902-1919.—In 1911 the Berthold Indian Reservation was opened to homestead entry. The initiative and referendum first introduced in 1907, was in 1914 made applicable to all legislation by constitutional amendment. See INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.

1915.—Rise of Non-Partisan League. See NON-PARTISAN LEAGUE.

1916-1921.—Political revolution in state.—Success of Non-Partisan League.—Constitutional amendments as basis for League's economic program.—In 1916 North Dakota cast her electoral vote for Wilson, sent a stalwart Republican to the United States Senate, (Senator McCumber) and elected a Non Partisan governor, Lynn J. Frazier. "The Non-Partisan League captured the State offices and the lower branch of the legislature in 1916, but the Senate was half hold-over and it was not until two years later, following the 1918 election, that the Non-Partisans were able to have the legislature enact laws to carry out their program. The following year the League was forced to defend these laws at a referendum precipitated by the Independents, so that the program was held up several months more. This was followed by an attack, in State and Federal courts on the constitutionality of the industrial program, which held up the experiment for another year."—O. S. Morris, *Vote of the North Dakota farmers (Nation, Nov. 9, 1921)*.—To provide the constitutional machinery for a reform program, ten constitutional amendments were advocated by the League. "The Ten Constitutional Amendments . . . were voted upon by the voters November 5 [1918]. Three of these were referred to the

voters by the last legislature—giving the legislature power to levy an acreage tax to provide for state hail insurance; giving corporations the right to limit the voting power of stockholders; providing that at least four of the five judges of the supreme court must concur in any decision declaring a law of the state unconstitutional. These each received a majority vote of about 20,000, and at the recent meeting of the state canvassing board were declared adopted, thereby immediately becoming a part of the constitution of the state. The remaining seven amendments were initiated by the Non-Partisan League. No. 1 provides for a modification and extension of the initiative and referendum as applied to legislation; No. 2, for the immediate taking effect of emergency measures; No. 3, that a constitutional amendment must receive a majority of the votes cast thereon by the voters to become a part of the constitution; No. 4, that the legislature may exempt personal property, including buildings and improvements upon land, from taxation; No. 5, that the legislature may levy an acreage tax for hail indemnity. No. 6, that the state may issue or guarantee the payment of bonds, such bonds in excess of \$2,000,000 to be secured by first mortgages upon real estate or upon the property of state-owned utilities. The amount of bonds that may be issued upon the latter security is limited to \$10,000,000; No. 7, that the state, or any county or city, may make internal improvements, and may engage in any industry, enterprise or business not prohibited by the Constitution. . . . The three most cherished measures of the league, the ones regarding constitutional amendment, the debt limit, and public ownership—the ones upon which the league program was dependent—lacked from two to four hundred votes of receiving this majority. In the confusion the attorney general was appealed to. In a lengthy decision, backed by two decisions of the state supreme court, he maintained that the votes to be counted in deciding whether or not any of these amendments had passed were those votes only which had been cast for or against the particular amendment. Accepting this decision, the canvassing board by a three to two vote declared all ten amendments adopted."—E. T. Towne, *Ten constitutional amendments in North Dakota, notes and events (National Municipal Review, Jan., 1919)*.

1917-1918.—World War.—Public opinion.—Loyalty of Non-Partisan League.—"For months after the declaration of war the majority of the people of the Northwest remained in a state of haze as to its real nature. In the fall of 1917 Townley [organizer of the Non-Partisan League] went to Washington and conferred with the President, with George Creel, chairman of the national Committee on Public Information, and with others. . . . Mr. Creel was one of the few men in the government that saw that what in the West had been stupidly called disloyalty was nothing but lack of information. . . . The Committee on Public Information at once took up the task of enlightening those that had never considered the causes of the war, and from that time on there was no trouble, except with the actual German and pro-German element, of which North Dakota had no larger share than some other states. Mr. Creel afterward gave unequivocal testimony to the loyalty of North Dakota under the farmers' administration. . . . [He wrote later:] 'Three successive crop failures, and yet the farmers of that state oversubscribed the first Liberty Loan 140 per cent; the second, 70 per cent; and the third 76 per cent. With only one regiment at the outset, North

Dakota promptly recruited a second, and 3,887 men entered the service as volunteers. The draft records show that the cost per certified conscript in North Dakota was \$1.83 against an average of \$4.23 for all other states. In the last Red Cross drive North Dakota's allotment was \$200,000, and it subscribed \$575,000. Its Y. M. C. A. allotment was \$100,000, and it subscribed \$175,000. In 1918 North Dakota increased its wheat acreage over 630,000 acres at the request of the government; it was one of the first states to decree that all persons between the ages of eighteen and fifty must be employed in essential industry; also to provide a moratorium protecting soldiers from foreclosure of loans."—C. H. Russell, *Story of the Non-Partisan League*, pp. 243-244.

1918.—Reclamation of lands by irrigation. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1918.

1919.—Legislative program of Non-Partisan League.—In 1919 the state legislature, controlled by the League, finally succeeded in passing a series of measures to establish agrarian and industrial reforms. An industrial commission, composed of the governor, the secretary of agriculture, and the attorney-general, was authorized to administer state owned enterprises. These enterprises included grain elevators, mills, warehouses, a home-building association, an official newspaper, and a state bank, which was to serve as a clearing house to state banks, and to finance the above named businesses. In the issue which arose concerning the constitutionality of these laws, the supreme court supported the state against the taxpayers. (See NON-PARTISAN LEAGUE.) North Dakota also wrote on her statute books a workman's compensation law, a child labor law, an eight hour law for women, a mine inspection code, a hail insurance provision, an inheritance tax, and an income tax. A new classification of taxable property was made, exempting farm improvements from taxation. The opposition, which had also been opposed to the initiative and referendum amendment to the state constitution, now resorted to this means of checking the League's legislation, and called for a referendum election. The campaign was a bitter one, exciting nation-wide attention. The League program was carried by substantial majorities.

1919.—Minimum wage law passed. See LABOR REMUNERATION: 1910-1920.

1919.— Fargo bank scandal.—The Fargo bank scandal, the personal and political conflicts within the League which it revealed, was one of the causes for the decline of the Non-Partisan movement in North Dakota. Out of highly contradictory contemporary accounts of this event, the facts appear to be as follows: The State Bank of North Dakota, created by the League's legislation, had as a subsidiary corporation the Scandinavian-American Bank at Fargo, of which H. J. Hagen was president. "The bank carried loans of \$432,000 on four Non-Partisan League accounts, to which the greatest possible legal loan, on the best security, would have been \$36,000 on the basis of \$9,000 each. Money was taken out of the bank at the rate of about \$50,000 a month during the last five months it was in operation, increasing Non-Partisan League loans in that time from \$192,000 in April to \$432,000 in October. The bank had no record of the hundreds of thousands of dollars of post-dated checks and similar collateral held on league loans. An apparent credit of \$81,000 in a Duluth bank, maintained with the knowledge and approval of the directors, did not represent actual available assets, as under an agreement between

the banks this deposit in Duluth could be used only to protect certain notes which the Scandinavian-American Bank [had] endorsed 'without recourse' and transferred without actually selling them to the Duluth bank. In other words, false statements were made with the intention of deceiving the bank examiners and the public as to the amount and character of the bank's assets."

—E. T. Devine, *North Dakota, laboratory of the Non-Partisan League* (Survey, Mar. 6, 1920).—The industrial commission ordered a sudden investigation of the Fargo bank, and declared it insolvent. Upon the appeal of president Hagen to the supreme court, however, the state receiver was dismissed, the attorney-general and bank examiner were enjoined from interfering with the bank, and it was opened in a month. During its suspension the farmers brought in their deposits to show their faith in the institution. One faction declared the farmers' patronage was maintained by Townley's political pressure, which extended also to the state judiciary; the other, that the bank was the object of political persecution. However, the League itself closed the bank in 1921.

1920.—Non-Partisan League represented in Senate.—North Dakota in 1920 elected Edwin F. Ladd to the United States Senate. Professor Ladd, president of the agricultural state college of North Dakota, was the League's candidate, and his election carried the state's new policies into national politics.

1920.—Workmen's compensation law passed. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: United States: 1920.

1921.—Difficulties of League fundamentally financial.—Friction within its ranks.—Recall of Governor Frazier.—The primary problem of the Non-Partisan League was to finance its state ownership plan. The state bank had been devised for this purpose. Having won out in the issue against the objecting taxpayers, the League now faced another crisis, in which it was ostensibly defeated. "Certain groups within the organization turned against it, and united with the old time Republicans. The Opposition put through an initiative measure which struck hard at the Bank of North Dakota by making it no longer necessary for local governing bodies to deposit their funds there. . . . As soon as the local governments began to withdraw their deposits . . . the Bank of North Dakota was obliged to call its deposits from the country banks. The latter in turn began to call the farmers' notes. But the farmers could not pay, and bank after bank went under."—*Nation*, Oct. 19, 1921, p. 438.—On October 28, 1921, counting on the dissatisfaction of the farmers involved in the financial difficulties of the League, its opponents used the constitutional privilege which it had established and demanded a recall of Governor Frazier, who was serving his third term. He was recalled by a majority vote of 11,000, and was succeeded by the Independent Republican candidate, R. A. Nestos. The outcome of the vote was due to complex economic and political conditions. "The recall campaign found the League program in its principal parts inoperative after nearly seven years of fighting and sticking by the farmers. The farmers were discouraged and disappointed. It seemed in vain that they had spent money and energy for seven years to win seven hotly contested State-wide primaries and elections. True, the State Bank had at last sold a considerable part of the State bonds to carry out the program, but this sale had been attacked during the recall campaign by another suit which promised to cause an-

other year's delay and uncertainty. In the meantime the State had had repeated crop failures, or near ones, and the after-the-war deflation had hit the farmers first and worse than any other industry. All this combined caused a sort of despair which made the siren promises of the Independents sound plausible. They promised to give the mill and elevator projects a fair trial, to continue under a separate commission the farm loan function of the Bank of North Dakota, and to give the State a conservative business administration which would turn out the radicals, dreamers, and experimenters, and thus restore State credit and prosperity. It was only necessary, on the basis of [the 1920] election figures, to convince about five thousand farmers who had been voting with the Leaguers that this was the way out. And the Independents did convince about that many, which accounts for the result. Some minor causes of the defeat should be mentioned. The ambitions of some of the North Dakota League leaders succeeded over a year ago, with the cry of 'more democracy in the League,' in eliminating Townley from active charge of League work in the State. The recall defense campaign did not have the benefit of his impelling personality and organizing genius. For the first time since the League began its work, Townley campaign meetings were not held. No other League speaker was able to draw the immense crowds that always featured his tours of the State. He was not in the State until election night. The next day at Fargo he read the returns which spelled defeat while awaiting the formal issuance of the commitment papers in Jackson County, Minnesota, marking the beginning of his ninety days' term for 'discouraging enlistments' during the war, recently upheld by the courts."—O. S. Morris, *Vote of the North Dakota farmers* (Nation, Nov. 9, 1921).

1922.—The Elections.—The League's candidates sent to United States Senate.—In November, 1922, the Independent Republicans defeated the Non-Partisans for the governorship, electing Governor Nestos. The vote was 110,321 to 81,048. Lynn Frazier, the former governor, was elected to the United States Senate over the Independent Democratic candidate, thus achieving for the Non-Partisans the distinction of holding the state's two seats in the United States Senate.

Also in: W. C. Gilbreath, *North Dakota and her resources*.—F. L. Paxson, *Admission of omnibus states*.—F. Turner, *Frontier in American history*.—F. L. MacVey, *Populist movement*.—J. Moody, *Railroad builders* (Chronicles of America).—A. T. Hadley, *Railroad transportation*.—F. Parsons and R. Albertson, *Railway trusts and people*.—A. A. Bruce, *Non-Partisan League*.—H. E. Gaston, *Non-Partisan League*.—J. W. Brinton and J. R. Waters, *A. C. Townley, dreamer, promoter, boss*.—C. R. Johnson, *Struggle of the Non-Partisan League* (New Republic, Mar. 9, 1921), pp. 44-46.

NORTH EAST LAND, island in the Arctic ocean, near Spitsbergen. See SPITSBERGEN.

NORTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION. See GERMANY: 1866.

NORTH MARK, original name for Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

NORTH POLE, northern extremity of the earth's axis. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Map of Arctic regions; 1886-1909.

NORTH RIVER, name given to the lower course of the Hudson. See NEW YORK: 1614-1621.

NORTH SEA, part of the north Atlantic ocean, between the east coast of Great Britain and the continent of Europe.

1908.—North Sea and Baltic Agreement.—In 1908, England, France, Germany, Denmark, Sweden and the Netherlands came to an agreement known as the North Sea and Baltic Agreement, concerning the maintenance of the *status quo* in the territories bordering upon the North sea. The treaty was signed at Berlin, where ratifications were deposited July 2, 1908, in the following terms: "Declaration.—The British, Danish, French, German, Netherland, and Swedish Governments, animated by the desire to strengthen the ties of neighbourly friendship existing between their respective countries, and to contribute thereby to the preservation of universal peace, and recognizing that their policy with respect to the regions bordering on the North Sea is directed to the maintenance of the existing territorial *status quo*,

"Declare that they are firmly resolved to preserve intact, and mutually to respect, the sovereign rights which their countries at present enjoy over their respective territories in those regions.

"Should any events occur which, in the opinion of any of the above-mentioned Governments, threaten the existing territorial *status quo* in the regions bordering upon the North Sea, the Powers Signatory of the present Declaration will communicate with each other in order to concert, by an agreement to be arrived at between them, such measures as they may consider it useful to take in the interest of the maintenance of the *status quo* as regards their possessions.

"The present Declaration shall be ratified with the least possible delay. The ratifications shall be deposited at Berlin as soon as may be, and, at the latest, on the 31st December, 1908. The deposit of each ratification shall be recorded in a Protocol, of which a certified copy shall be forwarded through the diplomatic channel to the Signatory Powers.

"Memorandum.—At the moment of signing the Declaration of this days' date, the Undersigned, by order of their respective Governments, consider it necessary to state—

"1. That the principle of the maintenance of the *status quo*, as laid down by the said Declaration, applies solely to the territorial integrity of all the existing possessions of the High Contracting Parties in the regions bordering upon the North Sea, and that consequently the Declaration can in no case be invoked where the free exercise of the sovereign rights of the High Contracting Parties over their above-mentioned respective possessions is in question;

"2. That, for the purposes of the said Declaration, the North Sea shall be considered to extend eastwards as far as its junction with the waters of the Baltic."—Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications* (Papers by command, Treaty series no. 35, 1907, and 23, 1908, Cd. 3754 and 4248).

1915.—British naval operations. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IX. Naval operations: a.

1918.—Mines laid by United States. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: c, 4.

NORTHAMPTON, Battle of, one of the battles in the English civil wars of the fifteenth century called the Wars of the Roses, fought July 10, 1460. See ENGLAND: 1455-1471.

NORTHAMPTON, Peace of. See SCOTLAND: 1328.

NORTHBROOK, Thomas George Baring, 1st Earl (1826-1904), English statesman. Governor-general of India, 1872-1876. See INDIA: 1864-1893.

NORTHCLIFFE, Alfred Charles William Harmsworth, 1st Viscount (1865-1922), British newspaper proprietor. Assumed control of the London Times, 1908; chairman of the British war

mission to United States and director of the Civil Aerial Transport Committee, 1917; director of propaganda in enemy countries, 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: d, 2.

NORTHCOTE, Henry Stafford, 1st Baron (1846-1911), English administrator. Governor-general of Australia, 1904-1909. See **IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION**: Australia: 1909-1921.

NORTHEASTERN BOUNDARY QUESTION, between Great Britain and the United States. See **U.S.A.**: 1842: Treaty with England.

NORTHERN ALLIANCE. See **NATIONAL FARMERS' ALLIANCE**.

NORTHERN CIRCARS, or Northern Sirkars, name for five districts of Madras, India. See **INDIA**: 1758-1761.

NORTHERN MARITIME LEAGUE (1801). See **FRANCE**: 1801-1802.

NORTHERN SECURITIES COMPANY CASE (1904). See **RAILROADS**: 1901-1905.

NORTHEY, Sir Edward (1868-), British major-general. Commanded Nyassa-Rhodesia field forces in German East Africa, 1916-1918; high commissioner for the Zanzibar protectorate, 1918-1922. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 14; a, 19; a, 22.

NORTHMEN. See **NORMANS**.

NORTHUMBRIA, Kingdom of, the northernmost of the kingdoms formed by the Angles in Britain in the sixth century. It embraced the two kingdoms of Bernicia and Deira, sometimes ruled by separate princes, sometimes united, as Northumbria, under one, and extending from the Humber to the Forth. See **ENGLAND**: 547-633.

10-11th centuries.—Lothian joined to Scotland. See **SCOTLAND**: 10th-11th centuries.

NORTHWEST FRONTIER PROVINCE, province of British India, created in 1901. It is bounded on the west and north by Afghanistan, on the east by Kashmir and the Punjab, and on the south by Baluchistan. The district which is under British administration comprises an approximate area of 13,418 square miles with a population of 2,196,933.

NORTHWEST FUR COMPANY, combination of Canadian fur traders. See **CANADA**: 1783-1821; 1811-1816; **OREGON**: 1749-1859; 1808-1826.

NORTH-WEST MOUNTED POLICE. See **ROYAL CANADIAN MOUNTED POLICE**.

NORTHWEST PASSAGE, passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific sought for by early explorers and discovered in 1850. See **ARCTIC EXPLORATION**: 1850-1883.

NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES OF CANADA.—"The North-West Territories consist of the territories formerly known as Rupert's Land and the North-Western Territory, except such portions thereof as form the provinces, Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta and the Yukon Territory, together with all the British Territories and all islands adjacent thereto not included within any province, except the colony of Newfoundland and its dependencies. By Order in Council dated 16th March, 1918 [effective January 1, 1920] this area is subdivided into three provisional districts known as the districts of Mackenzie, Keewatin and Franklin. [See **CANADA**: Map.] . . . The territories are governed by a Commissioner appointed by the Governor-General, with a Council of not more than four members, also appointed by the Governor-General, and the Commissioner in Council is empowered to make ordinances for the territories."—*Colonial office list*, 1920, p. 165.—The territories had in 1920 an area of 1,242,224 square miles and a population of 18,481.

ALSO IN: R. Blanchard, *Discovery and conquest of the Northwest*.—E. T. Seton, *Arctic prairies*.—*Reports on the Northwest Territories* (Ottawa, Canada).

1870.—Cession to Canada. See **CANADA**: 1869-1873.

1895.—Formed into districts. See **CANADA**: 1895.

1897.—Territories given self-government. See **CANADA**: 1897 (October).

1898.—Vote on prohibition. See **CANADA**: 1898 (September).

1901-1902.—Increased representation in Parliament. See **CANADA**: 1901-1902.

1912.—Portions of territory given to Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec. See **CANADA**: 1912.

NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—"This northwestern land lay between the Mississippi, the Ohio, and the Great Lakes. It constitutes five of our large States and part of a sixth [namely, western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan]. But when independence was declared it was quite as much a foreign territory, considered from the standpoint of the old thirteen colonies, as Florida or Canada; the difference was that, whereas during the war we failed in our attempts to conquer Florida and Canada, we succeeded in conquering the Northwest. The Northwest formed no part of our country as it originally stood; it had no portion in the declaration of independence. It did not revolt; it was conquered. . . . We made our first important conquest during the Revolution itself."

—T. Roosevelt, *Winning of the West*, v. 1, pp. 32-33.

1673-1751.—Early French exploration and occupation. See **CANADA**: 1634-1673; 1669-1687; 1700-1735; **ILLINOIS**: 1700-1750; 1751; **MICHIGAN**: 1616-1701.

1748-1763.—Struggle of French and English for possession. See **OHIO**: 1748-1754; 1754; 1755; **CANADA**: 1750-1753; 1758.

1763.—Cession to Great Britain by Treaty of Paris.—Possession taken. See **SEVEN YEARS' WAR**: Treaties; **ILLINOIS**: 1765.

1763.—King's proclamation excluding settlers, and reserving whole interior of continent for Indians.—"On the 7th of October, 1763, George III. issued a proclamation, providing for four new governments or colonies, namely: Quebec, East Florida, West Florida, and Grenada [the latter embracing the "island of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the islands of Dominico, St. Vincent and Tobago"], and defining their boundaries. The limits of Quebec did not vary materially from those of the present province of that name, and those of East and West Florida comprised the present State of Florida and the country north of the Gulf of Mexico to the parallel of 31° latitude. It will be seen that no provision was made for the government of nine tenths of the new territory acquired by the Treaty of Paris, and the omission was not an oversight, but was intentional. The purpose was to reserve as crown lands the Northwest territory, the region north of the great lakes, and the country between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi, and to exclude them from settlement by the American colonies. They were left, for the time being, to the undisputed possession of the savage tribes. The king's 'loving subjects' were forbidden making purchases of land from the Indians, or forming any settlements 'westward of the sources of the rivers which fall into the sea from the West and Northwest,' 'and all persons who have willfully or inadvertently

seated themselves upon any lands' west of this limit were warned 'forthwith to remove themselves from such settlements.' Certain reasons for this policy were assigned in the proclamation, such as, 'preventing irregularities in the future, and that the Indians may be convinced of our justice,' etc.; but the real explanation appears in the Report of the Lords Commissioners for Trade and Plantations, in 1772, on the petition of Thomas Walpole and others for a grant of land on the Ohio. The report was drawn by Lord Hillsborough, the president of the board. The report states: 'We take leave to remind your lordships of that principle which was adopted by this Board, and approved and confirmed by his Majesty, immediately after the Treaty of Paris, viz.: the confining the western extent of settlements to such a distance from the sea-coasts as that those settlements should lie within reach of the trade and commerce of this kingdom, . . . and also of the exercise of that authority and jurisdiction which was conceived to be necessary for the preservation of the colonies in a due subordination to, and dependence upon, the mother country. And these we apprehend to have been the two capital objects of his Majesty's proclamation of the 7th of October, 1763. . . . The great object of colonizing upon the continent of North America has been to improve and extend the commerce, navigation, and manufacturers of this kingdom. . . . It does appear to us that the extension of the fur trade depends entirely upon the Indians being undisturbed in the possession of their hunting-grounds, and that all colonizing does in its nature, and must in its consequences, operate to the prejudice of that branch of commerce. . . . Let the Savages enjoy their deserts in quiet. Were they driven from their forests the peltry-trade would decrease.' . . . Such in clear and specific terms was the cold and selfish policy which the British crown and its ministers habitually pursued towards the American colonies; and in a few years it changed loyalty into hate, and brought on the American Revolution."—W. F. Poole, *West, from 1763 to 1783 (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 6, ch. 9)*.—"The king's proclamation [of 1763] shows that, in the construction put upon the treaty by the crown authorities, the ceded territory was a new acquisition by conquest. The proclamation was the formal appropriation of it as the king's domain, embracing all the country west of the heads or sources of the rivers falling into the Atlantic."—R. King, *Ohio, ch. 5*.—The text of the Proclamation of 1763 is in Force's *American archives, series 4, v. 1, p. 172*.

ALSO IN: G. McCarty, *Territorial governors of the old Northwest, pp. 17-18*.—*Annual Register, 1763, pt. 1, p. 211*.—*Macdonald's select charters and other documents illustrative of American history, pp. 261-266*.—*Draper collection of manuscripts (in State Historical Society of Wisconsin at Madison)*.

1763-1764.—Pontiac's War. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

1765-1768.—Indian treaties of German Flats and Fort Stanwix.—Boundary arrangement with the Six Nations. See U.S.A.: 1765-1768.

1774.—Territorial claims of Virginia.—Lord Dunmore's War. See OHIO: 1774; U.S.A.: 1781-1786.

1774.—Included in province of Quebec. See CANADA: 1763-1774.

1778-1779.—Its conquest from British by General Clark, and its organization under jurisdiction of Virginia. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779: Clark's conquest.

1781-1786.—Cession of conflicting territorial claims of states to the United States. See U.S.A.: 1781-1786.

1784.—Jefferson's plan for new states.—"The condition of the northwestern territory had long been under the consideration of the House [the Congress of the Confederation]. Several committees had been appointed, and several schemes listened to, for laying out new States, but it was not till the middle of April [1784], that a resolution was finally reached. One plan was to divide the ceded and purchased lands into seventeen States. Eight of these were to lie between the banks of the Mississippi and a north and south line through the falls of the Ohio. Eight more were to be marked out between this line and a second one parallel to it, and passing through the western bank of the mouth of the Great Kanawha. What remained was to form the seventeenth State. But few supporters were found for the measure, and a committee, over which Jefferson presided, was ordered to place before Congress a new scheme of division. Chase and Howe assisted him, and the three devised a plan whereby the prairie-lands were to be parted out among ten new States. The divisions then marked down have utterly disappeared, and the names given to them become so forgotten that nine tenths of the population which has, in our time, covered the whole region with wealthy cities and prosperous villages, and turned it from a waste to a garden have never in their lives heard the words pronounced. Some were borrowed from the Latin and some from the Greek; while others were Latinized forms of the names the Indians had given to the rivers. The States were to be, as far as possible, two degrees of latitude in width and arranged in three tiers. The Mississippi and a meridian through the falls of the Ohio included the western tier. The meridian through the falls of the Ohio and a second through the mouth of the Great Kanawha were the boundaries of the middle tier. Between this and the Pennsylvania West Line lay the third tier. That vast tract stretching from the 45th parallel of latitude to the Lake of the Woods, and dense with forests of pine, of hickory, and of oak, they called Sylvania. It was the northern State of the western tier. To the long tongue of land separating the water of Michigan from the waters of Erie and Huron they gave the name Cherronesus. A narrow strip, not more than two degrees of latitude in width, and stretching from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi, was called Michigania. As marked down on their rude maps, Michigania lay under Sylvania, in the very heart of what is now Wisconsin. South of this to the 41st parallel of latitude was Assenisipia, a name derived from Assenisipi, the Indian title of the river now called the Rock. Eastward, along the shore of Lake Erie, the country was named Metropotamia. It took the name Mother of Rivers from the belief that within its boundary were the fountains of many rivers, the Muskingum, the two Miamis of Ohio, the Wabash, the Illinois, the Sandusky, and the Miami of the Lake. That part of Illinois between the 39th and 41st parallels was called, from the river which waters it, Illinoia. On to the east was Saratoga, and beyond this lay Washington, a broad and level tract shut in by the Ohio river, the waters of the lake, and the boundaries of Pennsylvania. Under Illinoia and Saratoga, and stretching along the Ohio, was the ninth State. Within its confines the waters of the Wabash, the Sawane, the Tannissee, the Illinois, and the Ohio were mingled with the waters

of the Mississippi and Missouri. The committee therefore judged that a fitting name would be Polypotamia. Pelisipia was the tenth State. It lay to the east of Polypotamia, and was named from Pelisipi, a term the Cherokees often applied to the river Ohio. At the same time that the boundaries of the new States were defined, a code of laws was drawn up which should serve as a constitution for each State, till 20,000 free inhabitants acquired the right of self-government. The code was in no wise a remarkable performance, yet there were among its articles two which cannot be passed by in silence. One provided for the abolition of slavery after the year 1800. The other announced that no one holding an hereditary title should ever become a citizen of the new States. Each was struck out by the House. Yet each is deserving of notice. The one because it was the first attempt at a national condemnation of slavery, the other because it was a public expression of the dread with which our ancestors beheld the growth of the Society of the Cincinnati."—J. B. McMaster, *History of the people of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 2. —The report of Jefferson's committee "was re-committed to the same committee on the 17th of March, and a new one was submitted on the 22d of the same month. The second report agreed in substance with the first. The principal difference was the omission of the paragraph giving names to the States to be formed out of the Western Territory." After striking out the clauses prohibiting slavery after the year 1800 and denying citizenship to all persons holding hereditary titles, the Congress adopted the report, April 23, 1784. "Thus the substance of the report of Mr. Jefferson of a plan for the government of the Western Territory (without restrictions as to slavery) became a law, and remained so during 1784 to 1787, when these resolutions were repealed in terms by the passage of the ordinance for the government of the Territory of the United States northwest of the river Ohio."—T. Donaldson, *Public domain: Its history*, pp. 148-149.

1786-1788.—Ohio Company of Revolutionary soldiers and their land purchase.—Settlement at Marietta.—"The Revolutionary War had hardly closed before thousands of the disbanded officers and soldiers were looking anxiously to the Western lands for new homes, or for means of repairing their shattered fortunes. In June, 1783, a strong memorial was sent to Congress asking a grant of the lands between the Ohio and Lake Erie. Those who lived in the South were fortunate in having immediate access to the lands of Kentucky, Tennessee, and the back parts of Georgia. The strife in Congress over the lands of the Northwest delayed the surveys and the bounties so long that the soldiers of the North almost lost hope. . . . [Finally, there] was a meeting of officers and soldiers, chiefly of the Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut lines, at Boston, March 1, 1786, when they formed a new Ohio Company for the purchase and settlement of Western lands, in shares of \$1,000. General [Rufus] Putnam, General Samuel H. Parsons, and the Rev. Manasseh Cutler, were made the directors, and selected for their purchase the lands on the Ohio River situated on both sides of the Muskingum, and immediately west of the Seven Ranges. The treasury board in those days were the commissioners of public lands, but with no powers to enter into absolute sales unless such were approved by Congress. Weeks and months were lost in waiting for a quorum of that body to assemble. This was effected on the 11th of July, and Dr.

Cutler, deputed by his colleagues, was in attendance, but was constantly baffled in pursuing his objects. . . . The members were disposed to insert conditions which were not satisfactory to the Ohio Company. But the doctor carried his point by formally intimating that he should retire, and seek better terms with some of the States, which were offering their lands at half the price Congress was to receive. The grant to the Ohio Company, upon the terms proposed, was voted by Congress, and the contract formally signed October 27, 1787, by the treasury board, and by Dr. Cutler and Winthrop Sargent, as agents of the Ohio Company. Two companies, including surveyors, boat-builders, carpenters, smiths, farmers and laborers, forty-eight persons in all, with their outfit, were sent forward in the following months of December and January, under General Putnam as leader and superintendent. They united in February on the Youghiogheny River and constructed boats. . . . Embarking with their stores they descended the Ohio, and on the 7th of April, 1788, landed at the Muskingum. On the upper point, opposite Fort Harmar, they founded their town, which at Boston had first been named Adelphia. At the first meeting of the directors, held on the ground July 2d, the name of Marietta was adopted, in honor of the French Queen Marie Antoinette, and compounded of the first and last syllables."—R. King, *Ohio*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: W. P. and J. P. Cutler, *Life, journals and correspondence of Rev. Manasseh Cutler*, v. 1, ch. 4-7, 9.—C. M. Walker, *History of Athens County, Ohio*, ch. 2.—A. B. Hulbert, *Records of the original proceedings of the Ohio Company (Marietta College Historical Collections, v. 1, pp. xcvi, xcvi, ciii)*.

1787.—Great ordinance for its government.—Perpetual exclusion of slavery.—"Congress at intervals discussed the future of this great domain, but for a while little progress was made except to establish that Congress could divide the territory as might seem best. Nathan Dane came forward with a motion for a committee to plan some temporary scheme of government. A committee on this point reported (May 10, 1786) that the number of States should be from two to five, to be admitted as States according to Jefferson's proposition, but the question of slavery in them was left open. Nothing definite was done till a committee—Johnson of Connecticut, Pinckney of South Carolina, Smith of New York, Dane of Massachusetts, and Henry of Maryland—reported on April 26, 1787, 'An ordinance for the government of the Western territory,' and after various amendments it was fairly transcribed for a third reading, May 10th. Further consideration was now delayed until July. It was at this point that Manasseh Cutler appeared in New York, commissioned to buy land for the Ohio Company in the region whose future was to be determined by this ordinance, and it was very likely, in part, by his influence that those features of the perfected ordinance as passed five days later, and which has given it its general fame, were introduced. On July 10th the bill was referred to a new committee of which a majority were Southern men, Carrington of Virginia taking the chairmanship from Johnson; Dane and Smith were retained, but Richard Henry Lee and Kean of South Carolina supplanted Pinckney and Henry. This change was made to secure the Southern support; on the other hand, acquiescence in the wishes of Northern purchasers of lands was essential in any business outcome of the movement. 'Up to this time,' says Poole, 'there were no arti-

cles of compact in the bill, no anti-slavery clause, nothing about liberty of conscience or of the press, the right of habeas corpus, or trial by jury, or the equal distribution of estates. The clause that, "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged," was not there." These omissions were the New England ideas, which had long before this been engrafted on the Constitution of Massachusetts. This new committee reported the bill, embodying all these provisions except the anti-slavery clause, on the 11th, and the next day this and other amendments were made. On the 13th, but one voice was raised against the bill on its final passage, and that came from Yates of New York. Poole intimates that it was the promise of the governorship of the territory under the ordinance which induced St. Clair, then President of Congress, to lend it his countenance. The promise, if such it was, was fulfilled, and St. Clair became the first governor." —J. Winsor and E. Channing, *Territorial acquisitions and divisions* (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 7, appendix).

ALSO IN: B. A. Hindsdale, *Old Northwest*, ch. 15.—W. F. Poole, *Doctor Cutler and the Ordinance of 1787* (*North American Review*, Apr., 1876).—W. P. and J. P. Cutler, *Life of Rev. Manasseh Cutler*, v. 1, ch. 8.—T. Donaldson, *Public domain*, pp. 149-159.—J. A. Barrett, *Evolution of the Ordinance of 1787* (*University of Nebraska, Seminary Papers*, 1891).—J. P. Dunn, ed., *Slavery petitions* (*Indiana Historical Society*, v. 2, no. 12).

The following is the text of the "Ordinance for the Government of the Territory of the United States Northwest of the River Ohio," commonly known as the "Ordinance of 1787":

Be it ordained by the United States in Congress assembled, That the said territory, for the purposes of temporary government, be one district, subject, however, to be divided into two districts, as future circumstances may, in the opinion of Congress, make it expedient. Be it ordained by the authority aforesaid, That the estates, both of resident and non-resident proprietors in the said territory, dying intestate, shall descend to, and be distributed among, their children, and the descendants of a deceased child, in equal parts; the descendants of a deceased child or grandchild to take the share of their deceased parent in equal parts among them: And where there shall be no children or descendants, then in equal parts to the next of kin in equal degree; and, among collaterals, the children of a deceased brother or sister of the intestate shall have, in equal parts among them, their deceased parents' share; and there shall, in no case, be a distinction between kindred of the whole and half-blood; saving, in all cases, to the widow of the intestate her third part of the real estate for life, and one-third part of the personal estate; and this law, relative to descents and dower, shall remain in full force until altered by the legislature of the district. And, until the governor and judges shall adopt laws as hereinafter mentioned, estates in the said territory may be devised or bequeathed by wills in writing, signed and sealed by him or her, in whom the estate may be (being of full age,) and attested by three witnesses; and real estates may be conveyed by lease and release, or bargain and sale, signed, sealed, and delivered by the person, being of full age, in whom the estate may be, and attested by two witnesses, provided such wills be duly proved, and such conveyances

be acknowledged, or the execution thereof duly proved, and be recorded within one year after proper magistrates, courts, and registers shall be appointed for that purpose; and personal property may be transferred by delivery; saving, however to the French and Canadian inhabitants, and other settlers of the Kaskaskias, St. Vincents, and the neighboring villages who have heretofore professed themselves citizens of Virginia, their laws and customs now in force among them, relative to the descent and conveyance of property. Be it ordained by the authority aforesaid, That there shall be appointed, from time to time, by Congress, a governor, whose commission shall continue in force for the term of three years, unless sooner revoked by Congress; he shall reside in the district, and have a free hold estate therein in 1,000 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office. There shall be appointed, from time to time, by Congress, a secretary, whose commission shall continue in force for four years unless sooner revoked; he shall reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein in 500 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office; it shall be his duty to keep and preserve the acts and laws passed by the legislature, and the public records of the district, and the proceedings of the governor in his Executive department; and transmit authentic copies of such acts and proceedings, every six months, to the Secretary of Congress: There shall also be appointed a court to consist of three judges, any two of whom to form a court, who shall have a common law jurisdiction, and reside in the district, and have each therein a freehold estate in 500 acres of land while in the exercise of their offices; and their commissions shall continue in force during good behavior. The governor and judges, or a majority of them, shall adopt and publish in the district such laws of the original States, criminal and civil, as may be necessary and best suited to the circumstances of the district, and report them to Congress from time to time: which laws shall be in force in the district until the organization of the General Assembly therein, unless disapproved of by Congress; but, afterwards, the legislature shall have authority to alter them as they shall think fit. The governor, for the time being, shall be commander-in-chief of the militia, appoint and commission all officers in the same below the rank of general officers; all general officers shall be appointed and commissioned by Congress. Previous to the organization of the General Assembly, the governor shall appoint such magistrates and other civil officers, in each county or township, as he shall find necessary for the preservation of the peace and good order in the same: After the General Assembly shall be organized, the powers and duties of the magistrates and other civil officers, shall be regulated and defined by the said assembly; but all magistrates and other civil officers, not herein otherwise directed, shall, during the continuance of this temporary government, be appointed by the governor. For the prevention of crimes and injuries, the laws to be adopted or made shall have force in all parts of the district, and for the execution of process, criminal and civil the governor shall make proper divisions thereof; and he shall proceed, from time to time, as circumstances may require, to lay out the parts of the district in which the Indian titles shall have been extinguished, into counties and townships, subject, however, to such alterations as may thereafter be made by the legislature. So soon as there shall be 5,000 free male inhabitants of full age in the district, upon giving proof

thereof to the governor, they shall receive authority, with time and place, to elect representatives from their counties or townships to represent them in the General Assembly: Provided, That, for every 500 free male inhabitants, there shall be one representative, and so on progressively with the number of free male inhabitants, shall the right of representation increase, until the number of representatives shall amount to 25; after which, the number and proportion of representatives shall be regulated by the legislature: Provided, That no person be eligible or qualified to act as a representative unless he shall have been a citizen of one of the United States three years, and be a resident in the district, or unless he shall have resided in the district three years; and, in either case, shall likewise hold in his own right, in fee simple, 200 acres of land within the same: Provided, also, That a freehold in 50 acres of land in the district, having been a citizen of one of the States, and being resident in the district, or the like freehold and two years residence in the district, shall be necessary to qualify a man as an elector of a representative. The representatives thus elected, shall serve for the term of two years; and, in case of death of a representative, or removal from office, the governor shall issue a writ to the county or township for which he was a member, to elect another in his stead, to serve for the residue of the term. The General Assembly, or Legislature, shall consist of the governor, legislative council, and a house of representatives. The legislative council shall consist of five members, to continue in office five years, unless sooner removed by Congress; any three of whom to be a quorum: and the members of the council shall be nominated and appointed in the following manner, to wit: As soon as representatives shall be elected, the governor shall appoint a time and place for them to meet together; and, when met, they shall nominate ten persons, residents in the district, and each possessed of a freehold in 500 acres of land, and return their names to Congress; five of whom Congress shall appoint and commission to serve as aforesaid; and, whenever a vacancy shall happen in the council, by death or removal from office, the house of representatives shall nominate two persons, qualified as aforesaid, for each vacancy, and return their names to Congress; one of whom Congress shall appoint and commission for the residue of the term. And every five years, four months at least before the expiration of the time of service of the members of council, the said house shall nominate ten persons, qualified as aforesaid, and return their names to Congress; five of whom Congress shall appoint and commission to serve as members of the council five years, unless sooner removed. And the governor, legislative council, and house of representatives, shall have authority to make laws in all cases, for the good government of the district, not repugnant to the principles and articles in this ordinance established and declared. And all bills, having passed by a majority in the house, and by a majority in the council, shall be referred to the governor for his assent; but no bill, or legislative act whatever, shall be of any force without his assent. The governor shall have power to convene prorogue, and dissolve the General Assembly, when, in his opinion, it shall be expedient. The governor, judges, legislative council, secretary, and such other officers as Congress shall appoint in the district, shall take an oath or affirmation of fidelity and of office; the governor before the President of Congress, and all other officers before the governor. As soon as a legisla-

ture shall be formed in the district, the council and house assembled in one room, shall have authority by joint ballot, to elect a delegate to Congress, who shall have a seat in Congress, with a right of debating, but not of voting during this temporary government. And, for extending the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty, which form the basis whereon these republics, their laws and constitutions are erected; to fix and establish those principles as the basis of all laws, constitutions, and governments, which forever hereafter shall be formed in the said territory: to provide also for the establishment of States, and permanent government therein, and for their admission to a share in the federal councils on an equal footing with the original States, at as early periods as may be consistent with the general interest.

It is hereby ordained and declared by the authority aforesaid, That the following articles shall be considered as articles of compact between the original States and the people and States in the said territory and forever remain unalterable, unless by common consent, to wit:

Article 1st. No person, demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner, shall ever be molested on account of his mode of worship or religious sentiments, in the said territory.

Art. 2d. The inhabitants of the said territory shall always be entitled to the benefits of the writ of habeas corpus, and of the trial by jury; of a proportionate representation of the people in the legislature; and of judicial proceedings according to the course of the common law. All persons shall be bailable, unless for capital offences, where the proof shall be evident or the presumption great. All fines shall be moderate; and no cruel or unusual punishments shall be inflicted. No man shall be deprived of his liberty or property, but by the judgment of his peers or the law of the land; and, should the public exigencies make it necessary, for the common preservation, to take any person's property, or to demand his particular services, full compensation shall be made for the same. And, in the just preservation of rights and property, it is understood and declared, that no law ought ever to be made, or have force in the said territory, that shall, in any manner whatever, interfere with or affect private contracts or engagements, bona fide, and without fraud, previously formed.

Art. 3d. Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged. The utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians; their lands and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and, in their property rights and liberty, they shall never be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars authorized by Congress; but laws founded in justice and humanity, shall, from time to time, be made for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them.

Art. 4th. The said territory, and the States which may be formed therein, shall forever remain a part of this confederacy of the United States of America, subject to the Articles of Confederation, and to such alterations therein as shall be constitutionally made; and to all the acts and ordinances of the United States in Congress assembled, conformable thereto. The inhabitants and settlers in the said territory shall be subject to pay a part of the federal debts contracted or to be contracted, and a proportional part of the expenses of government, to be apportioned on them by Congress ac-

ording to the same common rule and measure by which apportionments thereof shall be made on the other States; and the taxes, for paying their proportion, shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the district or districts, or new States, as in the original States, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled. The legislatures of those districts or new States, shall never interfere with the primary disposal of the soil by the United States in Congress assembled, nor with any regulations Congress may find necessary for securing the title in such soil to the bona fide purchasers. No tax shall be imposed on lands the property of the United States; and in no case, shall non-resident proprietors be taxed higher than residents. The navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the same, shall be common highways, and forever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said territory as to the citizens of the United States, and those of any other States that may be admitted into the Confederacy, without any tax, impost, or duty, therefor.

Art. 5th. There shall be formed in the said territory, not less than three nor more than five States; and the boundaries of the States, as soon as Virginia shall alter her act of cession, and consent to the same, shall become fixed and established as follows, to wit: The Western State in the said territory, shall be bounded by the Mississippi, the Ohio, and Wabash rivers; a direct line drawn from the Wabash and Post St. Vincent's, due North, to the territorial line between the United States and Canada; and, by the said territorial line, to the Lake of the Woods and Mississippi. The middle State shall be bounded by the said direct line, the Wabash from Post Vincent's, to the Ohio; by the Ohio, by a direct line, drawn due North from the mouth of the Great Miami, to the said territorial line, and by the said territorial line. The Eastern State shall be bounded by the last mentioned direct line, the Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the said territorial line: Provided, however, and it is further understood and declared, that the boundaries of these three States shall be subject so far to be altered, that, if Congress shall hereafter find it expedient, they shall have authority to form one or two States in that part of the said territory which lies North of an East and West line drawn through the Southerly bend or extreme of lake Michigan. And, whenever any of the said States shall have 60,000 free inhabitants therein, such State shall be admitted, by its delegates, into the Congress of the United States, on an equal footing with the original States in all respects whatever, and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and State government: Provided, the constitution and government so to be formed, shall be republican, and in conformity to the principles contained in these articles; and, so far as it can be consistent with the general interest of the confederacy, such admission shall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a less number of free inhabitants in the State than 60,000.

Art. 6th. There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted: Provided, always, That any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the original States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labor or service as aforesaid. Be it ordained by the authority afore-

said, That the resolutions of the 23d of April, 1784, relative to the subject of this ordinance, be, and the same are hereby, repealed and declared null and void. Done by the United States, in Congress assembled, the 13th day of July, in the year of our Lord 1787, and of their sovereignty and independence the twelfth.

1788-1802.—Extinguished by divisions.—Creation of Territory of Indiana and State of Ohio. —“Arthur St. Clair was appointed governor by the Congress [of the Confederation] February 1, 1788, and Winthrop Sargent secretary. August 7th, 1789, Congress [under the federal constitution], in view of the new method of appointment of officers as provided in the Constitution, passed an amendatory act to the Ordinance of 1787, providing for the nomination of officers for the Territory by the President. . . . August 8, 1789, President Washington sent to the Senate the names of Arthur St. Clair for governor, Winthrop Sargent for secretary, and Samuel Holden Parsons, John Cleves Symmes, and William Barton, for judges. . . . They were all confirmed. President Washington in this message designated the country as ‘The Western Territory.’ The supreme court was established at Cincinnati (. . . named by St. Clair in honor of the Society of the Cincinnati, he having been president of the branch society in Pennsylvania). St. Clair remained governor until November 22, 1802. Winthrop Sargent afterwards in 1798, went to Mississippi as governor of that Territory. William Henry Harrison became secretary in 1797, representing it in Congress in 1799-1800, and he became governor of the Territory of Indiana in 1800.”—T. Donaldson, *Public domain*, pp. 159-160.—“The Northwest Territory was divided by an act of Congress of May 7, 1800; and all that part lying west of a line beginning at the Ohio opposite the mouth of the Kentucky River, and running thence to Fort Recovery, and thence north to the Canadian border, was called Indiana Territory. [See INDIANA: 1800-1818; MICHIGAN: 1800-1802.] The reason for this division is to be found in the fact that Congress desired to admit Ohio into the Union as soon as possible; and since the eastern portion of the Territory had grown very rapidly in population this desire might soon be fulfilled. Moreover, it was becoming increasingly difficult to govern the older part of the Territory on an equal basis with the large western region, which was still for the most part a wilderness with only a few scattered settlements.”—D. G. McCarty, *Territorial governors of the Old Northwest*, p. 75.—The eastern portion now became the ‘Territory Northwest of the river, Ohio,’ with its capital at Chillicothe. This portion, Nov. 29, 1803, was admitted into the Union. . . . The territory northwest of the river Ohio ceased to exist as a political division after the admission of the State of Ohio into the Union, Nov. 29, 1802, although in acts of Congress it was frequently referred to and its forms affixed by legislation to other political divisions.”—T. Donaldson, *Public domain*, p. 160.

ALSO IN: J. Burnet, *Notes on the settlement of the Northwest Territory*, ch. 14-20.—C. Atwater, *History of Ohio*, period 2.—J. B. Dillon, *History of Indiana*, ch. 19-31.—W. H. Smith, *St. Clair papers*, v. 1, ch. 6-9.

1790-1795.—Indian war.—Disastrous expeditions of Harmar and St. Clair, and Wayne's decisive victory.—Greenville Treaty.—“The Northwestern Indians, at Washington's installation, numbered according to varying estimates, from

20,000 to 40,000 souls. Of these the Wabash tribes had for years been the scourge of the new Kentucky settlers. So constant, indeed, was bloodshed and retaliation, that the soil of this earliest of States beyond the mountains acquired the name of 'the dark and bloody ground.' A broad river interposed no sufficient barricade to these deadly encounters. . . . What with their own inadmissible claims to territory, and this continuous war to the knife, all the tribes of the Northwestern country were now so maddened against the United States that the first imperative necessity, unless we chose to abandon the Western settlements altogether, was to chastise the Indians into submission. . . . Brigadier-General Harmar, who commanded the small force of United States regulars in the Territory, was . . . a Revolutionary veteran. Our frontier military stations extended as far as Vincennes, on the Wabash, which Major Hamtranck, a Canadian Frenchman, commanded. The British commandant was at Detroit, whence he communicated constantly with the Governor-General of the provinces, Lord Dorchester, by whose instigation the Northwestern Indians at this period were studiously kept at enmity with the United States. . . . A formidable expedition against the Indians was determined upon by the President and St. Clair [Governor of the Northwest Territory]; and in the fall of the year [1799] General Harmar set out from Fort Washington for the Miami country, with a force numbering somewhat less than 1,500, near three-fourths of whom were militia raised in Western Pennsylvania and Kentucky. [Successful at first, the campaign ended in a disastrous defeat on the Maumee.]—J. Schouler, *History of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 2, sec. 1.—"The remnant of his army which Harmar led back to Cincinnati [Fort Washington] had the unsubdued savages almost continually at their heels. As a rebuke to the hostile tribes the expedition was an utter failure, a fact which was soon made manifest. Indian attacks on the settlers immediately became bolder. . . . Every block house in the territory was soon almost in a state of siege. . . . Washington was authorized to raise an army of 3,000 men for the protection of the Northwest. The command of this army was given to St. Clair. At the same time a corps of Kentucky volunteers was selected and placed under General Charles Scott. The Kentuckians dashed into the Wabash country, scattered the Indians, burned their villages and returned with a crowd of prisoners. The more pretentious expedition of St. Clair was not to be accomplished with so fine a military flourish. Like Harmar's army, that led by St. Clair was feeble in discipline, and disturbed by jealousies. The agents of the Government equipped the expedition in a shameful manner, delivering useless muskets, supplying powder that would scarcely burn, and neglecting entirely a large number of necessary supplies; so that after St. Clair with his 2,300 regulars and 600 militia had marched from Ludlow's Station, north of Cincinnati, he found himself under the necessity of delaying the march to secure supplies. The militia deserted in great numbers. For the purpose of capturing deserters and bringing up belated supplies, one of the best regiments in the army was sent southward. While waiting on one of the branches of the Wabash for the return of this regiment the main force was on the fourth of November, 1791, surrounded and attacked by the lurking Indians. At the first yell of the savages scores of the terrified militia dropped their guns and bolted. St. Clair, who for some days had been too ill to sit upon a horse, now exerted all his strength in an effort to rally

the wavering troops. His horses were all killed, and his hat and clothing were ripped by the bullets. But the lines broke, the men scattered and the artillery was captured. Those who stood their ground fell in their tracks till the fields were covered by 600 dead and dying men. At last a retreat was ordered. . . . For many miles, over a track littered with coats, hats, boots and powder horns, the whooping victors chased the routed survivors of St. Clair's army. It was a ghastly defeat. The face of every settler in Ohio blanched at the news. Kentucky was thrown into excitement, and even Western Pennsylvania nervously petitioned for protection. St. Clair was criticised and insulted. A committee of Congress found him without blame. But he had been defeated, and no amount of reasoning could unlink his name from the tragedy of the dark November morning. Every effort was made to win over the Indians before making another use of force. The Government sent peace messengers into the Northwest. In one manner or another nearly every one of the messengers was murdered. The Indians who listened at all would hear of no terms of peace that did not promise the removal of the whites from the northern side of the Ohio. The British urged the tribes to make this extreme demand. Spain also sent mischief-makers into the camps of the exultant red men. . . . More bloodshed became inevitable; and in execution of this last resort came one of the most popular of the Revolutionary chieftains—'Mad Anthony' Wayne. Wayne led his army from Cincinnati in October of 1793. He advanced carefully in the path taken by St. Clair, found and buried the bones of St. Clair's 600 lost, wintered at Greenville, and in the summer of 1794 moved against the foe with strong reinforcements from Kentucky. After a preliminary skirmish between the Indians and the troops, Wayne, in accordance with his instructions, made a last offer of peace. The offer was evasively met, and Wayne pushed on. On the morning of Wednesday the twentieth of August, 1794, the 'legion' came upon the united tribes of Indians encamped on the north bank of the Maumee and there, near the rapids of the Maumee, the Indians were forced to face the most alert and vigorous enemy they had yet encountered. The same daring tactics that had carried Stony Point and made Anthony Wayne historic were here directed against the Indian's timber coverts. . . . Encouraging and marshaling the Indians were painted Canadian white men bearing British arms. Many of these fell in the heaps of dead and some were captured. When Wayne announced his victory he declared that the Indian loss was greater than that incurred by the entire Federal army in the war with Great Britain. Thus ended the Indian reign of terror. After destroying the Indian crops and possessions, in sight of the British fort, Wayne fell back to Greenville and there made the celebrated treaty by which on August 3, 1795, the red men came to a permanent peace with the Thirteen Fires. From Cincinnati to Campus Martius Wayne's victory sent a thrill of relief. The treaty, ceding to the Union two-thirds of the present State, guaranteed the safety of all settlers who respected the Indians' rights, and set in motion once more the machinery of immigration."—A. Black, *Story of Ohio*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: A. St. Clair, *Narrative of campaign*.—C. W. Butterfield, *History of the Girllys*, ch. 23-30.—W. H. Smith, *St. Clair papers*, v. 2.—W. L. Stone, *Life of Brant*, v. 2, ch. 10-12.

1803.—Basis of United States claims. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

1811.—Harrison's campaign against Tecumseh and his League.—Battle of Tippecanoe. See U. S. A.: 1811.

NORTHWESTERN BOUNDARY QUESTION, between the United States and Great Britain. See OREGON: 1818-1846; 1846-1855; SAN JUAN OR NORTHWESTERN WATER BOUNDARY QUESTION.

NORTHWESTERN PROVINCES OF INDIA: Acquired by British. See INDIA: 1798-1805.

NORUMBEGA.—"Norembege, or Norumbega, more properly called Arambec (Hakluyt, III. 167), was, in Ramusio's map, the country embraced within Nova Scotia, southern New Brunswick, and a part of Maine. De Laet confines it to a district about the mouth of the Penobscot. Wyttleit and other early writers say that it had a capital city of the same name; and in several old maps this fabulous metropolis is laid down, with towers and churches, on the river Penobscot. The word is of Indian origin."—F. Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World: Champlain, ch. 1, foot-note*.—See also CANADA: Names.—On Gastaldi's map of New France, made in 1550, "the name 'La Nuova Francia' is written in very large letters, indicating probably that this name is meant for the entire country. The name 'Terra de Nurumbega' is written in smaller letters, and appears to be attached only to the peninsula of Nova Scotia. Crignon, however, the author of the discourse which this map is intended to illustrate, gives to this name a far greater extent. He says: 'Going beyond the cape of the Bretons, there is a country contiguous to this cape, the coast of which trends to the west a quarter southwest to the country of Florida, and runs along for a good 500 leagues; which coast was discovered fifteen years ago by Master Giovanni da Verrazano, in the name of the king of France and of Madame la Regente; and this country is called by many 'La Francese,' and even by the Portuguese themselves; and its end is toward Florida under 78° W., and 38° N. . . . The country is named by the inhabitants 'Nurumbega'; and between it and Brazil is a great gulf, in which are the islands of the West Indies, discovered by the Spaniards. From this it would appear that, at the time of the discourse, the entire east coast of the United States, as far as Florida, was designated by the name of Nurumbega. Afterwards, this name was restricted to New England; and, at a later date, it was applied only to Maine, and still later to the region of the Penobscot. . . . The name 'Norumbega,' or 'Arambec,' in Hakluyt's time, was applied to Maine, and sometimes to the whole of New England."—J. G. Kohl, *History of the discovery of Maine (Maine Historical Society Collections, series 2, v. 1, pp. 231, 283)*.—"The story of Norumbega is invested with the charms of fable and romance. The name is found in the map of Hieronimus da Verrazano of 1529, as 'Aranbega,' being restricted to a definite and apparently unimportant locality. Suddenly, in 1539, Norumbega appears in the narrative of the Dieppe Captain as a vast and opulent region, extending from Cape Breton to the Cape of Florida. About three years later Allefonsce described the 'River of Norumbega,' now identified with the Penobscot, and treated the capital of the country as an important market for the trade in fur. Various maps of the period of Allefonsce confine the name of Norumbega to a distinct spot; but Gastaldi's map, published by Ramusio in 1556,—though modelled after Verrazano's, of which indeed it is substantially an extract,—applies the name to the region lying be-

tween Cape Breton and the Jersey coast. From this time until the seventeenth century Norumbega was generally regarded as embracing all New England, and sometimes portions of Canada, though occasionally the country was known by other names. Still, in 1582, Lok seems to have thought that the Penobscot formed the southern boundary of Norumbega, which he shows on his map as an island; while John Smith, in 1620, speaks of Norumbega as including New England and the region as far south as Virginia. On the other hand Champlain, in 1605, treated Norumbega as lying within the present territory of Maine. He searched for its capital on the banks of the Penobscot, and as late as 1660 Heylin was dreaming of the fair city of Norumbega. Grotius, for a time at least, regarded the name as of Old Northern origin and connected with 'Norbergia.' It was also fancied that a people resembling the Mexicans once lived upon the banks of the Penobscot. Those who have labored to find an Indian derivation for the name say that it means 'the place of a fine city.' At one time the houses of the city were supposed to be very splendid, and to be supported upon pillars of crystal and silver."—B. F. De Costa, *Norumbega and its English explorers (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 3, ch. 6)*.

ALSO IN: J. Winsor, *Cartography of New England coast of America (Narrative and Critical History of America, v. 4, ch. 2)*.—E. B. Horsford, *Defenses of Norumbega*.—J. Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker colonies in America, v. 6*.—P. de Roo, *History of America before Columbus*.

NORWAY: Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—Resources.—Physical features.—General survey.—"Norway forms the north-western part of the Scandinavian peninsula, which is separated from Northern Europe by the Baltic. . . . The area is 124,495 sq. miles. . . . Its width in the south is about 250 miles, in the northern half only about 60 miles, with a little more breadth again in Finnmarken. The distance from the head of the deep fjords in Nordland to the frontier is considerably less; at one place, Rombaken, at the head of the Vestfjorden, where the future Ofot railway is to be laid, the width is even as little as 5 miles. Norway, as a whole, is thus a long, narrow coast-country on the North Atlantic. The length of the coast round the outer belt of rocks is 1700 miles—about equal to that of France, although the latter country is more than half as large again;—the entire shore-line, including the fjords in and out, and the large islands may be set down as 12,000 miles, and would stretch half way round the globe. . . . The most thickly populated part of Norway is in the south, where 2/3 of the population live. The cultural development of the country has been associated with the lands to the south of the North Sea—Denmark and North Germany, and to the west—Great Britain. Financially, 7/10 of the country's commercial transactions with foreign countries are with those bordering on the North Sea. The general geographical situation of Norway as a separate, independent link in the chain of nations of kindred race round this north-western European inland sea, is thereby indicated."—S. Konow and K. Fischer, *Norway (Official publication for the Paris exhibition, 1900, pp. 1, 7)*.—See also EUROPE: Modern: Political map.

Early history. See NORMANS; SCANDINAVIAN STATES.

8th-9th centuries.—Military organization.—Sea craft. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-9th centuries.

8th-13th centuries.—Possession of Shetland islands. See SHETLAND, OR ZETLAND ISLANDS: 8th-13th centuries.

9th-10th centuries.—Reign of the old Norse kings.—Conquests. See NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries: Vikings; Island empire; SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-11th centuries.

874-930.—First settlements in Iceland.—Resulting emigration. See ICELAND: 870-1004.

995-1000.—Reign and death of Olav.—Introduction of Christianity.—Possession of Norway by Denmark and Sweden.—About 995 "Olav Trygvesson, a descendant of Harald Haarfagre, came to the country, and was immediately chosen king by the Tronders. Olav is one of the most brilliant figures in Norwegian history. After a

himself, mortally wounded, sought a grave beneath the waves (9th September, 1000). Norway was now divided between the Danish and Swedish kings and Earl Erik; but the kings gave up their shares to Erik and his brother Svein, who governed them as their vassals. When the Danish king, Knud den Store ('the Great') went to invade England, he called upon Earl Erik to assist him. The Earl obeyed the call, and never saw Norway again."—S. Konow and K. Fischer, *Norway*, p. 130.

1015-1030.—Rule of Olav, son of Harald.—"In the spring of 1015, Olav Haraldsson, a descendant of Harald Haarfagre, returned to Norway from a viking expedition, determined to carry on the life-work of his kinsman, Olav Trygvesson. With



HARDANGER FJORD

romantic boyhood, he had distinguished himself as a leader of a viking army that had ravaged England. Immediately before his coming to Norway, he had embraced Christianity; and now, after becoming king of the country, he began to enforce the adoption of the Christian faith. In the course of a few years, he had, in true viking fashion, brought the population of the entire coast, from Viken up to the borders of Finmarken, under the dominion of the White Christ. His proclamation of Christianity extended also to the Norwegian settlers in the Orkney and Faroe Isles, to Iceland, and to Greenland, then just discovered. When returning from an expedition to Venden, Olav was attacked by an army of superior force, that had been gathered against him by Earl Haakon's son Erik, the Swedish king Olav Skotkonung, and the Danish king Svend Tjugeskæg. After a most heroic defence, his men were nearly all killed, and he

the aid of the Upland kings, he succeeded in overthrowing the earls' rule and the foreign dominion; and in Trondhjem, where the chief power of all the land appeared to him to dwell, homage was done to him as king of Norway. Olav brought the little Upland kings under the Norwegian dominion, and sought in every way to place the long-inherited power of the great chieftains under that of the king. . . . By his hard-handed policy, Olav Haraldsson soon aroused a strong opposition against himself. The rebels sought the aid of the Danish king, Knud the Great, who came with an army to Norway in 1028, and received homage at the Orething. Olav fled to Russia, and when, some time after, he attempted to win back his kingdom, he was slain by the chieftains at Stiklestad in Værdalen (29th July, 1030). Not long after, he was regarded as a holy man."—S. Konow and K. Fischer, *Norway*, p. 131.

1035-1240.—Period of greatness.—“It is not without reason that the century which now followed, after Olav's son Magnus had ascended the throne in 1035, has been called the period of Norway's greatness. The kingdom was now, by the unity brought about between the royal power and the aristocracy, enabled to extend its influence to the world around. . . . Olav the Holy's son Magnus (1035-1047) became also, by inheritance, king of Denmark. But after his death, that kingdom passed into the hands of the Svend Estridsson, although Magnus's successor, Harald Haardraade, brother to Olav the Holy, laid claim to it by force of arms. He subsequently tried to conquer England, but fell at Stanford Bridge, shortly before the Norman conquest of the country (1066). The efforts of his grandson, Magnus Barfod (1093-1103), were directed towards the amalgamation of of the Norwegian settlements on the islands off the coast of Scotland, and others, into one kingdom. Magnus fell during a descent upon Ireland. A few years afterwards, his son, Sigurd Jorsalfar, set off on a crusade to the Holy Land, where in 1110 he took the strong town of Sidon, which had hitherto defied the efforts of the crusaders.”—S. Konow and K. Fischer, *Norway*, pp. 131-133.

12th-13th centuries.—Settlements in Iceland. See ICELAND: 12th-13th centuries.

1262-1281.—Treaty of Union with Iceland.—Rule over Iceland. See ICELAND: 1262; 1262-1281.

1263.—Invasion of Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 1263.

1266.—Cession of Western islands to Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 1266.

1320-1397.—Period of decline.—“The decline [1320] had already set in during the country's last period of prosperity. . . . From the middle of the 14th century—after the establishment of their factory in Bergen—the Germans practically ruled the commerce of the country, and in other matters also had the game in their own hands. Fresh misfortunes that occurred during the course of the 14th century, threw the country back still further. The population was reduced by one third, by three visitations of the plague—in 1340, 1360, and 1371. As a consequence of the fact that the king now always resides abroad, the defences of the country sank into decay, while the noble families became extinct, or were merged in the peasantry. Even the first union of the country with Sweden (1319-1380 and with Denmark 1380-1397) proved to be very detrimental to Norway, although it had no influence upon her political and international position. But this was still more evident when the Kalmar Union was brought about in 1397 by the election of Erik of Pomerania, the hereditary king of Norway, as king of Denmark and Sweden. By this act, Norway was brought into an actual union, in which she was to play a subordinate part, while yet continuing to be an independent kingdom, and—after a treaty made between Norway and Denmark in 1450—co-ordinate with Denmark, with a state council of her own.”—S. Konow and K. Fischer, *Norway* (*Official publication for the Paris exhibition, 1900*, p. 134).—See also SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1018-1397.

1397-1527.—Under Union of Calmar until dissolution.—Introduction of Reformation. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1397-1527.

15th-18th centuries.—Political union with Denmark.—“It has been said that, during union with Denmark, Norway had no history, and this is partly true. The history of the Oldenburg kings, with their wars, and court intrigues and mistresses, is in no sense the history of Norway. Nor was

the social development of Norway parallel with that of Denmark, during the reign of these kings. Though oppressed and politically powerless, the remoter kingdom escaped the utter misery and degradation which overtook its oppressor. . . . But, as a rule, the kings of the house of Oldenburg did pay more attention to the complaints of their Norse subjects than to those of their own, and they did this—first, because it was important to them to preserve the loyalty of the Norsemen; secondly, because the Norsemen, if their petitions were unheeded, stood ready to take up arms. They knew their rights from of old, and a continued infringement of them, on the part of the foreign officials, made sooner or later the war-arrow fly from farm to farm; and the king was confronted with an armed rebellion. Again and again the obnoxious magistrates, who had imagined that these sturdy mountaineers were as meek and long-suffering as their Danish brethren, were mercilessly beaten, maimed, or killed. Repeatedly the government was forced to concede to rebels what they had not yielded to supplicants. Unpopular laws were revoked, oppressive burdens removed, and promises made of improved administration. And yet, in spite of these ameliorating circumstances, Norway's condition during the Danish rule was miserable. The revenues of the country were spent in Copenhagen, and the people were heavily taxed to support a foreign court and a hungry brood of foreign officials, whose chief interest was to fill their own pockets. Danish nobles married into the great Norwegian families, and secured, by bribery and intrigue in Copenhagen, a virtual franchise for unlimited ill-doing. Great estates were accumulated in the hands of men like Vincent Lunge, Hartvig Krummedike, and Hannibal Sehested, and the courts were prostituted to favor the land-grabbing schemes of noble adventurers. The public spirit which, in times of old, had jealously watched over the interests of the realm, had already been weakened by the incipient despotism of the last national kings; and what there was left of it now gradually expired. A most striking proof of this is the fact that when, in 1537, Norway lost the last vestige of her independence, being declared to be a province of Denmark, the decree was accepted without protest, and caused no perceptible excitement. So gradually had the change taken place, that no one was surprised. . . . [In the reign of Christian VII (1766-1808) Ove Guldberg, his minister, even] endeavored to abolish the very name of Norseman, insisting that no such nationality existed, all being citizens of the Danish State. During the reign of the last three kings, Norway had, owing to the peace, steadily advanced in material prosperity. The population had, in one hundred years, nearly doubled, being, in 1767, 723,000; and the merchant marine had, since the destruction of the Hanseatic monopoly, grown from 50 to 1,150 ships. A class of native officials, educated at the University of Copenhagen, began to replace the Danish, and, by the sale of the estates of the crown, the number of freeholders among the peasants was largely increased. As the insanity of the king made him unable to attend to the government, his son Crown Prince Frederick, became in 1784, the responsible regent, and made an excellent selection of a premier in Andreas Bernsdorff (1784-1797). This capable and enlightened man piloted Denmark and Norway safely through the stormy times of the French Revolution.”—H. H. Bovesen, *Story of Norway*, pp. 475-7, 508-509.

1471.—Orkney islands ceded to Scotland. See ORKNEY ISLANDS.

18th-19th centuries.—Educational provisions.—Parish education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: Norway; 19th century: Norway.

18th-19th centuries.—Literary development. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1711-1770; 1750-1850; 1782-1870; 1813-1900.

1718.—Invasion by Charles XII of Sweden. See SWEDEN: 1707-1718.

1767-1806.—Industrial and economic development.—“The permanent state of war, in which most of Europe and America as well found themselves at the close of the [eighteenth] century, naturally placed the commerce and shipping of the few neutral countries in a position to reap enormous harvests. By virtue of the neutrality agreement of the northern powers this situation was profitable, in by no means a negligible degree, to the Scandinavian countries. . . . The Norwegian merchant fleet, which in 1792 had numbered approximately 860 ships of 110,000 tons, had grown in 1806 to 1,650 ships, and a total tonnage of 180,000. At the same time, exports—particularly of timber and fish—not merely increased in quantity, but the prices received for exported goods also rose rapidly. In 1805 the timber exportation reached its culmination with 1,250,000 cubic metres. Under these conditions prosperity was general in Norway, and the towns experienced a flourishing growth. An index of conditions is afforded by the customs receipts, which increased from 460,000 Rix-dollars in 1767 to 1,270,000 Rix-dollars in 1806. A considerable manufacturing industry also profited by the situation, as did also mining. The principal branches of the latter to be carried on were copper, silver, and iron mining; copper and iron smelting were also especially prosperous.”—P. Drachman, *Industrial development and commercial policies of the three Scandinavian countries*, pp. 83-84.

1811.—Establishment of university library at Christiania. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Scandinavian states: Norway.

1814-1815.—Norwegian constitution under union with Sweden.—“When, by the treaty of Kiel in 1814 [see SWEDEN: 1813-1814; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF], Norway was taken from Denmark and handed over to Sweden, the Norwegians roused themselves to once more assert their nationality. The Swedes appeared in force, by land and sea, upon the frontiers of Norway. It was not, however, until the latter country had been guaranteed complete national independence that she consented to a union of the countries under the one crown. The agreement was made, and the constitution of Norway granted on the 17th of May 1814, at which date the contemporary history of Norway begins. . . . The Fundamental Law of the constitution (Grundlöv) . . . bears the date of the 4th of November 1814. The Act of Union with Sweden is dated the 6th of August 1815. The union of the two states is a union of the crown alone. . . . Sweden and Norway . . . [formed] like Great Britain, a hereditary limited monarchy. One of the clauses in the Act of Union provides that the king of the joint countries must reside for a certain part of the year in Norway. In his absence, the king represented by the Council of State (Statsraad), which must be composed entirely of Norwegians, and consist of two Ministers of State (Cabinet Ministers), and nine other Councillors of State. . . . Of the State Council, or Privy Council (above spoken of), three members, one a Cabinet Minister, and two ordinary members of the Privy Council, . . . were always in attendance upon the king, whether . . . residing in Norway or Sweden. The rest of the Council . . . [formed] the Norwegian Government

resident in the country. All functionaries . . . [were] appointed by the king, with the advice of this Council of State. . . . In 1876 the number of electors to the Storting were under 140,000, not more than 7.7 per cent. of the whole population. So that the franchise was by no means a very wide one. . . . In foreign affairs only . . . [did] Norway not act as an independent nation. There . . . [was] a single foreign minister for the two countries. . . . usually a Swede.”—C. F. Keary, *Norway and the Norwegians*, ch. 13.

ALSO IN: W. F. Dodd, *Modern constitutions*.

1814-1899.—Friction with Sweden.—“Ever since the Union of 1815, Norway had persistently endeavoured to obtain absolute political equality with Sweden, even at the risk of a rupture. Now any slackening of the Union meant the weakening of the royal authority, the chief prop of the Union, which being vested in a semi-foreign dynasty imposed upon Norway by force, could not be very popular there. Moreover the Act of Union itself was, in some points, so ambiguously worded, that both parties, with a little ingenuity, could interpret it their own way. The first anti-monarchical step was taken in 1821, when the Storting abolished the Norwegian nobility, despite the protest of the king, but for whose energetic intervention it would also have repudiated the payment of Norway's covenanted share of the old Danish national debt. Under Oscar I, who conceded to Norway a national flag and coat-of-arms and founded the Norwegian order of St. Olaf, there was little friction between the crown and the Norwegians; but the first Storting of Charles XV abolished the office of viceroy, which from 1814 to 1827 had been held exclusively by Swedes, on the ground that it was an anomalous dignity, to the great indignation of the Swedes, who regarded the proceeding as a high-handed breach of the Union. Indeed an actual conflict between the two countries was avoided only by the king's refusal to confirm the decree of the Storting. A counter-proposal from the Swedish Riksdag for a revision of the Union was disregarded by the Storting till 1865, when the whole question was submitted to the consideration of a joint revision committee, whose recommendations were however, ultimately rejected by the Storting in 1870. After the accession of Oscar II (Sept. 18, 1872), the attitude of the Norwegian parliament became more conciliatory. It even voted the expenses of the coronation at Throndhjem (July 18, 1873), in return for which act of liberality the king consented to the abolition of the vicerealty. . . . Unfortunately Norway's inveterate distrust of Sweden, a distrust natural enough, perhaps, in the smaller and weaker of two confederated states, but none the less unjustifiable and unprofitable, continued to assert itself on the slightest pretext with the inevitable result of provoking reprisals from Sweden. There is something to be said, no doubt, for the contention of Norway that her relatively enormous trading fleet (which is much larger than that of Sweden) entitles her to a separate consular service; but this in itself apparently reasonable claim was only the prelude to a further demand for a separate foreign office. Sweden obviously could not allow Norway to negotiate independently with foreign powers at the risk of imperilling the political existence of the dual state. . . . In the autumn session (1898) the extreme Left reintroduced the irritating question of ‘the pure Norwegian flag’; and virulent attacks were made upon the Swedish government for its perfectly legitimate declaration that the consular and diplomatic unity of both countries must be regarded as a condition precedent to any reform of the Act of Union. The

indignation caused in Sweden by the adoption of the new flag law of the Storting in November, 1898, was exacerbated when King Oscar, while withholding his sanction to the measure, permitted its official publication, justifying his action by an appeal to par. 79 of the Norwegian constitution. Public opinion and the national press in Sweden energetically demanded that the Swedish minister of foreign affairs, Count Douglass, should refuse to notify the unconstitutional decree of the Storting to the powers, thus branding 'the pure Norwegian flag' as an illusory emblem without any political significance. Indeed the agitation nearly led to a cabinet crisis in Sweden. . . . Fortunately, on May 11, King Oscar again resumed his authority, and the influence of the great peacemaker was quickly felt. At the session of the Swedish-Norwegian Councils of State of October 11, 1899, at which the crown-prince was also present, Oscar II, while expressing his deep regret at the disturbing effect of the Storting's flag-resolution, declared that the statute of June 20, 1844, which had added the unional symbol to the Norwegian commercial flag, should cease and determine on December 15, 1899, and that the change should be duly notified to the foreign powers. Moreover this concession was emphasized by the simultaneous retirement of the Swedish minister of foreign affairs, Count Douglass, the most steady opponent of the Norwegian claim throughout."—R. N. Bain, *Scandinavia* (Cambridge historical series, pp. 10, 435-436, 438-439, 441-442).

ALSO IN: C. D. Hazen, *Europe since 1815*, ch. 27.
—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, pp. 561-569.

1814-1921.—Suffrage reform. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Norway: 1814-1921.

1816.—Establishment of national bank. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1816-1918.

1827-1898.—Explorations in Spitzbergen. See SPITZBERGEN: 1827-1898.

1845-1863.—Poor relief.—Relief of children.—Compulsory labor establishments. See CHARITIES: Norway: 1845-1866; 1863-1908.

1857-1921.—Control and care of forests.—Teaching of forestry. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Norway.

1860.—Laws regulating education.—Permanent schools established.—Teacher training required. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Norway.

1860-1900.—Housing problem. See HOUSING: Norway.

1871-1905.—Liquor problem. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: Norway: 1871-1905.

1878-1881.—Represented at international conferences on bimetalism. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1867-1893.

1885-1910.—Social, accident and sickness insurance laws. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Norway: 1885-1910.

1893-1901.—Explorations in Arctic regions by Nansen.—In Antarctic regions by Kristensen. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1867-1901; ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1894-1895.

1896.—Legislation for child welfare. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1889-1900.

1899.—Represented at first Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Constitution.

20th century.—Development of night schools and workmen's colleges. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Evening schools; Norway; Workers' education: Norway.

1902.—Sugar bounty conference. See SUGAR BOUNTY CONFERENCE.

1902-1905.—Attempted settlement of consular

question fails.—Separation from union with Sweden.—King Oscar virtually deposed.—Haakon VII.—The century long discontent of Norway over the repression of her national aspirations, expressed at this period in the controversy with Sweden concerning the consular service, finally came to a crisis in 1902. In that year a Swedish-Norwegian consular commission appointed to investigate the practicability of separate consuls for each of the united kingdoms, with joint diplomatic representation, produced a report very favorable to the proposition. Prolonged negotiations followed between representatives of the two governments, and the outlines of a system under which Norway should acquire a separate consular service were definitely settled and accepted formally by the king, on December 21, 1903. When it came, however, to the definite framing of laws for carrying the plan into effect, irreconcilable disagreements arose. Several details of the arrangement which Sweden insisted on implied a precedence and superiority of standing for that kingdom in the union of crowns which offended Norwegian pride. The Norwegian government objected to having its selection of consuls made subject to the approval of the foreign minister of the dual monarchy. It objected to having the king, in his commission to them, entitled "King of Sweden and Norway"; and it rejected the Swedish proposals on other points. When the government of Sweden replied that, while it might be willing to consider some modifications of its proposals, it must maintain the important parts of them, the Norwegian government announced that it had no further statements to make, indicating that negotiation in the matter was at an end. Thereupon, on February 7, 1905, the king made public the following statement: "Under the present circumstances I do not see that I can resolve otherwise than to approve of what the Foreign Minister has proposed; but I cannot refrain from expressing to both my peoples my hearty desire that the two kingdoms, which have now been united for nearly a century, will never let any difference of opinion be hurtful to the Union itself. This Union is in truth the safest guarantee for the independence, the security and the happiness of both my peoples." [See also SWEDEN: 1905.] Feeble health now compelled King Oscar to yield the functions of royalty to his son, and the crown prince visited Christiania, as regent, to confer personally with the leaders in Norwegian affairs. The outcome of his visit was the resignation of the ministry of M. Hagerup on March 1, the formation of a new cabinet, under M. Michelsen, and the announcement by the latter that the government would steadfastly maintain the sovereignty of Norway, as an independent kingdom, according to the words of its constitution, the realization of which must depend on the strength and will of the Norwegian people. All attempts in the next three months to overcome or modify the attitude of Norway were unsuccessful. In May, the Storting passed an independent Consular Bill and laid it before King Oscar, who had resumed his duties, and the king refused to sanction it, saying: "The Crown Prince, as Regent, in Joint Council of State of April 5, has already shown the only way in which this important question can be advanced and all difficulties most likely removed, viz., through negotiation. I entirely agree with this view, and do not for the time being find it expedient to sanction this law, which means an alteration of the existing joint consular service which cannot be severed except by mutual arrangement. . . . When I now refuse to sanction this law I do so in accordance with the right conferred upon the King. . . . It is

my equally great love to both nations which makes it my duty to exercise this right." On June 7, M. Michelsen, the prime minister, and his colleagues, gave their resignations to the Storting, whereupon that body, by unanimous vote, adopted the following resolution: "As all the members of the Council of State have resigned their offices; as his Majesty the King has declared himself unable to give the country a new Government; and as the constitutional kingdom has thus ceased to function, the Storting authorizes the members of the Ministry, to-day resigned, to exercise in the meantime, as the Government of Norway, the authority vested in the King, in accordance with Norway's constitution and existing laws, with the alterations necessitated by the fact that the Union with Sweden under one King has ceased on account of the king having ceased to act as Norwegian King." This action was proclaimed to the people on the same day. On the 9th the union flag was lowered from Norwegian forts and war-ships and the Norwegian flag raised in its place. On July 28, with King Oscar's consent, the Swedish Riksdag adopted a resolution assenting to the severance of the union, on condition that it be approved by a vote of the people of Norway. Accordingly the question was submitted to the people on August 13, and all but 184 out of 368,392 votes were given in favor of the separation. A conference at Karlstad in September arranged the future relations of the two kingdoms with success, and the dissolution was complete. It was formally acknowledged by King Oscar on October 26. It was understood in diplomatic circles that Norway, at this time, would have set up a republic if the Great Powers had not interfered. Since King Oscar, who had been thus virtually deposed, made it known that he did not wish any member of his family to accept the crown of Norway if offered, the Storting authorized the government to open negotiations with Prince Charles of Denmark, with a view to its acceptance by him, if its proffer should be sanctioned by a popular vote. Again a plebiscite was polled and a large majority given in favor of the proffer of the crown to Prince Charles. The prince accepted, with the permission of his grandfather, the Danish king, and proposed to take the name of Haakon VII. The name was well chosen for its significance, Haakon VI having been the last of the old royal line of Norway, which became extinct at his death in 1387. The king-elect and his wife entered Christiania on November 25, and took the oath of fidelity to the Norwegian constitution on the 27th. In the following June King Haakon was anointed and crowned with solemn ceremonies, in the ancient cathedral of Trondhjem, the capital of the first king who reigned over the whole Norse realm.

1904-1917.—Liquor problem. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: Norway: 1904-1917.

1906-1921.—Explorations in Spitzbergen. See SPITZBERGEN: 1906-1921.

1907.—Represented at second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1907-1908.—Treaty with Great Britain, France, Germany, and Russia guaranteeing integrity of kingdom.—In November, 1907, a treaty was drawn up between Norway, France, England, Russia and Germany. Norway promised not to cede any territory to a foreign power, and the four powers agreed to guarantee the independence and integrity of the Norwegian kingdom. The treaty was to remain in force for ten years, and if not abrogated two years before the expiration of that term, it was to continue for another ten years. A further recognition of Norway's territorial boundaries was

made by the Baltic and North sea agreement of 1908. See NORTH SEA: 1908.

1907-1909.—Lovland ministry.—Concession laws.—Knudsen ministry.—"After Michelsen retired, J. Lovland, who had been minister of foreign affairs, formed a new cabinet. . . . Both . . . [the Labor party and the Socialists] opposed the Lovland ministry, and other even more serious opposition was soon encountered. The question of conservation of natural resources, raised by the Michelsen ministry through the 'concession laws,' which aimed to prevent foreign capitalists from gaining permanent possession of the mines, forests, and waterfalls of the country, had developed into an issue which produced a split in the Coalition party. Gunnar Knudsen, who favored a strong conservation policy, seceded and organized the Radical Liberal party. Aided by the Socialists, this group succeeded in overthrowing the Lovland ministry, and Knudsen formed a new ministry in March, 1908. The remaining part of the Coalition party was organized into the Liberal-Liberal party (Frisindede Venstre), in 1909. . . . The attention of the new ministry was chiefly devoted to the problem of conservation and natural resources, probably the most important economic question which the Norwegian people has hitherto been called upon to settle."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, v. 2, pp. 585-586.

1909.—Political parties.—Fall of Knudsen ministry.—"The political parties in Norway now ranked as follows: Conservatives, Liberal-Liberals, Radical Liberals, Labor Party, and Socialists. In the elections of 1909 the Conservatives and Liberal-Liberals combined, and succeeded in electing sixty-four representatives as against forty-eight Radical Liberals and eleven Socialists. Of the majority group forty-eight were Conservatives and nineteen Liberals. Owing to this defeat the Knudsen ministry resigned, and W. Konow of Sondre Bergenhus, the leader of the Liberal-Liberals, formed a new ministry in the winter of 1910."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, v. 2, p. 586.

1909 (October).—Arbitration of frontier dispute with Sweden.—The maritime frontier dispute between Norway and Sweden, consequent on their separation, was referred to The Hague Tribunal, and decided in October, more favorably to Sweden than to Norway, but the decision was loyally accepted by the latter.

1910.—Fall of Radical government.—"The principal interest in 1910 lay in the downfall of the Radical Government after a brief and somewhat humiliating tenure of office."—*Annual Register*, 1910, p. 377.

1910-1914.—Rivalry with other powers over claims to Spitzbergen. See SPITZBERGEN: 1921.

1910-1919.—Statistics for trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1911.—Amendment to constitution.—"On March 3 the Storting unanimously adopted an amendment in the Constitution to the effect that diplomatic matters and certain questions of military command, which it has been decided to keep secret, should be laid before a committee of nine members elected from the Odelsting, and that such matters might be brought before the Odelsting, on the motion of any member in the Committee."—*Annual Register*, 1911, p. 398.

1911-1912.—Expedition of Amundsen to South Pole. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1911-1912.

1911-1913.—Parliamentary rights for women.—Introduction of general suffrage for women.—Fall of Konow.—Formation and defeat of Conservative ministry.—"In 1911 the first woman representative, Anna Rogstad, took her seat in the

Storthing, and in 1912 women were made eligible to all offices, except those of cabinet members, or of the ecclesiastical or military service. In 1808 suffrage had been granted to all men twenty-five years of age who had resided in the country five years, and in 1913 the same right of general suffrage was also extended to women. Article fifty of the constitution was amended to read: '*All Norwegian citizens, men and women, who are twenty-years of age, who have lived in the kingdom for five years and still reside there, shall have the right to vote.*' In 1912 the Konow ministry was overthrown by their Conservative allies, who objected to the opinion expressed by Konow on the question of the use of the *Landsmaal* [which in 1885] was legalized as a standard official language equal to the Danish-Norwegian. . . . A new ministry was formed February 20, 1912, by the Conservative leader Bratlie. He attacked the concession laws, and sought to effect the repeal of the provision by which they were made to apply to Norwegian stock companies. But in this attempt he failed. In the elections in the fall of 1912 his party was defeated. The Radicals and the Labor party captured seventy-six seats, and the Socialists twenty-three; the Conservatives and their allies the Liberals retained only twenty-four seats. Gunnar Knudsen, leader of the Radicals, returned to power as head of a new ministry."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, pp. 593-594, 596.

1913.—**Constitutional amendment.**—"The question of the king's veto power in cases of constitutional amendments had never been formally settled. . . . In order to avoid . . . misunderstandings, article 112 of the constitution was so changed by an act of June 11, 1913, as to deprive the king of the power of veto in cases of constitutional amendments."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, p. 595.

1914.—**Celebration of centennial of Norway's independence.**—"The centennial of Norway's independence was celebrated in 1914 with a centennial exposition and great festivities in Christiania, and a great number of Norwegian-Americans returned to the old fatherland for the occasion. On the Seventeenth of May a procession of 30,000 children with Norwegian flags, and a large number of Norwegian-Americans with American flags, marched through the streets of the capital. At Eidsvold the Storthing assembled in regular session in the old hall where the constitution was framed in 1814, and on May 20th a festive religious service was celebrated in the cathedral at Trondhjem. In June a musical festival was held in Christiania by thousands of singers assembled from all parts. . . . The celebration closed with a festival on the Fourth of July, when the visiting Norwegian-Americans brought their formal greetings to their fatherland. For over a year a large committee, headed by State Senator L. O. Thorpe of Willmar, Minnesota, had been engaged in collecting a memorial fund, which on that day was presented to the Storthing. . . . The Memorial Fund Committee was represented by Dr. T. Stabo of Decorah, Iowa, . . . and the State of North Dakota by its chief executive, Governor L. B. Hanna, who presented to the Norwegian government a statue of Abraham Lincoln. This piece of art, the work of the Norwegian-American sculptor Paul Fjelde, was a present from that American commonwealth, which is indebted to the sons and daughters of Norway for so much of its progress and prosperity. It was a token of the spirit which has knit strong the fraternal ties between the Viking race of the North and the land of freedom in the New World."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, p. 610.

1914.—**Scandinavian League.**—Friendly feeling of Norway, Denmark and Sweden consolidated by meetings.—Meeting at Malmö. See SCANDINAVIAN LEAGUE; SWEDEN: 1914-1917; 1914-1918.

1914.—**Pan-German plan.** See PAN-GERMANISM: Pan-German League and its branches.

1914.—**Percentage of governmental control of railways.** See RAILROADS: 1917-1919.

1914-1921.—**Norway's neutrality in World War.**—Efforts for peace.—Losses in World War.—Norway, along with the other Scandinavian countries, remained neutral during the World War, though, as a maritime nation, she suffered constant and vital losses from the negation of "freedom of the seas" and the submarine warfare. "When sea traffic came to a halt in August, 1914, the daily losses of Norway's shipping trade amounted to 100,000 crowns. It became necessary at once to establish a state insurance organization. Norway's merchant fleet was valued in 1914 at 100,000,000 crowns. . . . During the first year of the war, she lost sixty-one ships. Sixteen of the ships were destroyed by mines."—*New York Times Current History, Dec.*, 1915, p. 581.—"Norway bore the beginning of her deprivations more philosophically; she kept her ships going; her sailors braved the danger zone without a murmur; yet she managed to remain officially neutral. If Swedish officialism was undoubtedly German, Norwegian officialism was quite the reverse; it reflected exactly the sentiments of the people; the torpedoing of her ships would have led inevitably to war, if the cooler heads of Norway had not perceived that such a defiance was impossible without the assistance of Sweden. It was believed when the German outrages on Norwegian shippers were most lawless, that if Sweden had been willing, there would have been an open break with Germany. The Norwegian press itself, though apparently neutral, was not backward in expressing its sense of the utter brutality of the Prussians towards a neutral nation."—M. F. Egan, *Scandinavian neutrality* (*Yale Review, Apr.*, 1918).—In September 1915 a northern interparliamentary congress of Denmark, Norway and Sweden was called at Copenhagen to consider the shipping losses of these countries, and the means of meeting the trade disaster brought upon them by the World War. In the same year, while western Europe was torn by war, Norway sent ten delegates to the eighth Scandinavian peace congress at Stockholm, where the ideals of maintaining international peace were discussed even amid the daily news from the fronts which meant the apparent defeat of the previous peace congresses. In 1916 Norway again took part in an attempt for concerted action of the neutral nations toward peace, in the Stockholm Conference. Her representatives at this conference were Nikolaus Gjelsvik, Professor of international law at the Nobel Institute, and Rev. H. Hanssen, both long associated with movements for world peace. The conference, besides defining the neutrals' attitude, issued a statement to the belligerents which was published in all the warring countries. Fifteen hundred Norwegian societies participated in peace meetings in May, 1916. In 1917, when the United States placed under government control the volume of foodstuffs which might be sent to other countries, this restriction was a virtual embargo on Norway's necessary imports. Consequently, "Norway was among the first of the European nations to send missions to the United States to negotiate for the relaxation of the embargo which they declared threatened them with privation. Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, the arctic explorer, headed the Norwegian

mission . . . which held a conference with the State department on August 8, 1917. . . . Dr. Nansen stated that at the beginning of the war Norway had 3,000,000 tons of merchant shipping, and that one third of it had fallen victim to Germany's submarines."—*New York Times Current History*, Aug., 1917.—Almost another year of threatened famine passed. It was not until May 3, 1918, that a commercial treaty with Norway was made by the United States,—the first treaty to be signed with any of the northern neutrals. It was agreed that Norway should be furnished with supplies not needed by the Allies, but that none of these supplies was to go for trade with the Central Powers, or to replace goods sold to these countries. The treaty was signed for Norway by Dr. Nansen. To carry out this commercial understanding, the United State Shipping Board chartered 400,000 tons of Norwegian sailing ships. After nearly four years of intense economic hardship, during which time Norway had to ration her people, she reckoned her war losses at one half her total ship tonnage, namely 1,300,000 gross tons, due to mining and 'disappearance.' [See also COMMERCE: Commercial age: 1914-1921; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 9, iv.] And in spite of her difficult neutrality, 2000 of her seamen had been killed. "As in most other countries, there has been considerable unrest in Norway since the end of the War. But all efforts of a small minority of Communist elements in the Norwegian Labor party to develop a revolutionary spirit have . . . failed."—*New York Times Current History*, Aug. 15, 1921.

ALSO IN: E. Bjorkman, *What it means to be a small neutral* (*World's Work*, Feb., 1918, v. 35, pp. 437-441).—L. Simonds, *Neutral Europe and the War* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Nov., 1916, pp. 661-681). 681).

1915-1920.—Child labor legislation.—Maternity insurance. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1915-1920; SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Norway: 1915.

1916.—Obligatory industrial arbitration boards created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Norway.

1916.—Scandinavian conferences.—Complete political equality for women.—"The Norwegian Premier and Foreign Minister attended the important Scandinavian Conference at Copenhagen in March, and Mr. Knudsen, the Prime Minister, announced his satisfaction with the results of that meeting, and stated in the Storting on March 15, that the three Governments had agreed at Copenhagen to take the necessary measures to guard the independence of the Scandinavian countries in the economic struggle which was expected to follow the war. A second meeting of Scandinavian Ministers took place in September, this time in Christiania. . . . It was stated that the object was to attain still closer co-operation between the three kingdoms in the difficult task of maintaining their rights as neutrals. Special attention had been given to the destruction and detention of neutral ships and to the 'Black Lists' issued by belligerent Powers. An important reform was carried in Parliament in the shape of a Bill amending the Constitution in such a way as to make women eligible to become members of the Cabinet. Norway thus reached the extreme limit of the principle of political equality between men and women."—*Annual Register*, 1916, p. 296.

1918-1919.—Overthrow of Radical government.—Ministerial crisis.—The beginning of the year (1918) found Gunnar Knudsen, the Radical leader, still at the head of the king's government. But

the general election which had taken place in the autumn of 1919 had been a blow to Knudsen's Radical government. The Radicals and the Labor Socialist combination had returned from the polls with a joint majority over the parties of the Right. But the latter, on the other hand, were now much more powerful in the Storting than they had been in the previous Parliament. Hence when Parliament met at the beginning of February a ministerial crisis immediately arose, and Knudsen handed in his resignation. Upon the request of the king, who was unable to bring about the formation of an alternative cabinet, Knudsen resumed his office and formed a new cabinet with certain important changes of personnel. Ihlan was minister for foreign affairs, and Ombolt, minister of finance.—Based on *Annual Register*, 1918, p. 263; *Ibid.*, 1919, p. 252.

1919.—Represented at conference for International Union of Academies. See INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by French academy.

1919.—Granted sovereignty over Spitzbergen by League of Nations. See SPITZBERGEN: 1921.

1919.—Prohibition.—Municipal election results.—"By a national plebiscite held on October 6, Norway, by a vote of 436,269 to 284,402, decided to prohibit all traffic in whiskey, brandy and other distilled liquors. [See also LIQUOR PROBLEM: Norway: 1919-1923.] . . . In the municipal elections held on December 1, the Conservatives made sweeping gains, largely at the expense of the Socialists."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, Supplement, p. 140.

1919.—Labor conditions.—By 1919 "the antagonism between labor and capital [had] become more and more acute. The demands for higher wages on the part of labour . . . reached a point never previously thought of, and the resistance of the employers to such demands . . . in a number of cases resulted in strikes, succeeded by public arbitration. . . . [Between 1914 and 1919] wages . . . [were] raised three times."—Great Britain Overseas Trade Department, *Commerce and industry of Norway down to the year 1919*, pp. 18-33.

1919-1920.—Organization of Young Left party.—"The organization of a Young Left party . . . created considerable interest throughout the nation. Its program includes, among other things, disarmament, universal suffrage, communal control of natural resources and agencies of transportation, abolition of small holdings, state control of business, progressive taxation, old-age and disability insurance for all persons and a reformed educational system."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, Supplement, p. 140.

1920.—Norwegian financial situation.—Industrial innovation.—Post-war conditions prevailing in Norway in 1920, resulting in the decline of the krone, and general financial depression, were met by the formation of a national association which proposed by organized effort to reduce consumption to the lowest possible level in the hope of improving the situation. "An important industrial phase . . . [was] marked by the passing of the Worker's Committee Act, applicable to public and private concerns employing at least 50 workers, as also to the State institutions of railways, tramways, telegraphs and telephones. The Act provides for the establishment, at the desire of one-quarter of the employees, of a committee to which all projects for alterations affecting the management of the business, etc., must be submitted by employers. The Committee will exercise various other functions, such as mediation in disputes."—*Economic Review*, Aug. 6, 1920, p. 209.

1920.—General railway strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1920-1922: Industrial disturbances.

1920-1921.—Reorganization of trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922.

1921.—Compulsory arbitration law for labor.—"The compulsory arbitration law . . . passed by the . . . Storting [in 1921] marks the culmination of a series of efforts to rid industry of the menace of general and local strikes. . . . This law empowers the Government, in cases where disputes between labor and capital endanger public interests, to decide that an arbitration court shall pass judgment on the conflict, and does not allow any stoppage of work because of the dispute. The arbitration court consists of five members, of whom the labor organizations appoint one, the employers' associations one, and the Government three, including the Chairman. It is the court's duty to gather evidence from the contesting parties, but even in the absence of one or both parties, judgment may be passed on the conflict. The judgment, passed by a simple majority, is binding, but not for a period longer than two years without the consent of the parties. . . . The new law, passed for one year only, is constructed in the light of experience with earlier legislation. The compulsory arbitration law passed in 1915 expired April 1, 1920. During its existence the arbitration court passed judgments on the great mine strike in [1916, the machinists' strike in 1920, and forty-eight sentences in connection with the great strike in 1920]."—*Compulsory arbitration in Norway* (*New York Times Current History*, June, 1922, p. 527).

1921-1923.—Arbitration with the United States.—"An agreement between the United States and Norway was signed on June 30, 1921, ratifications being exchanged at Washington on August 22, 1921, whereby the two countries . . . agreed to arbitrate certain important claims arising from the war. According to the preamble . . . the purpose of the arbitration . . . [was] 'to settle amicably certain claims of Norwegian subjects against the United States arising, according to contentions of the Government of Norway, out of certain requisitions by the United States Shipping Board Emergency Fleet Corporation.' . . . The Norwegian claims . . . concerned contracts for the construction of fifteen ships. . . . Nine of . . . these vessels . . . were to be built in the yards of American companies whose stock was principally, if not entirely, owned by a Norwegian subject largely interested at the time in promoting shipbuilding construction in the United States, and these vessels were originally contracted for by other American companies which were also controlled by the same Norwegian subject. When the requisition became effective the keels of only two of these fifteen contracted ships had actually been laid in the yards, and a portion of the material delivered on one other. The Government took possession of the ships under construction, as well as of all material delivered on the contracts, and, the shipyards being henceforth held exclusively to government work by virtue of the war necessities of the United States, it became impossible for them to execute the contracts in which the Norwegian subjects were concerned."—S. P. Smith, *Arbitration with Norway* (*American Journal of International Law*, Jan., 1922, pp. 81-82).—"The United States Government, on February 26, [1923] paid in a single Treasury draft the sum of \$12,399,652.47 to the Norwegian Government, under the award rendered by The Hague Tribunal of Arbitration on October 13, 1922, for ships requisitioned by the Emergency

Fleet Corporation in the World War. With the Treasury draft Secretary of State Hughes sent a note to the Norwegian Minister to Washington, H. H. Bryn, sharply protesting against the action of the Tribunal, declaring that the award is not deemed to possess an authoritative character as a precedent, and that the United States paid it merely to bear out the American Government's traditional policy of promoting the judicial determination of international disputes of a justiciable character, and in this interest to give its due support to judicial determination."—*New York Times Current History*, Apr., 1923, p. 171.

1922.—Represented at Genoa conference. See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).

1922.—Effect of prohibition controversy.—As an outcome of Norway's prohibition controversy with wine-producing countries, the Spanish government withdrew from the Spanish-Norwegian Maritime Treaty on February 12, 1922. "The commercial and shipping agreement which ended the long tariff war between Norway and Portugal over Norway's prohibition law [of 1919] was ratified April 12 and went into force April 16, the day when Norway's prohibition of strong wines ceased to have legal validity. By the terms of the agreement Norwegian goods in Portugal and the Portuguese Islands are subjected to only the minimal tariff. Norwegian shipping there is charged according to the general tariff, minus 25 per cent, this being the largest reduction allowed to any nation's vessels in Portugal. Norway's obligation to buy Portuguese strong wines has expired."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1923, p. 523.

ALSO IN: *Norway's prohibition dilemma* (*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1921, p. 164).

See also CHARITIES: Norway; COÖPERATION: Norway; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Norway; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Norway; EDUCATION, ART: Modern: Norway; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Norway; MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Scandinavia; MYTHOLOGY: Scandinavian; PHILOLOGY: 11; PUBLIC DEFENDER: In foreign countries.

ALSO IN: H. G. Leach, *Scandinavia of the Scandinavians*.—C. F. Leary, *Norway and the Norwegians*.

NORWAY, Constitution of.

Title I.

Article 1. The kingdom of Norway is a free, independent, indivisible, and inalienable state, united to Sweden under the same king. The form of its government is limited, hereditary, and monarchical.

Art. 2. The Lutheran evangelical religion shall continue to be the ruling religion of the kingdom; those of the inhabitants which profess it are bound to bring up their children in its tenets; Jesuits and monastic orders shall not be prohibited in the kingdom. The admission of Jews into the kingdom shall always be, as formerly, prohibited.

Title II.

Article 1. The executive power is declared to be in the person of the king.

Art. 2. The king shall always profess the evangelical Lutheran religion, which he shall maintain and protect.

Art. 3. The person of the king is sacred; he can neither be blamed or accused.

Art. 4. The succession is lineal, and collateral, such as is determined by the order of succession decreed by the general estates of Sweden,

and sanctioned by the king in the Act of the 26th September 1810, of which a translation is annexed to this Constitution. Of the number of legitimate heirs, is comprehended the child in its mother's womb, which, as soon as it shall be born, after the death of its father, takes the place which is due to him in the line of succession. When a Prince, heir of the re-united crowns of Norway and Sweden, shall be born, his name and the day of his birth shall be announced at the first Storthing, and inscribed in the registers.

Art. 5. Should there not be found any prince, a legitimate heir to the throne, the king can propose his successor at the Storthing of Norway, and at the same time to the states general of Sweden. As soon as the king shall have made the proposition, the representatives of the two nations shall choose from among them a committee, invested with the right of determining the election, in case the king's proposition should not, by the plurality of voices, be approved of separately by the representatives of each of the countries. The number of members of this committee, shall be composed of an equal number of Norwegians and Swedes, so that the step to follow in the election shall be regulated by a law which the king shall propose at the same time to the next Storthing, and the states general of Sweden. They shall draw by lot one out of the committee for its member.

Art. 6. The Storthing* of Norway, and the states general of Sweden shall concert to fix by a law the king's majority; if they cannot agree, a committee, taken from the representatives of the two nations, shall decide it in the manner established by article 5th, title 2nd. As soon as the king shall have attained the years of majority fixed by the law, he shall publicly declare that he is of age.†

Art. 7. When the king comes of age he shall take into his hands the reins of government, and make the following oath to the Storthing: "I swear, on my soul and conscience, to govern the kingdom of Norway conformably to its constitution and laws." If the Storthing is not then assembled, this oath shall be deposited in writing in the council, and solemnly repeated by the king at the first Storthing, either vivâ voce or by writing, by the person whom he shall have appointed to this effect.

Art. 8. The coronation of the king shall take place when he is of age, in the cathedral of Drontheim, at the time and with those ceremonies that shall be fixed by himself.

Art. 9. The king shall pass some time in Norway yearly, unless this is prevented by urgent circumstances.

Art. 10. The king shall exclusively choose a council of Norwegians, citizens, who shall have attained the seventieth year of their age. This council shall be composed at least of a minister of state, and seven other members. In like manner the king can create a viceroy or a government. The king shall arrange the affairs between the members of the council, in such manner as he shall consider expedient. Besides these ordinary members of council, the king, or in his absence the viceroy (or the government jointly with the ordinary members of council) may on particular occasions, call other Norwegians, citizens, to sit there, provided they are not members

of the Storthing. The father and son, or two brothers, shall not, at the same time, have a seat in the council.

Art. 11. The king shall appoint a governor of the kingdom in his absence, and on failure it shall be governed by the viceroy or a governor, with five at least of the members of council. They shall govern the kingdom in the name and behalf of the king; and they shall observe inviolably, as much the principles contained in this fundamental law as those relative precepts the king shall lay down in his instructions. They shall make a humble report to the king upon those affairs they have decided. All matters shall be decided by plurality of votes. If the votes happen to be equal, the viceroy or governor, or in their absence the first member of council, shall have two.

Art. 12. The prince royal or his eldest son can be viceroy; but this can only occur when they have attained the majority of the king. In the case of a governor, either a Norwegian or a Swede may be nominated. The viceroy shall remain in the kingdom, and shall not be allowed to reside in a foreign one beyond three months each year. When the king shall be present, the viceroy's functions shall cease. If there is no viceroy, but only a governor, the functions of the latter shall also cease, in which event he is only the first member of council.

Art. 13. During the residence of the king in Sweden, he shall always have near him the minister of state of Norway, and two of the members of the Norwegian council, when they shall be annually changed. These are charged with similar duties, and the same constitutional responsibility attaches to them as to the sitting council in Norway; and it is only in their presence that state affairs shall be decided by the king. All petitions addressed to the king by Norwegian citizens ought, first, to be transmitted to the Norwegian council, that they may be duly considered previously to decisions being pronounced. In general, no affairs ought to be decided before the council has expressed an opinion, in case it should be met with important objections. The minister of state of Norway ought to report the affairs, and he shall be responsible for expedition in the resolutions which shall have been taken.

Art. 14. The king shall regulate public worship and its rites, as well as all assemblies that have religion for their object, so that ministers of religion may observe their forms prescribed to them.

Art. 15. The king can give and abolish ordinances which respect commerce, the custom-house, manufactures, and police. They shall not, however, be contrary to the constitution nor the laws adopted by the Storthing. They shall have provisional force until the next Storthing.

Art. 16. The king shall in general regulate the taxes imposed by the Storthing. The public treasurer of Norway shall remain in Norway, and the revenues shall only be employed towards the expenses of Norway.

Art. 17. The king shall superintend the manner in which the domains and crown property of the state are employed and governed, in the manner fixed by the Storthing, and which shall be most advantageous to the country.

Art. 18. The king in council has the right to pardon criminals when the supreme tribunal has pronounced its opinion. The criminal has the choice of receiving pardon from the king or of submitting to the punishment to which he is condemned. In the causes which the Odelsting

* The national assembly, or general states of the kingdom.

† A law of the Storthing, 13th July 1815, and sanctioned by the king, declared that the king is major on arriving at the age of eighteen years.

would have ordered to be carried to the Rigsret, there can be no other pardon but that which shall liberate from a capital punishment.

Art. 19. The king, after having heard his Norwegian council, shall dispose of all the civil, ecclesiastic, and military employments. Those who assist in the functions shall swear obedience and fidelity to the constitution and to the king. The princes of the royal family cannot be invested with any civil employment; yet the prince royal, or his eldest son, may be nominated viceroy.

Art. 20. The governor of the kingdom, the minister of state, other members of council, and those employed in the functions connected with these offices, the envoys and consuls, superior magistrates, civil and ecclesiastic commanders of regiments, and other military bodies, governors of fortresses, and commanders-in-chief of ships of war, shall, without previous arrest, be deposed by the king and his Norwegian council. As to the pension to be granted to those employed they shall be decided by the first Storthing. In the mean time, they shall enjoy two-third parts of their former salary. The others employed can only be suspended by the king and they shall afterwards be brought before the tribunals, but cannot be deposed excepting by order of an arrest, and the king cannot make them change their situations contrary to their will.

Art. 21. The king can confer orders of knighthood on whomsoever he chooses, in reward of distinguished services, which shall be published; but he can confer no other rank, with the title, than that which is attached to every employment. An order of knighthood does not liberate the person on whom it is conferred from those duties common to all citizens, and particular titles are not conferred in order to obtain situations in the state. Such persons shall preserve the title and rank attached to those situations which they have occupied. No person can, for the future, obtain personal, mixed, or hereditary privileges.

Art. 22. The king elects and dismisses, whenever he thinks proper, all the officers attached to his court.

Art. 23. The king is commander-in-chief of all the forces, by sea and land, in the kingdom, and these cannot be increased or diminished without the consent of the Storthing. They will not be ceded to the service of any foreign power, and troops belonging to a foreign power (except auxiliary troops in case of a hostile invasion), cannot enter the country without the consent of the Storthing. During peace, the Norwegian troops shall be stationed in Norway, and not in Sweden. Notwithstanding this the king may have in Sweden a Norwegian guard, composed of volunteers, and may for a short time, not exceeding six weeks in a year, assemble troops in the environs of the two countries, for exercising; but in case there are more than 3,000 men, composing the army of one of the two countries, they cannot in time of peace enter the other.* The Norwegian army and gun-boats shall not be employed without the consent of the Storthing. The Norwegian fleet shall have dry docks, and during peace its stations and harbours in Norway. Ships of war of both countries shall be supplied with seamen of the other, so long as they shall voluntarily engage to serve. The landwehr, and other Norwegian forces, which are not calculated among

the number of troops of the line, shall never be employed beyond the frontiers of the kingdom of Norway.

Art. 24. The king has the right of assembling troops, commencing war, making peace, concluding and dissolving treaties, sending ministers to, and receiving those of foreign courts. When he begins war he ought to advise the council of Norway, consult it, and order it to prepare an address on the state of the kingdom, relative to its finances, and proper means of defence. On this the king shall convoke the minister of state of Norway, and those of the council of Sweden, at an extraordinary assembly, when he shall explain all those relative circumstances that ought to be taken into consideration; with a representation of the Norwegian council, and a similar one on the part of Sweden, upon the state of the kingdom, shall then be presented. The king shall then require advice upon these objects; and each shall be inserted in a register, under the responsibility imposed by the constitution, when the king shall then adopt that resolution which he judges most proper for the benefit of the state.

Art. 25. On this occasion all the members of council must be present, if not prevented by some lawful cause, and no resolution ought to be adopted unless one half of the members are present. In Norwegian affairs, which, according to the fifteenth article, are decided in Sweden, no resolution shall be taken unless the minister of state of Norway and one of the members of council, or two members, are present.

Art. 26. The representations respecting employments, and other important acts, excepting those of a diplomatic and military nature, properly so called, shall be referred to the council by him who is one of the members in the department charged with it, who shall accordingly draw up the resolution adopted in council.

Art. 27. If any member of council is prevented from appearing, and referring the affairs which belong to his peculiar department, he shall be replaced in this office by one of the others appointed to this purpose, either by the king, if personally present, and if not, by him who has precedence in the council, jointly with the other members composing it. Should several of these be prevented from appearing, so that only one half of the ordinary number is present, the other employed in the offices shall in like manner have right to sit in council; and in that event it shall be afterwards referred to the king, who decides if they ought to continue to exercise this office.

Art. 28. The council shall keep a register of all affairs that may come under its consideration. Every individual who sits in it shall be at liberty to give his opinion freely, which the king is obliged to hear; but it is reserved to his majesty to adopt resolutions after he has consulted his own mind. If a member of council finds that the king's resolution is contrary to the form of government, the laws of the kingdom, or injurious to the state, he shall consider it his duty to oppose it, and record his opinion in the register accordingly; but he who remains silent shall be presumed to have agreed with the king, and shall be responsible for it, even in the case of being referred to at a future period; and the Odels-thing is empowered to bring him before the Rigsret.

Art. 29. All the orders issued by the king (military affairs excepted) shall be countersigned by the Norwegian minister of state.

Art. 30. Resolutions made in absence of the king, by the council in Norway, shall be publicly

* The law of the Storthing, 5th July 1816, bears, that troops of the line shall be employed beyond the frontiers of the kingdom, and the interpretation given by it to that law is, that troops of the line shall be employed beyond the frontiers of the two kingdoms.

proclaimed and signed by the viceroy, or the governor and council, and countersigned by him who shall have referred them, and he is further responsible for the accuracy and dispatch with the register in which the resolution is entered.

Art. 31. All representations relative to the affairs of this country, as well as writings concerning them, must be in the Norwegian language.

Art. 32. The heir-apparent to the throne, if a son of the reigning king, shall have the title of prince royal, the other legitimate heirs to the crown shall be called princes, and the king's daughters princesses.

Art. 33. As soon as the heir shall have attained the age of eighteen, he shall have a right to sit in council, without, however, having a vote, or any responsibility.

Art. 34. No prince of the blood shall marry without permission of the king, and in case of contravention, he shall forfeit his right to the crown of Norway.

Art. 35. The princes and princesses of the royal family, shall not, so far as respects their persons, be bound to appear before other judges, but before the king or whomsoever he shall have appointed for that purpose.

Art. 36. The minister of state of Norway, as well as the two members of council who are near the king, shall have a seat and deliberative voice in the Swedish council, where objects relative to the two kingdoms shall be treated of. In affairs of this nature the advice of the council ought also to be understood, unless these require quick dispatch, so as not to allow time.

Art. 37. If the king happens to die, and the heir to the throne is under age, the council of Norway, and that of Sweden, shall assemble, and mutually call a convocation of the Storthing in Norway and Diet of Sweden.

Art. 38. Although the representatives of the two kingdoms should have assembled, and regulated the administration during the king's minority, a council composed of an equal number of Norwegian and Swedish members shall govern the kingdoms; and follow their fundamental reciprocal laws. The minister of state of Norway who sits in this council, shall draw by ballot in order to decide on which of its members the preference shall happen to fall.

Art. 39. The regulations contained in the two last articles shall be always equally adopted after the constitution of Sweden. It belongs to the Swedish council, in this quality, to be at the head of government.

Art. 40. With respect to more particular and necessary affairs that might occur in cases under the three former articles, the king shall propose to the first Storthing in Norway, and at the first Diet in Sweden, a law having for its basis the principle of a perfect equality existing between the two kingdoms.

Art. 41. The election of guardians to be at the head of government during the king's minority, shall be made after the same rules and manner formerly prescribed in the second title, Article 5th, concerning the election of an heir to the throne.

Art. 42. The individuals who in the cases under the 38th and 39th articles, are at the head of government, shall be, the Norwegians at the Storthing of Norway, and shall take the following oath: "I swear, on my soul and conscience, to govern the kingdom conformably to its constitution and laws;" and the Swedes shall also make a similar oath. If there is not a Storthing or Diet, it shall be deposited in writing in the council, and after-

wards repeated at the first of these when they happen to assemble.

Art. 43. As soon as the governments have ceased, they shall be restored to the king, and the Storthing.

Art. 44. If the Storthing is not convoked, agreeably to what is expressed in the 38th and 39th articles, the supreme tribunal shall consider it as an imperative duty, at the expiration of four weeks, to call a meeting.

Art. 45. The charge of the education of the king, in case his father may not have left in writing instructions regarding it, shall be regulated in the manner laid down under the 5th and 41st articles. It is held to be an invariable rule, that the king during his minority shall learn the Norwegian language.

Art. 46. If the masculine line of the royal family is extinct, and there has not been elected a successor to the throne, the election of a new dynasty shall be proceeded in, and after the manner prescribed under the 5th article. In the mean time the executive power shall be exercised agreeably to the 41st article.

Title III.

Article 1. Legislative power is exercised by the Storthing, which is constituted of two houses, namely, the Lagthing and Odelsting.

Art. 2. None shall have a right to vote but Norwegians, who have attained twenty-five years, and resided in the country during five years.*
1. Those who are exercising, or who have exercised functions. 2. Possess land in the country, which has been let for more than five years. 3. Are burgesses of some city, or possess either in it, or some village, a house, or property of the value of at least three hundred bank crowns in silver.

Art. 3. There shall be drawn up in cities by the magistrates, and in every parish by the public authority and the priest, a register of all the inhabitants who are voters. They shall also note in it without delay, those changes which may successively take place. Before being inscribed in the register, every one shall take an oath, before the tribunal, of fidelity to the constitution.

Art. 4. Right of voting is suspended in the following cases: 1. By the accusation of crime before a tribunal; 2. By not attaining the proper age; 3. By insolvency or bankruptcy, until creditors have obtained their payment in whole, unless it can be proved that the former has arisen from fire, or other unforeseen events.

Art. 5. The right of voting is forfeited definitively: 1. By condemnation to the house of correction, slavery, or punishment for defamatory language; 2. By acceptance of the service of a foreign power, without the consent of government. 3. By obtaining the right of citizen in a foreign country. 4. By conviction of having purchased and sold votes, and having voted in more than one electoral assembly.

Art. 6. The electoral assemblies and districts are

* Article 1, Title 3.—Amendment: "Universal male suffrage was introduced by an amendment of 1898. On June 15, 1907, a constitutional amendment was voted granting the right to vote for members of the Storthing to all Norwegian women twenty-five years of age or over, who themselves or whose husbands pay a tax upon an annual income of 400 kroner in cities or upon 300 kroner in the country. Women had before the passage of this law the right to vote in communal elections under similar conditions. Under the new constitutional provision about 300,000 of the 550,000 Norwegian women above the age of twenty-five will enjoy the right to vote."—W. F. Dodd, *Modern constitutions*, v. 2, pp. 121-122, 130.

held every three years, and shall finish before the end of the month of December.

Art. 7. Electoral assemblies shall be held for the country, at the manor-house of the parish, the church, town-hall, or some other fit place. In the country they shall be directed by the first minister and assistants; and in towns, by magistrates and sheriffs; election shall be made in the order appointed by the registers. Disputes concerning the right of voting shall be decided by the directors of the assembly, from whose judgment an appeal may be made to the Storting.

Art. 8. Before proceeding to the election, the constitution shall be read with a loud voice in the cities, by the first magistrate, and in the country by the curate.

Art. 9. In cities, an elector shall be chosen by fifty eligible inhabitants. They shall assemble eight days after, in the place appointed by the magistrate, and choose, either from amongst themselves, or from others who are eligible in the department of their election, a fourth of their number to sit at the Storting, that is after the manner of three to six in choosing one; seven to ten in electing two; eleven to fourteen in choosing three, and fifteen to eighteen in electing four; which is the greatest number permitted to a city to send. If these consist of less than 150 eligible inhabitants, they shall send the electors to the nearest city, to vote conjointly with the electors of the former, when the two shall only be considered as forming one district.*

Art. 10. In each parish in the country the eligible inhabitants shall choose in proportion to their number electors in the following manner; that is to say, a hundred may choose one; two to three hundred, three; and so on in the same proportion.† Electors shall assemble a month after, in the place appointed by the bailiff, and choose, either from amongst themselves or the others of the bailiwick eligible, a tenth of their own number to sit at the Storting, so that five to fourteen may choose one; fifteen to twenty-four may choose two of them; twenty-five to thirty-four, three; thirty-five and beyond it, four. This is the greatest number.

Art. 11. The powers contained in the 9th and 10th articles shall have their proper force and effect until next Storting. If it is found that the representatives of cities constitute more or less than one-third of those of the kingdom, the Storting, as a rule for the future, shall have right to change these powers in such a manner that representatives of the cities may join with those of the country, as one to two; and the total number of representatives ought not to be under seventy-five, nor above one hundred.

Art. 12. Those eligible, who are in the country, and are prevented from attending by sickness, military service, or other proper reasons, can transmit their votes in writing to those who direct the electoral assemblies, before their termination.

Art. 13. No person can be chosen a representative, unless he is thirty years of age, and has resided ten years in the country.

* A law passed 8th February 1816, contains this amendment. Twenty-five electors and more shall not elect more than three representatives, which shall be, ad interim, the greatest number which the bailiwick can send; and, consequently, out of which the number of representatives in the county, which are sixty-one, shall be diminished from fifty to fifty-three.

† If future Storthings discover the number of representatives of towns from an increase of population should amount to thirty, the same Storting shall have right to augment of new the number of representatives of the country, in the manner fixed by the principles of the constitution, which shall be held as a rule in future.

Art. 14. The members of council, those employed in their offices, officers of the court, and its pensions, shall not be chosen as representatives.

Art. 15. Individuals chosen to be representatives, are obliged to accept of the election, unless prevented by motives considered lawful by the electors, whose judgment may be submitted to the decision of the Storting. A person who has appeared more than once as representative at an ordinary Storting, is not obliged to accept of the election for the next ordinary Storting. If legal reasons prevent a representative from appearing at the Storting, the person who after him has most votes shall take his place.

Art. 16. As soon as representatives have been elected, they shall receive a writing in the country from the superior magistrate, and in the cities from the magistrate, also from all the electors, as a proof that they have been elected in the manner prescribed by the constitution. The Storting shall judge of the legality of this authority.

Art. 17. All representatives have a right to claim an indemnification in travelling to and returning from the Storting; as well as subsistence during the period they shall have remained there.

Art. 18. During the journey, and return of representatives, as well as the time they may have attended the Storting, they are exempted from arrest; unless they are seized in some flagrant and public act, and out of the Storting they shall not be responsible for the opinions they may have declared in it. Every one is bound to conform himself to the order established in it.

Art. 19. Representatives, chosen in the manner above declared, compose the Storting of the kingdom of Norway.

Art. 20. The opening of the Storting shall be made the first lawful day in the month of February, every three years, in the capital of the kingdom, unless the king, in extraordinary circumstances, by foreign invasion or contagious disease, fixes on some other city of the kingdom. Such change ought then to be early announced.

Art. 21. In extraordinary cases, the king has the right of assembling the Storting, without respect to the ordinary time. The king will then cause to be issued a proclamation, which is to be read in all the principal churches six weeks at least previous to the day fixed for the assembling of members of the Storting at the place appointed.

Art. 22. Such extraordinary Storting may be dissolved by the king when he shall judge fit.

Art. 23. Members of the Storting shall continue in the exercise of their office during three consecutive years, as much during an extraordinary as any ordinary Storting that might be held during this time.

Art. 24. If an extraordinary Storting is held at a time when the ordinary Storting ought to assemble, the functions of the first will cease, as soon as the second shall have met.

Art. 25. The extraordinary Storting, no more than the ordinary, can be held if two-thirds of the members do not happen to be present.

Art. 26. As soon as the Storting shall be organized, the king, or the person who shall be appointed by him for that purpose, shall open it by an address, in which he is to describe the state of the kingdom, and those objects to which he directs the attention of the Storting. No deliberation ought to take place in the king's presence. The Storting shall choose from its members one-fourth part to form the Lagthing, and the other three-fourths to constitute the Odelsting. Each

of these houses shall have its private meetings, and nominate its president and secretary.

Art. 27. It belongs to the Storthing,—1. To make and abolish laws, establish imposts, taxes, custom-houses, and other public acts, which shall, however, only exist until the 1st of July of that year, when a new Storthing shall be assembled, unless this last is expressly renewed by them. 2. To make loans, by means of the credit of the state. 3. To watch over the finances of the state. 4. To grant sums necessary for its expenses. 5. To fix the yearly grant for the maintenance of the king and viceroy, and also appendages of the royal family; which ought not, however, to consist in landed property. 6. To exhibit the register of the sitting council in Norway, and all the reports, and public documents (the affairs of military command excepted), and certified copies, or extracts of the registers kept by the ministers of state and members of council near the king, or the public documents, which shall have been produced. 7. To communicate whatever treaties the king shall have concluded in the name of the state with foreign powers, excepting secret articles, provided these are not in contradiction with the public articles. 8. To require all individuals to appear before the Storthing on affairs of state, the king and royal family excepted. This is not, however, applicable to the princes of the royal family, as they are invested with other offices than that of viceroy. 9. To examine the lists of provisional pensions; and to make such alterations as shall be judged necessary. 10. To name five revisers, who are annually to examine the accounts of the state, and publish printed extracts of these, which are to be remitted to the revisers also every year before the 1st of July. 11. To naturalize foreigners.

Art. 28. Laws ought first to be proposed to the Odelsting, either by its own members or the government, through one of the members of council. If the proposition is accepted, it shall be sent to the Lagthing, who approve or reject it; and in the last case return it accompanied with remarks. These shall be weighed by the Odelsting, which sets the proposed law aside, or remits it to the Lagthing, with or without alterations. When a law shall have been twice proposed by the Odelsting to the Lagthing, and the latter shall have rejected it a second time, the Storthing shall assemble, when two-thirds of the votes shall decide upon it. Three days at least ought to pass between each of those deliberations.

Art. 29. When a resolution proposed by the Odelsting shall be approved by the Lagthing, or by the Storthing alone, a deputation of these two houses to the Storthing shall present it to the king if he is present, and if not, to the viceroy, or Norwegian council, and require it may receive the royal sanction.

Art. 30. Should the king approve of the resolution, he subscribes to it, and from that period it is declared to pass into a public law. If he disapproves he returns it to the Odelsting, declaring that at this time he does not give it his sanction.

Art. 31. In this event, the Storthing, then assembled, ought to submit the resolution to the king, who may proceed in it in the same manner if the first ordinary Storthing presents again to him the same resolution. But if, after reconsideration, it is still adopted by the two houses of the third ordinary Storthing, and afterwards submitted to the king, who shall have been intreated not to withhold his sanction to a resolution that the Storthing, after the most mature deliberations, believes to be useful; it shall acquire the strength

of a law, even should it not receive the king's signature before the closing of the Storthing.

Art. 32. The Storthing shall sit as long as it shall be judged necessary, but not beyond three months, without the king's permission. When the business is finished, or after it has assembled for the time fixed, it is dissolved by the king. His Majesty gives, at the same time, his sanction to the decrees not already decided, either in corroborating or rejecting them. All those not expressly sanctioned are held to be rejected by him.

Art. 33. Laws are to be drawn up in the Norwegian language, and (those mentioned in 31st article excepted) in name of the king, under the seal of the kingdom, and in these terms:—"We, &c. Be it known, that there has been submitted to us a decree of the Storthing (of such a date) thus expressed (follows the resolution); We have accepted and sanctioned as law the said decree, in giving it our signature, and seal of the kingdom."

Art. 34. The king's sanction is not necessary to the resolutions of the Storthing, by which the legislative body,—1. Declares itself organized as the Storthing, according to the constitution. 2. Regulates its internal police. 3. Accepts or rejects writs of present members. 4. Confirms or rejects judgments relative to disputes respecting elections. 5. Naturalizes foreigners. 6. And in short, the resolution by which the Odelsting orders some member of council to appear before the tribunals.

Art. 35. The Storthing can demand the advice of the supreme tribunal in judicial matters.

Art. 36. The Storthing will hold its sittings with open doors, and its acts shall be printed and published, excepting in cases where a contrary measure shall have been decided by the plurality of votes.

Art. 37. Whoever molests the liberty and safety of the Storthing, renders himself guilty of an act of high treason towards the country.

Title IV.

Article 1. The members of the Lagthing and supreme tribunal composing the Rigsret, judge in the first and last instance of the affairs entered upon by the Odelsting, either against the members of council or supreme tribunal for crimes committed in the exercise of their offices, or against the members of Storthing for acts committed by them in a similar capacity. The president of the Lagthing has the precedence in the Rigsret.

Art. 2. The accused can, without declaring his motive for so doing, refuse, even a third part of the members of the Rigsret, provided, however, that the number of persons who compose this tribunal be not reduced to less than fifteen.

Art. 3. The supreme tribunal shall judge in the last instance, and ought not to be composed of a lesser number than the resident and six assessors.

Art. 4. In time of peace the supreme tribunal, with two superior officers appointed by the king, constitutes a tribunal of the second and last resort in all military affairs which respect life, honour, and loss of liberty for a time beyond the space of three months.

Art. 5. The arrests of the supreme tribunal shall not in any case be called upon to be submitted to revision.

Art. 6. No person shall be named member of the supreme tribunal, if he has not attained at least thirty years of age.

Title V.

Article 1. Employments in the states shall be conferred only on Norwegian citizens, who profess the Evangelical Lutheran religion—have sworn fidelity to the constitution and king, speak the language of the country, and are,—1. Either born in the kingdom of parents who were then subjects of the state. 2. Or born in a foreign country, their father and mother being Norwegians, and at that period not the subjects of another state. 3. Or, who on the 17th May, 1814, had a permanent residence in the kingdom, and did not refuse to take an oath to maintain the independence of Norway. 4. Or who in future shall remain ten years in the kingdom. 5. Or who have been naturalized by the Storting. Foreigners, however, may be nominated to these official situations in the university and colleges, as well as to those of physicians, and consuls in a foreign country. In order to succeed to an office in the superior tribunal, the person must be thirty years old; and to fill a place in the inferior magistracy,—a judge of the tribunal of first instance, or a public receiver, he must be twenty-five.

Art. 2. Norway does not acknowledge herself owing any other debt than that of her own.

Art. 3. A new general code, of a civil and criminal nature, shall first be published; or, if that is impracticable, at the second ordinary Storting. Meantime, the laws of the state, as at present existing, shall preserve their effect, since they are not contrary to this fundamental law, or provisional ordinances published in the interval. Permanent taxes shall continue to be levied until next Storting.

Art. 4. No protecting dispensation, letter of respite, or restitutions, shall be granted after the new general code shall be published.

Art. 5. No persons can be judged but in conformity to the law, or be punished until a tribunal shall have taken cognizance of the charges directed against them. Torture shall never take place.

Art. 6. Laws shall have no retro-active effect.

Art. 7. Fees due to officers of justice are not to be combined with rents payable to the public treasury.

Art. 8. Arrest ought not to take place excepting in cases and in the manner fixed by law. Illegal arrests, and unlawful delays, render him who occasions them responsible to the person arrested. Government is not authorized to employ military force against the members of the state, but under the forms prescribed by the laws, unless an assembly which disturbs the public tranquillity does not instantly disperse after the articles of the code concerning sedition shall have been read aloud three times by the civil authorities.

Art. 9. The liberty of the press shall be established. No person can be punished for a writing he has ordered to be printed or published, whatever may be the contents of it, unless he has, by himself or others, wilfully declared, or prompted others to, disobedience of the laws, contempt for religion, and constitutional powers, and resistance to their operations; or has advanced false and defamatory accusations against others. It is permitted to every one to speak freely his opinion on the administration of the state, or on any other object whatever.

Art. 10. New and permanent restrictions on the freedom of industry are not to be granted in future to any one.

Art. 11. Domiciliary visits are prohibited, excepting in the cases of criminals.

Art. 12. Refuge will not be granted to those who shall be bankrupts.

Art. 13. No person can in any case forfeit his landed property, and fortune.

Art. 14. If the interest of the state requires that any one should sacrifice his moveable or immoveable property for the public benefit, he shall be fully indemnified by the public treasury.

Art. 15. The capital, as well as the revenues of the domains of the church, can be applied only for the interests of the clergy, and the prosperity of public instruction. The property of benevolent institutions shall be employed only for their profit.

Art. 16. The right of the power of redemption called *Odelsret**, and that of possession, called *Afædesret* (father's right), shall exist. Particular regulations, which will render these of utility to the states and agriculture, shall be determined by the first or second Storting.

Art. 17. No county, barony, majorat or "fidei commis"† shall be created for the future.

Art. 18. Every citizen of the state, without regard to birth or fortune, shall be equally obliged, during a particular period, to defend his country.‡ The application of this principle and its restrictions, as well as the question of ascertaining to what point it is of benefit to the country, that this obligation should cease at the age of twenty-five,—shall be abandoned to the decision of the first ordinary Storting, after they shall have been discharged by a committee; in the meantime, vigorous efforts shall preserve their effect.

Art. 19. Norway shall retain her own language, her own finances and coin: institutions which shall be determined upon by laws.

Art. 20. Norway has the right of having her own flag of trade and war, which shall be an union flag.

Art. 21. If experience should show the necessity of changing some part of this fundamental law, a proposition to this purpose shall be made to an ordinary Storting, published and printed; and it only pertains to the next ordinary Storting to decide if the change proposed ought to be effectual or not. Such alteration, however, ought never to be contrary to the principles of this fundamental law; and should only have for its object those modifications in which particular regulations do not alter the spirit of the constitution. Two-thirds of the Storting ought to agree upon such a change. Christiana, 4th November, 1814. See NORWAY: 1814-1815.

NORWEGIAN LITERATURE. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE.

NORWICH UNIVERSITY, Vermont, chartered in 1834. See VERMONT: 1791-1914.

NOSE MONEY, poll-tax, supposed to have been so called by the ancient Scandinavians because a defaulting tax-payer might lose his nose.

NOSKE, Gustav (1868-), German socialist. Minister of defense in the Ebert government, 1917-1920; crushed Spartacist uprising, 1919. See GERMANY: 1918-1919 (December-January).

NOSSI BÉ, island eight miles northwest of Madagascar. It became a possession of France in

* In virtue of the right of "*Odelsret*," members of a family to whom certain lands originally pertained, can reclaim and retake possession of the same, even after the lapse of centuries, provided these lands are representative of the title of the family; that is, if for every ten years successively they shall have judicially made reservation of their right. This custom, injurious perhaps to the progress of agriculture, does, however, attach the peasants to their native soil.

† Entail.

‡ Every person is obliged to serve from twenty-one to twenty-three, and not after.

1841. In 1896 it was placed under the administration of Madagascar. The population numbered 34,266 in 1923.

NOTABLES, Assembly of. See **JEW**s: France: 1806.

NOTIUM, Battle of (407 B.C.). See **GREECE**: B.C. 411-407.

NOTT, Eliphalet (1773-1866), American educator. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**: 1795.

NOTT, Sir William (1782-1845), English general. See **AFGHANISTAN**: 1842-1869.

NOTTINGHAM, Charles Howard, 1st Earl of (1536-1624), English admiral. Commander-in-chief of British fleet in the action against the Spanish Armada. See **ENGLAND**: 1588: Destruction of the Armada.

NOTTOWAYS, North American Indian tribe. See **IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY**: Tribes of the south.

NOUMEA, capital of New Caledonia. It had a population of 10,953 in 1921. See **PACIFIC OCEAN**: 1800-1914.

NOUREDDIN, or Nureddin (Malek-al-Adel Nureddin Mahmoud) (c. 1116-c. 1173), sultan of Syria, c. 1145-c. 1173. See **CRUSADES**: 1147-1149; **JERUSALEM**: 1144-1187.

NOVA SCOTIA. **Geography**. — **Resources and population**.—Nova Scotia is a province of the Dominion of Canada consisting of the peninsula of Nova Scotia on the southeastern coast of Canada, and the adjoining island of Cape Breton. The chief resources and industries are agriculture, fishing, coal-mining and iron and steel. (See **U.S.A.**: Economic map.) In 1921 the population was 524,883.—See also **CANADA**: Agriculture; also Map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See **ABNAKIS**; **ALGONQUIAN FAMILY**.

A.D. 1000.—Supposed identity with Markland of Norse sagas. See **AMERICA**: 10th-11th centuries.

16th century.—Embraced in Norumbega of old geographers. See **NORUMBEGA**; **CANADA**: Names.

1598.—La Roche's settlement. See **CANADA**: 1592-1603.

1603-1608.—First French settlements at Port Royal (Annapolis). See **CANADA**: 1603-1605; 1606-1608.

1604.—Origin of name Acadia.—In 1604, after the death of De Chastes, who had sent out Champlain on his first voyage to Canada, Pierre du Guast, *Sieur de Monts*, took the enterprise in hand and "petitioned the king for leave to colonize La-Cadie, or Acadie, a region defined as extending from the 40th to the 46th degree of north latitude, or from Philadelphia to beyond Montreal. . . . De Monts gained his point. He was made Lieutenant-General in Acadia. . . . This name is not found in any earlier public document. It was afterwards restricted to the peninsula of Nova Scotia, but the dispute concerning the limits of Acadia was a proximate cause of the war of 1755. The word is said to be derived from the Indian Aquoddiauke, or Aquoddie, supposed to mean the fish called a pollock. The Bay of Passamaquoddy, 'Great Pollock Water,' if we may accept the same authority, derives its name from the same origin. Potter in 'Historical Magazine,' I. 84. This derivation is doubtful. The Micmac word, 'Quoddy,' 'Kady,' or 'Cadie,' means simply a place or region, and is properly used in conjunction with some other noun; as, for example, 'Katakady,' the Place of Eels. . . . Dawson and Rand, in 'Canadian Antiquarian and Numismatic Journal.'—F. Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World: Champlain*, ch. 2. and foot-note.

1610-1613.—Port Royal colony revived, but destroyed by English of Virginia. See **CANADA**: 1610-1613.

1621-1668.—English grant to Sir William Alexander.—Cession to France.—Quarrels of La Tour and D'Aulnay.—English reconquest and recession to France.—"In 1621, Sir William Alexander, a Scotchman of some literary pretensions, had obtained from King James [through the Council for New England, or Plymouth Company (see **NEW ENGLAND**: 1621-1631)] a charter, (dated Sept. 10, 1621) for the lordship and barony of New Scotland, comprising the territory now known as the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Under this grant he made several unsuccessful attempts at colonization; and in 1625 he undertook to infuse fresh life into his enterprise by parcelling out the territory into baronies. Nothing came of the scheme, and by the treaty of St. Germain, in 1632, Great Britain surrendered to France all the places occupied by the English within these limits. Two years before this, however, Alexander's rights in a part of the territory had been purchased by Claude and Charles de la Tour; and shortly after the peace the Chevalier Razilly was appointed by Louis XIII. governor of the whole of Acadia. He designated as his lieutenants Charles de la Tour for the portion east of the St. Croix, and Charles de Menou, *Sieur d'Aulnay-Charnisé*, for the portion west of that river. The former established himself on the River St. John, where the city of St. John now stands, and the latter at Castine, on the eastern shore of Penobscot Bay. Shortly after his appointment, La Tour attacked and drove away a small party of Plymouth men who had set up a trading-post at Machias; and in 1635 D'Aulnay treated another party of the Plymouth colonists in a similar way. In retaliation for this attack, Plymouth hired and despatched a vessel commanded by one Girling, in company with their own barque, with 20 men under Miles Standish, to dispossess the French; but the expedition failed to accomplish anything. Subsequently the two French commanders quarrelled, and, engaging in active hostilities, made efforts (not altogether unsuccessful) to enlist Massachusetts in their quarrel. For this purpose La Tour visited Boston in person in the summer of 1643, and was hospitably entertained. He was not able to secure the direct coöperation of Massachusetts; but he was permitted to hire four vessels and a pinnace to aid him in his attack on D'Aulnay. The expedition was so far successful as to destroy a mill and some standing corn belonging to his rival. In the following year La Tour made a second visit to Boston for further help; but he was able only to procure the writing of threatening letters from the Massachusetts authorities to D'Aulnay. Not long after La Tour's departure from Boston, envoys from D'Aulnay arrived here; and after considerable delay a treaty was signed pledging the colonists to neutrality, which was ratified by the Commissioners of the United Colonies in the following year; but it was not until two years later that it was ratified by new envoys from the crafty Frenchman. In this interval D'Aulnay captured by assault La Tour's fort at St. John, securing booty to a large amount; and a few weeks afterward Madame la Tour, who seems to have been of a not less warlike turn than her husband, and who had bravely defended the fort, died of shame and mortification. La Tour was reduced to the last extremities; but he finally made good his losses, and in 1653 he married the widow of his rival, who had died two or three years before.

In 1654, in accordance with secret instructions from Cromwell, the whole of Acadia was subjugated by an English force from Boston under the command of Major Robert Sedgwick, of Charlestown, and Captain John Leverett, of Boston. To the latter the temporary government of the country was intrusted. Ineffectual complaints of this aggression were made to the British government; but by the treaty of Westminster, in the following year, England was left in possession, and the question of title was referred to commissioners. In 1656 it made a province by Cromwell, who appointed Sir Thomas Temple governor, and granted the whole territory to Temple and to one William Crown and Stephen de la Tour, son of the late governor. The rights of the latter were purchased by the other two proprietors, and Acadia remained in possession of the English until the treaty of Breda, in 1668 when it was ceded to France with undefined limits. Very little was done by the French to settle and improve the country."—C. C. Smith, *Acadia (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 4, ch. 4)*.

ALSO IN: J. Hannay, *History of Acadia*, pp. 109-209.—B. Willson, *Nova Scotia*, pp. 11-20.

1690-1692.—Temporary conquest by Massachusetts colonists.—Recovery by French. See CANADA: 1689-1690; 1692-1697.

1710.—Final conquest by English and change of name. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710.

1713.—Relinquished to Great Britain. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714; NEWFOUNDLAND: 1713; CANADA: 1713; U.S.A.: 1690-1748.

1713-1730.—Troubles with French inhabitants (Acadians).—Their refusal to swear allegiance.—Hostilities with Indians.—"It was evident from the first that the French intended to interpret the cession of Acadia in as restricted a sense as possible, and that it was their aim to neutralize the power of England in the colony, by confining it within the narrowest limits. The inhabitants numbered some 2,500 at the time of the treaty of Utrecht, divided into three principal settlements at Port Royal, Mines, and Chignecto. The priests at these settlements during the whole period from the treaty of Utrecht to the expulsion of the Acadians were, with scarcely an exception, agents of the French Government, in their pay, and resolute opponents of English rule. The presence of a powerful French establishment at Louisburg, and their constant communications with Canada, gave to the political teachings of those priests a moral influence, which went far towards making the Acadians continue faithful to France. They were taught to believe that they might remain in Acadia, in an attitude of scarcely concealed hostility to the English Government, and hold their lands and possessions as neutrals, on the condition that they should not take up arms either for the French or English. . . . By the 14th article of the treaty of Utrecht, it was stipulated 'that the subjects of the King of France may have liberty to remove themselves within a year to any other place, with all their movable effects. But those who are willing to remain, and to be subject to the King of Great Britain, are to enjoy the free exercise of their religion according to the usages of the church of Rome, as far as the laws of Great Britain do allow the same.' . . . It was never contemplated that the Acadians should establish themselves in the country a colony of enemies of British power, ready at all times to obstruct the authority of the government, and to make the possession of Acadia by England merely nominal. . . . Queen Anne died in August, 1714, and in January, 1715, Messrs. Capoon and But-

ton were commissioned by Governor Nicholson to proceed in the sloop of war Caulfield to Mines, Chignecto, River St. John, Passamaquoddy and Penobscot, to proclaim King George, and to tender and administer the oaths of allegiance to the French inhabitants. The French refused to take the oaths, and some of the people of Mines made the pretence that they intended to withdraw from the colony. . . . A year later the people of Mines notified Caulfield [Lieutenant-Governor] that they intended to remain in the country, and at this period it would seem that most of the few French inhabitants who actually left the Province had returned. Caulfield then summoned the inhabitants of Annapolis, and tendered them the oath of allegiance, but with no better success than his deputies had met at Mines and Chignecto. . . . General Phillips, who became Governor of Nova Scotia in 1717, and who arrived in the Province early in 1720, had no more success than his predecessors in persuading the Acadians to take the oaths. Every refusal on their part only served to make them more bold in defying the British authorities. . . . They held themselves in readiness to take up arms against the English the moment war was declared between the two Crowns, and to restore Acadia to France. But, as there was a peace of thirty years duration between France and England after the treaty of Utrecht, there was no opportunity of carrying this plan into effect. Vaudreuil, Governor of Canada, however, continued to keep the Acadians on the alert by means of his agents, and the Indians were incited to acts of hostility against the English, both in Acadia and Maine. The first difficulty occurred at Canso in 1720, by a party of Indians assailing the English fishermen there. . . . The Indians were incited to this attack by the French of Cape Breton, who were annoyed at one of their vessels being seized at Canso by a British war vessel for illegal fishing. . . . The Indians had indeed some reason to be disquieted, for the progress of the English settlements east of the Kennebec filled them with apprehensions. Unfortunately the English had not been always so just in their dealings with them that they could rely entirely on their forbearance. The Indians claimed their territorial rights in the lands over which the English settlements were spreading; the French encouraged them in this claim, alleging that they had never surrendered this territory to the English. While these questions were in controversy the Massachusetts authorities were guilty of an act which did not tend to allay the distrust of the Indians. This was nothing less than an attempt to seize the person of Father Ralle, the Jesuit missionary at Norridgewock. He, whether justly or not, was blamed for inciting the Indians to acts of hostility, and was therefore peculiarly obnoxious to the English." The attempt to capture Father Ralle, at Norridgewock, which was made in December, 1721, and which failed, exasperated the Indians, and "in the summer of 1722 a war commenced, in which all the Indian tribes from Cape Canso to the Kennebec were involved. The French could not openly take part in the war, but such encouragement and assistance as they could give the Indians secretly they freely supplied." This war continued until 1725, and cost the lives of many of the colonists of New England and Nova Scotia. Its most serious event was the destruction of Norridgewock and the barbarous murder of Father Ralle, by an expedition from Massachusetts in the summer of 1724. In November, 1725, a treaty of peace was concluded, the Indians acknowledging the sovereignty of King

George. After the conclusion of the Indian war, the inhabitants of Annapolis River took a qualified oath of allegiance, with a clause exempting them from bearing arms. At Mines and Chignecto they still persisted in their refusal; and when, on the death of George I and the accession of George II, the inhabitants of Annapolis were called upon to renew their oath, they also refused again. In 1729 Governor Phillips returned to the province and had great success during the next year in persuading the Acadians, with a few exceptions only throughout the French settlements, to take an oath of allegiance without any condition as to the bearing or not bearing of arms. "The Acadians afterwards maintained that when they took this oath of allegiance, it was with the understanding that a clause was to be inserted, relieving them from bearing arms. The statement was probably accurate, for that was the position they always assumed, but the matter seems to have been lost sight of, and so for the time the question of oaths, which had been such a fertile cause of discord in the Province, appeared to be set at rest."—J. Hannay, *History of Acadia*, ch. 17.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*, v. 1, ch. 4.—P. H. Smith, *Acadia*, pp. 114-121.

1744-1748.—Third Intercolonial War (King George's War). See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; 1745-1748.

1749-1755.—Futile discussion of boundary questions.—Acadian "Neutrals" and their conduct.—Founding of Halifax.—Hostilities renewed.—During the nominal peace which followed the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the representatives of the two governments were anxiously engaged in attempting to settle by actual occupation the question of boundaries, which was still left open by that treaty. It professed to restore the boundaries as they had been before the war; and before the war the entire basin of the Mississippi, as well as the tract between the St. Lawrence River and Gulf, the Bay of Fundy, and the Kennebec, was claimed by both nations, with some show of reason, as no convention between them had ever defined the rights of each. Names had been given to vast tracts of land whose limits were but partly defined, or at one time defined in one way, at another time in another, and when these names were mentioned in treaties they were understood by each party according to its own interest. The treaty of 1748, therefore, not only left abundant cause for future war, but left occasion for the continuance of petty border hostilities in time of nominal peace. Commissioners were appointed, French and English, to settle the question of the disputed territory, but the differences were too wide to be adjusted by anything but conquest. While the most important question was that of the great extent of territory at the west, and . . . both nations were devising means for establishing their claims to it, Acadia, or Nova Scotia, was the scene of a constant petty warfare. The French were determined to restrict the English province to the peninsula now known by that name. The Governor of Canada sent a few men under Boishebert to the mouth of the St. John's to hold that part of the territory. A little old fort built by the Indians had stood for fifty years on the St. John's at the mouth of the Nerepis, and there the men established themselves. A large number was sent under La Corne to keep possession of Chignecto, on the isthmus which, according to French claims, formed the northern boundary of English territory. In all the years that England had held nominal rule in Acadia, not a single English settlement had been formed, and apparently not a step

of progress had been taken in gaining the loyalty of the inhabitants. A whole generation had grown up during the time; but they were no less devoted to France than their fathers had been. It was said that the king of England had not one truly loyal subject in the peninsula, outside of the fort at Annapolis. . . . Among the schemes suggested for remedying this state of affairs, was one by Governor Shirley [of Massachusetts], to place strong bands of English settlers in all the important towns, in order that the Government might have friends and influence throughout the country. Nothing came of this; but in 1749 Parliament voted £40,000 for the purpose of settling a colony. . . . Twenty-five hundred persons being ready to go in less than two months from the time of the first advertisement, the colony was entrusted to Colonel Edward Cornwallis (uncle of the Cornwallis of the Revolutionary War), and he was made Governor of Nova Scotia. Chebucto was selected as the site of the colony, and the town was named Halifax in honor of the president of the Lords of Trade and Plantations. [See also HALIFAX.] . . . In July, a council was held at Halifax, when Governor Cornwallis gave the French deputies a paper declaring what the Government would allow to the French subjects, and what would be required of them." They were called upon to take the oath of allegiance, so often refused before. They claimed the privilege of taking a qualified oath, such as had been formerly allowed in certain cases, and which exempted them from bearing arms. "They wished to stand as neutrals, and, indeed, were often called so. Cornwallis replied that nothing less than entire allegiance would be accepted. . . . About a month later the people sent in a declaration with a thousand signatures, stating that they had resolved not to take the oath, but were determined to leave the country. Cornwallis took no steps to coerce them, but wrote to England for instructions."—R. Johnson, *History of the French war*, ch. 10.—"The government was transferred from Annapolis Royal; but no change was made in the old plan of administration. A General Assembly was contemplated in the governor's commission, but it was not actually established until 1758. The British government followed up the work of colonization with energy. In 1750 the ship *Alderney* brought out 353 settlers who . . . formed the nucleus of the present town of Dartmouth. More important was the assisted immigration of foreign Protestant settlers. These came for the most part from the Palatinate and the upper Rhine. Three hundred Germans in the ship *Ann* from Rotterdam reached Halifax in September 1750. In the spring of 1751 a further immigration of nearly one thousand foreign Protestants reached Halifax, and in the year following a second thousand. It was not until 1754 that courts of law in Nova Scotia began to be organized on the present basis. The advent of Chief Justice Belcher on the scene marks the change. The situation of the colony in 1754 may be precisèd as follows. After nearly half a century of neglect England, in the lull between two great wars, took up the work of 'planting' Nova Scotia with marked energy. Within four years she poured nearly six thousand settlers into the province and established them firmly in two defensible towns on good harbours. The work did not need to be done again. At the same time Louisbourg was within easy striking distance of the new rival capital, and the large Acadian population settled in the most fertile part of the province supported, as was natural, the French settlement of Cape Breton. This was

the posture of affairs when the Seven Years' War broke out."—A. MacMeehan, *Nova Scotia (Canada and its provinces)*, A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., v. 13, pp. 83, 87-88).—In 1750, Major Lawrence was sent to Chignecto, with 400 men, to build a block-house on the little river Messagouche, which the French claimed as their southern boundary. "A large French fort, Beau Séjour, was built on the northern side of the Messagouche, and a smaller one, Gaspereaux, at Baie Verte. Other stations were also planted, forming a line of fortified posts from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the mouth of the St. John's. . . . The commission appointed to settle the question of boundaries had broken up without accomplishing any results; and it was resolved by the authorities in Nova Scotia and Massachusetts [1754] that an expedition should be sent against Fort Beau Séjour. . . . Massachusetts . . . raised about 2,000 troops for the contemplated enterprise, who were under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel John Winslow. To this force were added about 300 regulars, and the whole was placed under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Moncton. They reached Chignecto on the 2d of June," 1755. The French were found unprepared for long resistance, and Beau Séjour was surrendered on the 16th. "After Beau Séjour, the smaller forts were quickly reduced. Some vessels sent to the mouth of the St. John's found the French fort deserted and burned. The name of Beau Séjour was changed to Cumberland."—R. Johnson, *History of the French war*, ch. 10.—See also CANADA: 1750-1753; ENGLAND: 1754-1755.

ALSO IN: J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 5, bk. 5, ch. 11.—W. Kingsford, *History of Canada*, v. 3, bk. 11, ch. 3 and 6.

1755.—Frustrated naval expedition of French. See CANADA: 1755 (June).

1755.—Removal of Acadians and their dispersion in exile.—"The campaign of the year 1755, which had opened in Nova Scotia with so much success, and which promised a glorious termination, disappointed the expectations and awakened the fears of the Colonists. The melancholy and total defeat of the army under General Braddock, while on his march against Fort du Quesne, threw a gloom over the British Provinces. . . . Louisbourg was reinforced, the savages let loose upon the defenceless settlements of the English, and the tide of war seemed ready to roll back upon the invaders. Amidst this general panic, Governor Lawrence and his Council, aided by Admirals Boscawen and Moystyn, assembled to consider the necessary measures that were to be adopted towards the Acadians, whose character and situation were so peculiar as to distinguish them from every other people who had suffered under the scourge of war. . . . It was finally determined, at this consultation, to remove and disperse this whole people among the British Colonies; where they could not unite in any offensive measures, and where they might be naturalized to the Government and Country. The execution of this unusual and general sentence was allotted chiefly to the New England Forces, the Commander of which [Colonel Winslow], from the humanity and firmness of his character, was well qualified to carry it into effect. It was, without doubt, as he himself declared, disagreeable to his natural make and temper; and his principles of implicit obedience as a soldier were put to a severe test by this ungrateful kind of duty; which required an ungenerous, cunning, and subtle severity. . . . They were kept entirely ignorant of their destiny until the moment of their captivity, and were over-

awed, or allured, to labour at the gathering in of their harvest, which was secretly allotted to the use of their conquerors."—T. C. Haliburton, *Account of Nova Scotia*, v. 1, pp. 170-175.—"No just opinion can be formed regarding the forcible removal of the French population from Nova Scotia in 1755, without recognition of the fact that for two years prior to the formal rupture between France and England in 1756 their colonies in America had been openly at war. Again, the situation cannot be understood without recognition of the fact that the French parted most reluctantly with Acadia, never relinquished the hope of regaining it and never ceased to labour towards that end. Their chief political agents were the various missionary priests sent into the province under the provisions of the Treaty of Utrecht. To teach their flocks to consider themselves still virtually subjects of King Louis, or 'neutrals,' to undermine English influence wherever possible, could only have appeared to them in the light of a hazardous, patriotic duty. On this subject much indignation has been displayed by partisan historians on both sides; but the French are no more to be blamed for striving to win back their lost province by all means in their power than the English are to be blamed for striving to retain it. Of all the missionaries the most zealous and efficient by far was Joseph Louis le Loutre. Bold, resourceful, wary, untiring, truculent, tenacious of his purpose, Le Loutre was a born leader of men. . . . Until he left the province in 1754 his hand is to be seen or suspected in every move against the English power. Acting under express orders from the French government he stirred up the Indians to harass the new town of Halifax and discourage the settlers. Many were the massacres in the early days, and deep the terror caused by them. As Duquesne wrote to Le Loutre, 'Ten scalps would stop an English army.' He hectoring the Acadians into compliance with his will by threatening to loose the Indians upon them if they disobeyed. He threatened them from the altar with spiritual pains and penalties if they resisted his dictation. With his own hand he fired the church at Beaubassin to force the inhabitants into retreating across the boundary line into French territory. . . . During the years 1751-52 he forced at least two thousand Acadians to withdraw from Nova Scotia into French territory beyond the isthmus, or into the islands of St. John and Cape Breton, where their state was miserable indeed. It was Le Loutre who began the expulsion of the Acadians. The ultimate cause of this emigration was the action of Cornwallis in demanding a renewal of the oath by the Acadians as a condition of retaining their lands. . . . Either the Acadians were British subjects or they were not. There was no middle ground; they could not be 'neutrals'. . . . In a state of actual war with France it would be impossible to distinguish them from open enemies. . . . The situation was highly critical and the English governors met it, not as all-powerful tyrants, but as men who in the midst of danger take obvious precautions for their safety. Cornwallis failed to persuade the Acadians to renew their unconditional oath of allegiance. He returned to England in 1752, and his successor, Hopson, held office only for a year. [Charles Lawrence,] the next captain-general and governor-in-chief was a man of much more decided character and stronger will than any who had held office before him. In deciding to remove the French population from the province Lawrence and his council felt that they were obliged to act swiftly in a crisis. War was in active progress; British

prestige had received a crushing blow in the annihilation of Braddock's command; intercepted dispatches from the French governor at Louisbourg revealed a plan of campaign to destroy Halifax and drive the English into the sea; leather bags filled with scalping-knives for distribution among the Indians were found in the captured French men-of-war; and the Acadians had refused once more, and for the last time, to bind themselves by an unconditional oath of allegiance. This fatal decision was reached on July 27, 1755. At a meeting of council held on the preceding Friday the two alternatives had been plainly set before the French deputies, either to take the oath or to quit their lands; and they were given the intervening days to think the matter over. Called before the governor in council, they refused point-blank to take the oath."—A. MacMeehan, *Nova Scotia (Canada and its provinces, A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., v. 13, pp. 89-94)*.—"Winslow prepared for the embarkation. The Acadian prisoners and their families were divided into groups answering to their several villages, in order that those of the same village might, as far as possible, go in the same vessel. It was also provided that the members of each family should remain together; and notice was given them to hold themselves in readiness. 'But even now,' he writes, 'I could not persuade the people I was in earnest.' Their doubts were soon ended. The first embarkation took place on the 8th of October [1755]. . . . When all, or nearly all, had been sent off from the various points of departure, such of the houses and barns as remained standing were burned, in obedience to the orders of Lawrence, that those who had escaped might be forced to come in and surrender themselves. The whole number removed from the province, men, women, and children, was a little above 6,000. Many remained behind; and while some of these withdrew to Canada, Isle St. Jean, and other distant retreats, the rest lurked in the woods, or returned to their old haunts, whence they waged for several years a guerilla warfare against the English. Yet their strength was broken, and they were no longer a danger to the province. Of their exiled countrymen, one party overpowered the crew of the vessel that carried them, ran her ashore at the mouth of the St. John, and escaped. The rest were distributed among the colonies from Massachusetts to Georgia, the master of each transport having been provided with a letter from Lawrence addressed to the Governor of the province to which he was bound, and desiring him to receive the unwelcome strangers. The provincials were vexed at the burden imposed upon them; and though the Acadians were not in general ill-treated, their lot was a hard one. Still more so was that of those among them who escaped to Canada. . . . Many of the exiles eventually reached Louisiana, where their descendants now form a numerous and distinct population. Some, after incredible hardship, made their way back to Acadia, where, after the peace, they remained unmolested. . . . In one particular the authors of the deportation were disappointed in its results. They had hoped to substitute a loyal population for a disaffected one; but they failed for some time to find settlers for the vacated lands. . . . New England humanitarianism, melting into sentimentality at a tale of woe, has been unjust to its own. Whatever judgment may be passed on the cruel measure of wholesale expatriation, it was not put in execution till every resource of patience and persuasion had been tried in vain."—F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe, v. 1, ch. 8*.—"The removal of the French Acadians

from their homes was one of the saddest episodes in modern history, and no one now will attempt to justify it; but it should be added that the genius of our great poet [Longfellow in 'Evangeline'] has thrown a somewhat false and distorted light over the character of the victims. They were not the peaceful and simple-hearted people they are commonly supposed to have been; and their houses, as we learn from contemporary evidence, were by no means the picturesque, vine-clad, and strongly built cottages described by the poet. The people were notably quarrelsome among themselves, and to the last degree superstitious. They were wholly under the influence of priests appointed by the French bishops."—C. C. Smith, *Wars on the seaboard (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 5, ch. 7)*.—"We defy all past history to produce a parallel case, in which an unarmed and peaceable people have suffered to such an extent as did the French Neutrals of Acadia at the hands of the New England troops."—P. H. Smith, *Acadia, p. 216*.

Also in: W. B. Reed, *Acadian exiles in Pennsylvania (Pennsylvania Historical Society Memoirs, v. 6, pp. 283-316)*.

1755-1785.—Self-government.—Attitude during Revolutionary War.—Non-intercourse and invasions.—"The granting of self-government to the province had been intended by the British authorities from the outset. The greatest obstacle was that the French as Catholics were by British law excluded from the franchise. . . . Under the administration of Lawrence a number of New Englanders settled in Halifax. These men brought with them a perfect acquaintance with all the details of self-government, and they were fiercely impatient of arbitrary action by irresponsible officials. . . . At last the pressure became too strong for . . . [Lawrence, and on the insistence of the lords of trade] on February 7, 1758, the governor and council passed resolutions providing for the election of sixteen members for the province at large, with four for the township of Halifax and two for the township of Lunenburg; and the limits of these districts were determined. The first general assembly in what is now Canada met for the first time on October 2, 1758, in the Court House . . . in the city of Halifax. The province had long been neglected and passed over; the work of settlement had been interrupted by war; now, after 1760, something like a 'boom' began in Nova Scotia real estate. Not only were the Acadian farms occupied, but in the many fine harbours which serrate the coast-line fishing villages sprang up. . . . Settlement spread beyond the bounds of the peninsula. Very soon a sufficient number of people had taken up land in what is now New Brunswick to entitle them to representation in the general assembly. Towards the end of the Seven Years' War the danger of invasion flared up again. During the summer of 1762 a small French squadron captured St. John's in Newfoundland. Halifax was thrown into a panic. Martial law was proclaimed. . . . Much stranger to modern eyes than this excitement at the approach of danger was the curious apathy of Nova Scotia over the unlucky Stamp Act of 1765. . . . While the other colonies were burning the obnoxious act in public and compelling the stamp distributors *not* to perform their duty, Nova Scotia accepted it with complete passivity. . . . That the act was obeyed in Nova Scotia is attested by the existence of many stamped deeds, which must have been executed between the passage of the bill and its repeal in the following year. . . . The circular letter issued by the Massachusetts Assembly in

1768 and addressed to the speaker of the Nova Scotia Assembly was shown by him to Lieutenant Governor Francklin, who sent it to Lord Shelburne. It was not read in the house, or answered. . . . As early as 1775 Governor Legge comments on 'the great prejudice against this province' felt by the other colonies. This 'prejudice' became more and more intense during the two wars with Great Britain, and was long in dying out. . . . It is the fashion of local historians to represent Nova Scotia as unswervingly 'loyal' throughout the dreary, dragging civil war which was just beginning; but the truth is the inhabitants were divided in their allegiance. It could hardly be otherwise. The majority came from New England, to which they were still closely attached by many ties of blood and interest. Now, after an interval of fifteen years at the utmost, they found themselves, by the mere accident of residence, forced into an attitude of hostility to friends and kindred. . . . Escaping prisoners of war, a stream that never ceased to flow, were concealed, fed and carried out of the province. Not a few of the settlers left Nova Scotia and returned to the 'Continent.' At the same time the official attitude of Nova Scotia towards her sister colonies was from first to last hostile and uncompromising [an attitude that was opposed by bitter dislike]. . . . While Legge and Francklin were taking measures to defend the province, Allan, the former member for Cumberland, was laying before the Council of Massachusetts a well-considered plan for its conquest. . . . Private vessels of war seem to have been hovering about the coast awaiting the outbreak of hostilities and ready to pounce upon their prey. Single ships were captured at Merigomish, Pictou and Canso. Four were taken at Cape Forchu, and the people of the hamlet were made prisoners. The privateersmen made war both by land and sea. . . . During the war almost every accessible settlement in Nova Scotia suffered. . . . Lunenburg was surprised on July 1, 1782, by the crews of six privateers. They carried off plunder and did damage to the extent of £8000. The invaders also compelled the local authorities to sign a bond for £1000 as ransom for not burning the town. . . . Nor were they always careful to discriminate between friends and foes. Numerous ill-spelt papers in the Massachusetts archives bear witness that American sympathizers in Nova Scotia who had entertained or lodged escaping prisoners, or wrecked crews, or aided them to return to their own place, were plundered, in spite of their 'protections,' as remorselessly as any loyal tory. In the first year of the war the American privateers made 350 captures. In 1779 Lieutenant-Governor Sir Richard Hughes states in a dispatch to Lord Germaine that the rebel cruisers have destroyed the Canso fisheries, worth £50,000 a year to England. Naturally Nova Scotia undertook to make reprisals. . . . In 1779 the general assembly voted £5000 for armed vessels to protect the coast. In addition, numerous privateers were fitted out by speculative merchants, as in the previous war. This seems to have always been a profitable form of investment. In a single year, 1778, no fewer than forty-eight prizes and four recaptures were brought into Halifax, and privateering became more and more active as the war went on. During the war there was no further development of the provincial constitution. From 1771 to 1785 . . . the same general assembly, the fifth, sat for fourteen years. . . . [It is Nova Scotia's Long Parliament. One piece of legislation which does lasting honour to this parliament was nothing

less than the repeal in 1783] of former acts which laid 'His Majesty's subjects professing the Popish religion under heavy disabilities.' . . . In 1785 the act which made it impossible for a Catholic to set up a school was also repealed. Nova Scotia suffered for her loyalty. Non-intercourse was a heavy blow. In November, 1775, Legge writes: 'The trade with the colonies is entirely put an end to, and the inhabitants of this town as well as all other towns on the sea coast are almost entirely destitute of provisions, nor can any provisions of bread kind be expected from Canada till June next, if that province should then be in possession of the Crown.' One dire result of the peace, which advocates of Maritime union might note, was the partition of Nova Scotia. Instead of one government, it was split into three, thus reducing the territory of historical Acadia more than one half and narrowing the ancient bounds to the limits of the peninsula. The year 1784 saw the creation of two new provinces, Cape Breton and New Brunswick. At the beginning of the nineteenth century Cape Breton shared in the benefit of the great immigration from Scotland."—A. MacMeehan, *Nova Scotia* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 13, pp. 101-103, 111-113, 120-121, 214-215, 219-220, 228-229).

1763.—Cession by France to England confirmed in Treaty of Paris. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties.

1763.—Cape Breton added to government. See CANADA: 1763-1774.

1781-1879.—Ship-building.—"Along the Northumberland Strait, Pictou, New Glasgow, Tatamagouche, River John, and Merigomish, were all noted for their shipbuilding. The Crimean War gave a decided impetus to the industry. . . . The coal trade from Pictou to the United States was also a stimulus. In the west, Yarmouth, Windsor, Hantsport, Maitland, Londonderry, and other Bay of Fundy ports were centres for shipbuilding. But, indeed, there were scarcely any harbours or rivers of note, both in the mainland and parts of the Island of Cape Breton, that did not play a greater or less part in this great industry. A little over a quarter of a century ago [written in 1911] there were registered in Nova Scotia 3025 vessels, with a tonnage of 558,911 tons, or about one and a quarter tons of shipping *per capita* of the population, a larger holding than any other country in the world, not even excepting those of Northern Europe. The fleet of Yarmouth alone covered every ocean, and represented the largest tonnage *per capita* of any port in the world. You saw Yarmouth ships in Helsingfors and Monte Video. . . . The prosperous days of wooden sailing vessels reached their zenith in 1879, when they had to give way to iron sailing ships, these again to be replaced by the tramp steamer. . . . And so the immense fleet of Yarmouth vanished."—B. Willson, *Nova Scotia*, pp. 108-109.

1782-1784.—Influx of refugee Loyalists from the United States. See TORIES; NEW BRUNSWICK: 1758-1785.

1782-1869.—Factors in shaping character of province.—Influence of the United States.—Struggle for responsible government.—"The Revolutionary War and the settlement of Nova Scotia by exiles of the defeated party completely changed the orientation of the province. For more than seventy years her policy had been determined by her neighbourhood to Canada and the constant menace of the 'French and Indians.' That menace had now passed away for ever. Her whole relation to the rest of America was also changed.

... The political isolation of Nova Scotia after the war, the coming of the loyalists, the continued reminder of Britain's protection by the presence of a British garrison, all tended to give the province the strong tory cast of character it has ever since retained. The capital was in many respects simply an English garrison town on this side of the Atlantic. Of the moral quality of the loyalist immigrants there is only one view. . . . They were pre-eminently law-abiding. . . . The white population brought with them their love of order, their religion, their class distinctions, [and a desire for education. Dalhousie College was founded by Lord Dalhousie in 1818 during his incumbency in office as governor, and in 1817 Pictou Academy was opened to private education for the Presbyterian ministry. Sir James Kempt who succeeded Dalhousie, was impressed by the need of land communications.] Under his administration money grants for roads and bridges were generous, and the assembly showed its confidence in his ability and wisdom by entrusting him with much of their management. The advantages of the old paternal system of government, with the undisputed power of initiative in the hands of the governor, are well illustrated by the administration of Dalhousie and Kempt. Under the present system no lieutenant-governor of a Canadian province could found a college; nor would he be entrusted with the expenditure of road money. Another important reform, which is due directly to Kempt, was the appointment of a president of Sessions and law judge of the Court of Common Pleas in each of the four juridical divisions of the province. In spite of strong protests this measure became law. A new school of native politicians was growing up which, in virtue of its ability and new ideas, was capable of governing and determined to do so. [Among the first of these was Joseph Howe, one of the greatest of Canadians, who from 1837 to 1873 was at the head of the Liberal party. The first blow for constitutional freedom was, however, struck before Howe entered the struggle.] Against the council the assembly had always maintained its right to control the public purse; but, as the council had the disposal of a large part of the revenue in its own hands, this cardinal principle of constitutional government was still far from being completely realized in Nova Scotia. [In 1826 the Board of Customs ignored the provincial government so far as to order retention of a proportion of the customs duties collected at Halifax, for use in payment of customs officials. The dispute was settled, but shortly afterwards it was discovered that the Board of Customs had again offended by placing their own construction on a clause in the tariff revision act. The result was a quarrel between the Council and the House, known as the "Brandy Dispute," in which the Council finally had to give way.] From the time of the Brandy Dispute the movement towards reform is clearly discernible in the trend of events, though its progress was slow; 1835 marks the definite entrance of Howe into the public life of the province, and thenceforward until his death in Government House in 1873, the history of Nova Scotia is his history. [In 1836 he was elected to the legislature, and] was now in a position to affect reform in the constitution by the use of recognized means. . . . 'All we ask for,' he said [is] . . . a system of responsibility to the people extending through all the departments supported at the public expense.' That is the democratic programme in a nutshell. The House met in January, 1837, the year of the rebellion in Canada, and Howe lost no time

in bringing in his projects of reform. . . . The indictment of the oligarchy is heavy. The council, composed exclusively of residents in the capital, is ignorant of the province as a whole and neglectful of its interests. . . . The Episcopal Church [then the state church] enjoys undue privilege. The Anglican bishop representing but a small minority of the population, has a seat in the council, but the heads of other churches have not. The interest of several councillors in one mercantile concern has prevented the establishment of a sound currency. The casual and territorial revenues of the province are not in the control of the assembly. The presence of the chief justice in the council has made him virtually the head of one political party. . . . The council of Nova Scotia sits behind closed doors. A measure of redress was granted at once. . . . The ancient constitution of Nova Scotia was modified by the creation of a legislative council of nineteen members, which was to sit with open doors, and of an executive council of twelve having imperfect control of affairs. The open rebellion of Papineau and Mackenzie in the Canadas made the position of the reform party in Nova Scotia peculiarly difficult, but the Durham Report, and the application, in the disturbed provinces, of the political principles for which Howe and his followers were contending, strengthened their hands. . . . [The lieutenant-governor, Sir Colin Campbell, upheld the council against a vote of want of confidence.] The assembly's *riposte* was an address to the crown praying for his recall. And in the end the people triumphed."—A. McMeekan, *Nova Scotia*, (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 13, pp. 245-246, 268, 273-274, 278, 281-282, 284-286, 290).—At this time "a council of twelve persons chosen from the capital, with one exception, formed the second branch of the legislature, the Governor having no power to increase the number. The whole executive power of the government was vested in these men, who were never required to appeal to the people, holding as they did their office for life, as the advisers of the Governor, and the rulers of the Province. Under Lord Falkland who had succeeded Sir Colin Campbell, of the . . . men who composed the Executive Council six were members of the representative branch, and were consequently obliged, once in four years, to solicit the suffrages of the people—a wholesome constitutional check being thus vested in the constituencies."—D. Campbell, *History of Nova Scotia for schools*, p. 81.—"Great advantages had been won and the campaign of reform went steadily on. The main obstacle now seems to have been in the character of . . . [Lord Falkland, the governor]. In the end he was recalled like his predecessor, at the instance of Howe and the popular party. . . . His term of office marks the end of the old autocratic condition. . . . It is the glory of Howe that he led his forces to a complete and bloodless victory. Reform of the constitution in Nova Scotia has left no such searing memories as the drum-head courts-martial of Toronto or the slaughter of St. Eustache. To the clear-eyed wisdom and the impetuous courage of Howe the credit is mainly due, though some must be given to the temper of a people long taught to abide by law and bred in constitutional methods. . . . [Falkland was followed in 1848 by Sir James Harvey, who called Howe and his followers to the cabinet, and responsible government was won. Some years later manhood suffrage was introduced and it was then found that the proportion of illiterates in the province was very large. An attempt made, in 1841, by Howe,

to introduce compulsory education had failed. Now it was imperative that something should be done, and when in 1863 Charles Tupper led the re-organized Conservative party to power, he immediately took the matter in hand. In 1864 he introduced a well considered Education Bill, which, in spite of strong opposition was passed and became law. This Act is the foundation of the present school system. The next great measure which engaged his attention was that of confederation, partly because of the opposition to his School Act, partly by reason of the feeling roused by Joseph Howe against confederation, it taxed Tupper's strength and powers of persuasion to force the Plan of Union through the House, and in the next election, he was defeated.]—A. MacMechan, *Nova Scotia* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 13, p. 293).

1819.—Restrictions passed against American fishermen. See FISHERIES: 1819-1854.

1820-1837.—Family Compact. See CANADA: 1820-1837.

1855.—Boundary of province of New Brunswick settled. See NEW BRUNSWICK: 1824-1854.

1867.—Anti-confederation feeling.—Although Nova Scotia had been the first to propose a union of the maritime provinces, and had willingly accepted the proposal to unite with the Canadas, after the Quebec conference a strong feeling grew up against confederation, chiefly on economic grounds. "Mr. Joseph Howe, had been an eloquent advocate of colonial union before it assumed a practical shape, but now took the strong ground that the question should not be forced on the country by a legislature which had no mandate whatever to deal with it, that it should be determined only by the people at the polls, and that the terms arranged at Quebec were unfair to the maritime provinces. [He asked for a general election, which Tupper refused, and the measure was pushed through the House.] Mr. Howe subsequently obtained 'better terms' for Nova Scotia by every available means of constitutional agitation—beyond which he was never willing to go, however great might be public grievances—and then he yielded to the inevitable logic of circumstances, and entered the Dominion government where he remained until he became lieutenant-governor of his native province. The feelings, however, [which] he aroused against confederation lasted with some intensity for years, although the cry for repeal died away, according as a new generation grew up in place of the one which remembered the bitterness of the struggles of 1867."—J. Bourinot, *Canada, the story of the nations*, pp. 413-414.—"In reviewing anti-union literature of that day, one might be led to suppose that nearly all the people had joined the anti-confederate ranks. As a matter of fact, this was never the case. In the vote cast in the first election in September, 1867, 17,500 voted for the anti-confederates and 15,000 as confederates. Those who held union sentiments were unaggressive, but intelligently loyal and assured in their convictions. Of Halifax, the centre of the conflict, these statements are true. The city gave 400 majority for union, and Western Halifax, 300. These majorities were offset by a large majority against union in Eastern Halifax. The gloom and sorrow referred to by Mr. Howe existed largely in his imagination. The first of July, 1867, was observed in Halifax with imposing demonstrations and no opposition."—S. M. Saunders, *Three premiers of Nova Scotia*, pp. 492-493.—See also CANADA: 1867.

1898.—Vote on question of prohibition. See CANADA: 1898 (September).

20th century.—Laws regarding education.—Macdonald movement. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Canada.

1902.—New parliamentary representation. See CANADA: 1901-1902.

1914.—Boundary question at Treaty of Ghent. See U.S.A.: 1814 (December): Treaty of peace concluded at Ghent.

1921.—Electoral system. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

NOVA ZEELANDIA, old name for Guiana. See GUIANA: 1580-1814.

NOVA ZEMBLA, island off the coast of European Russia, in the Arctic region. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the world; ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1879; 1896; 1897; 1900.

NOVANTÆ, tribe which, in Roman times, occupied the modern counties of Kirkcudbright and Wigtown, Scotland. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

NOVAR, Ronald Craufurd Munro-Ferguson, 1st Viscount (1860-), British statesman. Governor-general of Australia, 1914-1920. See AUSTRALIA: 1919-1920.

NOVARA, Battles of (1513, 1821, 1849). See ITALY: 1510-1513; 1820-1821; 1848-1849.

NOVELS OF JUSTINIAN. See CORPUS JURIS CIVILIS.

NOVGOROD, capital of the government of the same name in the northwestern part of Russia. The population in 1914 was 26,972. See MONGOLIA: Map.

Origin. See RUSSIA: 9th-12th centuries.

11th century.—Rise of commonwealth. See RUSSIA: 1054-1237.

1238.—Spared by Tatars. See RUSSIA: 1237-1294.

14th-15th centuries.—In Hanseatic League. See HANSA TOWNS.

1478.—Fall of republic. See RUSSIA: 1350-1480.

1915.—German attacks during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 9.

NOVI, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1799 (April-September).

NOVI BAZAR, or Novi Pazar, Sanjak of, formerly a sanjak or second grade district of the Turkish empire, which thrust a mountainous wedge between Serbia and Albania. By the treaty of Berlin (1878) permission to garrison the sanjak was given to Austria, to whom it was of great strategic importance, by reason of its location. After the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria, however, the sanjak was restored to Turkey. (See also BALKAN STATES: 1878; BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA: 1878.) Premier Achrenthal proposed to build a railway through the sanjak with the terminus at Salonika. The opposition of the Greeks, and the diplomatic resistance of Russia, England and France, led Emperor Francis Joseph to abandon this policy of aggression. By the treaties of London and Bucharest (1913), the district was made part of Serbia. (See SERBIA: 1909-1913.) The town of Novi Bazar, on the site of ancient Rassaia, had a population of 13,433 at the latest census (1913).

NOVIKOV, Nicholas (1744-1818), Russian journalist. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1752-1816.

NOVIOMAGUS, ancient name for Nimuegen, or Nimwegen. See BATAVIANS.

NOVO GEORGIEVSK, fortress on the Vistula, northwest of Warsaw. It was erected by the Poles in 1615, strengthened by Napoleon in 1807, and captured by the Russians in 1813. It was occupied by the Poles during the insurrection of 1830.

NOYADES, drowning of prisoners during the French Revolution. See FRANCE: 1793-1794 (October-April).

NOYON, town in northern France, in the department of the Oise. It was the scene of the coronations of Pippin in 752, of Charlemagne in 768, and of the election of Hugh Capet to the throne of France in 987. During the World War it was in a region of fighting.

1916.—Extent of Noyon salient. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c.

1917.—German atrocities. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XI. Devastation: c.

1918.—Occupied by Germans.—Taken by Allies. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: a, 1; c, 20; d, 2; d, 3; g, 7; i; k, 2.

NOYON, Treaty of (1516). See FRANCE: 1516-1517.

NOZALEDA, Spanish monk, and archbishop of Manila. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1900: Spanish friars.

NOZU, or **Nodzu**, **Mitchitsura** (1840-1908), Japanese soldier. Commander-in-chief of the Manchurian army, 1895; fought in the Chino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

NU, Egyptian god. See MYTHOLOGY: Egyptian.

NUBAR PASHA (1825-1899), Egyptian statesman. See EGYPT: 1875-1882.

NUBIA, section of Africa which includes the Nile river valley, from the first cataract to the confluence of the White and Blue Niles. It is bounded on the north by Egypt, on the east, by the Red sea, on the west by the Libyan Desert, and extends, without historical boundaries, to the region of Khartum. This territory, whose natives are negroes, has been ruled by the Egyptians (see EGYPT: B.C. 1414-1379), the Romans, and the Arabs, and is now under the political control of Great Britain.

NUEVO LEON, state in northern Mexico. See MEXICO: 1910-1913.

NUISANCES.—Nuisances, in law, may be divided into public and private. Private nuisances are those which harm or inconvenience a private person. The remedy is court action. Public nuisances are acts which cause inconvenience or damage to the public. Under the common law such acts are punishable as misdemeanors. Anything which is harmful to public health, morals or safety is a nuisance. Common instances are obstructions on public highways, disorderly houses, diseased animals, obscene publications, and any other conditions or objects which have been defined as nuisances by statute.—See also BILLBOARDS.

NUITHONES, Suevic clan. See AVIONES.

NULLIFICATION: First assertion of the doctrine in the United States. See U.S.A.: 1798.

Doctrine and ordinance in South Carolina. See U.S.A.: 1828-1833; SOUTH CAROLINA: 1828-1833.

NUMA POMPILIUS, legendary king of Rome, 715-672 B.C. See ROME: Ancient kingdom: B.C. 753-510; GUILDS: Roman.

NUMANTIAN WAR.—"In 143 B.C. the Celtiberians again appeared in the field (resisting the Romans in Spain); and when, on the death of Viriathus, D. Junius Brutus had pushed the legions to the Atlantic in 137 B.C., and practically subdued Lusitania, the dying spirit of Spanish independence still held out in the Celtiberian fortress city of Numanti. Perched on a precipitous hill by the banks of the upper Douro, occupied only by eight thousand men, this little place defied the power of Rome as long as Troy defied the Greeks. . . . In 137 B.C. the consul, C. Hostilius Man-

cinus, was actually hemmed in by a sortie of the garrison, and forced to surrender. He granted conditions of peace to obtain his liberty; but the senate would not ratify them, though the young quaestor, Tiberius Gracchus, who had put his hand to the treaty, pleaded for faith and honour. Mancinus, stripped and with manacles on his hands, was handed over to the Numantines, who, like the Samnite Pontius, after the Caudine Forks, refused to accept him. In 134 B.C. the patience of the Romans was exhausted; Scipio was sent. . . . The mighty destroyer of Carthage drew circumvallations five miles in length around the stubborn rock, and waited for the result. The Virgilian picture of the fall of Troy is not more moving than are the brave and ghastly facts of the fall of Numantia. The market-place was turned into a funeral pyre for the gaunt, famine-stricken citizens to leap upon. . . . When the surrender was made only a handful of men marched out."—R. F. Horton, *History of the Romans*, ch. 18.—See also LUSITANIA; SPAIN: B.C. 218-25.

ALSO IN: G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, ch. 6-7.

NUMERIANUS, Marcus Aurelius (d. 284), Roman emperor, 283-284. See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

NUMIDIA, ancient name for that part of northern Africa which corresponds to modern Algeria.

Country and people. See NUMIDIANS; AFRICA: Races: Prehistoric; LIBYANS.

B.C. 204-202.—Alliance with Carthage.—Subjection to Rome.—Granted independence. See PUNIC WARS: Second; ROME: Republic: B.C. 218-202.

B.C. 149-146.—Alliance with Rome. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 149-146.

B.C. 118-104.—Jugurthine War.—The Numidian kingdom, over which the Romans, at the end of the second Punic War, had settled their friend Masinissa, passed at his death to his son Micipsa. In 118 B.C. Micipsa died, leaving two young sons, and also a bastard nephew, Jugurtha, whom he feared. He divided the kingdom between these three, hoping to secure the fidelity of Jugurtha to his sons. It was a policy that failed. Jugurtha made sure of what was given to him, and then grasped at the rest. One of his young cousins was soon cleared from his path by assassination; on the other he opened war. This latter, Adherbal by name, appealed to Rome, but Jugurtha despatched agents with money to bribe the senate, and a commission sent over to divide Numidia gave him the western and better half. The commissioners were no sooner out of Africa than he began war upon Adherbal afresh, shut him up in his strong capital, Cirta [112 B.C.], and placed the city under siege. The Romans again interfered, but he captured Cirta, notwithstanding and tortured Adherbal to death. The corrupt party at Rome which Jugurtha kept in his pay made every effort to stifle discussion of his nefarious doings; but one bold tribune, C. Memmius, roused the people on the subject and forced the senate to declare war against him. Jugurtha's gold, however, was still effectual, and it paralyzed the armies sent to Africa, by corrupting the venal officers who commanded them. Once Jugurtha went to Rome under a safe conduct, invited to testify as a witness against the men whom he had bribed, but really expecting to be able to further his own cause in the city. He found the people furious against him and he only saved himself from being forced to criminate his Roman senatorial mercenaries by buying a tribune, who brazenly vetoed the examination of the Numidian king. Jugurtha being then ordered out of Rome, the war pro-

ceeded again, and in 109 B.C. the command passed to an honest general, Q. Metellus, who took with him Caius Marius, the most capable soldier of Rome, whose capability was at that time not half understood. Under Metellus the Romans penetrated Numidia to Zama, but failed to take the town, and narrowly escaped a great disaster on the Muthul, where a serious battle was fought. In 107 B.C. Metellus was superseded by Marius, chosen consul for that year and now really beginning his remarkable career. Meantime Jugurtha had gained an ally in Bocchus, king of Mauretania, and Marius, after two campaigns of doubtful result, found more to hope from diplomacy than from war. With the help of Sulla,—his future great rival—who had lately been sent over to his army, in command of a troop of horse, he persuaded the Mauretanian king to betray Jugurtha into his hands. The dreaded Numidian was taken to Rome [104 B.C.], exhibited in the triumph of Marius, and then brutally thrust into the black dungeon called the Tullianum to die of slow starvation. Bocchus was rewarded for his treachery by the cession to him of part of Numidia; Marius, intoxicated with the plaudits of Rome, first saved it from the Cimbri and then stabbed it with his own sword; Sulla, inexplicable harbinger of the coming Cæsars, bided his time.—Based on W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 7, ch. 8.—See also **ROME: Republic: B.C. 118-99**.

ALSO IN: G. Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic*, v. 1, ch. 26-29.—Sallust, *Jugurthine War*. **B.C. 46.**—Kingdom extinguished by Cæsar and annexed to Rome. See **ROME: Republic: B.C. 47-46**; **AFRICA: Ancient and medieval civilization: Roman occupation**.

398.—Revolt of Firmus and Gildo. See **ROME: Empire: 396-398**.

NUMIDIANS AND MAURI.—"The union of the Aryan invaders [of north Africa] with the ancient populations of the coast sprung from Phut gave birth to the Mauri, or Maurusii, whose primitive name it has been asserted was Medes, probably an alteration of the word Amazigh. The alliance of the same invaders with the Getulians beyond the Atlas produced the Numidians. The Mauri were agriculturists, and of settled habits; the Numidians, as their Greek appellation indicates, led a nomadic life."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history of the East*, v. 2, bk. 6, ch. 5.—In northern Africa, "on the south and west of the immediate territory of the Carthaginian republic, lived various races of native Libyans who are commonly known by the name of Numidians. But these were in no way, as their Greek name ('Nomads') would seem to imply, exclusively pastoral races. Several districts in their possession, especially in the modern Algeria, were admirably suited for agriculture. Hence they had not only fixed and permanent abodes, but a number of not unimportant cities, of which Hippo and Cirta, the residences of the chief Numidian princes, were the most considerable."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1.—The various peoples of North Africa known anciently and modernly as Libyans, Numidians, or Nomades, Mauri, Mauritani or Moors, Gaetulians and Berbers, belong ethnographically to one family of men, distinguished alike from the negroes and the Egyptians.—Based on T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 13.—See also **AFRICA: Races: Prehistoric**; **LIBYANS**; **CARTHAGE: B.C. 146**; **PUNIC WARS: SECOND**; **NUMIDIA: 118-104 B.C.**

NUMMUS, Roman term for money. See **MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Rome**.

NUNCIO, Papal, permanent diplomatic and ecclesiastical agent of the Roman see accredited to a

foreign court or assigned to a special territory. "Nuncios, in the strict sense of the word, first appear in the sixteenth century. The office, however, was not created at any definite moment; or by any one papal ordinance, but gradually developed under the influence of various historical factors into the form in which we find it in the sixteenth century. . . . After the Council of Trent . . . [nuncios] became the chief agents of the popes in their efforts to check the spread of heresy. . . . The fact that in 1537 the papal correspondence with foreign powers, previously carried on by the pope's private secretary, was handed over by Paul III to the vice-chancellor, Cardinal Alexander Farnese, was the chief element within the curia which led to the permanence of nunciatures. . . . Angelo Leonini, sent to Venice by Alexander VI in 1500, is commonly regarded as the first nuncio, as we understand the term to-day. In Spain the collector general of the papal exchequer . . . was also given diplomatic powers . . . and discharged these two offices from 1506 to 1518 or 1519. . . . From thenceforth the Spanish nunciature may be regarded as permanent. The beginning of a papal nunciature in Germany dates from 1511. . . . The first real nuncio in France was Leone Ludovico di Canossa (1514-17). The French nunciature continued after the Council of Trent to the Revolution. After the Council of Trent a number of new nunciatures were erected. . . . A dispute concerning the rights of the pope in the erecting of nunciatures and the competency of the nuncios themselves arose in 1785 when Pius VI determined to establish a new nunciature in Munich at the request of Charles Theodore, Elector of Bavaria. The elector desired the appointment of a special nuncio, because princes subject to the emperor alone, were bishops of Bavarian dioceses but did not reside in Bavaria, thus greatly impeding the exercise of ecclesiastical administration. The three spiritual electors (the Archbishops of Cologne, Mainz, and Trier) protested on the grounds that thereby their metropolitan rights would be violated. . . . The emperor brought the controversy before the Imperial Diet of Ratisbon in 1788, but without definite results. . . . The French Revolution ended the dispute. Owing to the political development of Italy in the nineteenth century, the papal nunciatures disappeared completely. With the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire the Imperial German nunciature became the Austrian nunciature when Francis II assumed the title of Emperor of Austria. The partition of Poland ended the nunciature there. The first state outside of Europe to receive a papal representative was Brazil. At first an internuncio was assigned to that country, but of late years a nuncio has resided there."—J. P. Kirsch, *Nuncio* (*Catholic encyclopedia*, v. 11, pp. 160-161).—At present, nunciatures of the first class are Vienna, Paris, Madrid and Lisbon. The Paris nunciature had no incumbent from the rupture of diplomatic relations between France and the Holy See in 1904 until 1920, when a new nuncio was appointed, following the reconciliation of France with the Holy See.

NUNCOMAR, or Nand Kumar (d. 1775), Indian official. Brought accusations against Warren Hastings. See **INDIA: 1773-1785**.

NÚÑEZ, Raphael (1826-1894), Colombian statesman. See **COLOMBIA: 1885-1891**.

NUÑEZ CABEZA DE VACA, Alvaro (c. 1490-c. 1564), Spanish explorer. See **BUENOS AIRES: 1535-1542**; **FLORIDA: 1528-1542**; **TEXAS: 1528-1684**.

NUNS. See **MONASTICISM: Women and monasticism**.

NUPE, province of Nigeria. It was taken by the British in 1897. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Chronology.

NUR JAHAN, or Nur Mahal, empress of India, 1605-1627. See INDIA: 1605-1658.

NURAGHI, ancient architectural remains in Sardinia. See SARDINIA: Names, etc.

NUR-ED-DIN BEY, Turkish commander. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1, iii.

NUREMBERG.—"Nuremberg (Nürnberg) (Norimberga) is situated on the Regnitz, in the centre of Middle Franconia, about 90 miles north-west of Munich, to which it is second in size and importance, with a population of about . . . [353,000 (1910)]. (See GERMANY: Map.) The name is said to be derived from the ancient inhabitants of Noricum, who migrated hither about the year 451, on being driven from their early settlements on the Danube by the Huns. Here they distinguished themselves by their skill in the working of metals, which abound in the neighbouring mountains. Before the eleventh century the history of Nuremberg is enveloped in a mist of impenetrable obscurity, from which it does not emerge until the time of the Emperor Henry III., who issued an edict, dated July 16, 1050, 'ad castrum Noremberc,' a proof that it was a place of considerable importance even at this early period. Nuremberg afterwards became the favourite residence of the Emperor Henry IV."—W. J. Wyatt, *History of Prussia*, v. 2, p. 456.—See also HANSA TOWNS.

1368.—Reforestation of burned area. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: GERMANY: 1165-1852.

1417.—Office of Burgrave bought by the city. See BRANDENBURG: 1417-1640.

1470.—Invention of clocks. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Measurements.

1552-1524.—Two diets, and their recesses in favor of the Reformation. See PAPACY: 1522-1525.

1525.—Formal establishment of reformed religion. See PAPACY: 1522-1525.

1532.—Pacification of Charles V with Protestants. See GERMANY: 1530-1532; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Political situation in Luther's time.

1632.—Welcome to Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden.—Siege by Wallenstein.—Battle on the Fürth. See GERMANY: 1631-1632.

1801-1803.—One of six free cities which survived Peace of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803; CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.

1806.—Loss of municipal freedom.—Absorption in kingdom of Bavaria. See GERMANY: 1805-1806.

1919.—Labor congress. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1918-1921.

NUSSEY, Albert Henry Mortimer (b. 1880), British general. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 13.

NUTT VS. CORBETT (1870-1871). See U. S. A.: 1860-1872.

NUYS, Siege of.—In 1474 Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, with 60,000 men, wasted months in a fruitless siege of the town of Nuys, and became involved in the quarrel with the Swiss (see BURGUNDY: 1476-1477) which brought about his downfall. The abortive siege of Nuys was the beginning of his disasters.—Based on C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, pt. 2, ch. 2.

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE.—The Nyasaland Protectorate, formally called "British Central Africa," was intended to include that part of British territory north of the Zambesi river,

which is bounded on the east by Lake Nyasa and the Shiré river, on the south by the Zambesi districts, north by the Congo Free State and German territory, and west by Portuguese territory. [See BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.] . . . Attention was first drawn to Nyasaland by Dr. Livingstone; and, as is well known, he pointed to the Shiré highlands, which lie about 100 miles south of Lake Nyasa, as being one of the most suitable parts of Central Africa for experiments in the way of British colonization and as a field for missionary enterprise. These highlands lie at an elevation of from 2000 to 4000 feet above sea-level, and have a pleasant, fairly cool climate. [See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Climatic conditions.] The bulk, indeed, of British Central Africa is over the 2000-feet level, the only low-lying portions being the trough of Lake Nyasa and the Shiré valley."—A. Sharp, *Trade and colonization in British Central Africa* (Scottish Geographical Magazine, Mar., 1901).—"An attempt was made by Lord Granville (in the projected Congo Treaty of 1884) to define the sphere of Portuguese influence on the Shiré, so as to leave the greater part of that river and all Nyasaland outside the Portuguese dominions. Had that Congo Treaty been ratified, there would probably never have been the Nyasa Question with the Portuguese. But it was not, and therefore Portugal was equally free with Great Britain to make the best use of her opportunities, which she did. . . . [Sir Harry Johnston] happened to be one of the principal agents employed in bringing Nyasaland under British protection, and in extending that protection to the west and north as far as the shores of Tanganyika and the boundary of the Congo Free State. [See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.] As Mr. Cecil Rhodes' agents had added thereto the Protectorate of the Barotse kingdom, the term 'British Central Africa' seemed more fitting to describe this sphere in South-Central Africa than the restricted name of 'Nyasaland.' Treaties with Germany (1890) and Portugal (1891) having sanctioned these acquisitions north of the Zambesi, the administration of the new territory was divided between the Imperial Government—which decided to control the more organized territories round Lake Nyasa—and the newly-founded British South Africa Chartered Company. Between 1895 and 1898 the Chartered Company directed the administration and policing of its North Zambesia territories independently of the Protectorate; but in the summer of 1898 the Company placed its police force under the control of the officer commanding the troops in the British Central Africa Protectorate, and chose one of the Protectorate's officials to conduct its civil administration in the territories east of Barotse. . . . Numerous Arabs from Zanzibar had established themselves in Nyasaland as sultans, and had Muhammadanized certain tribes and infused into them a dislike to European domination. The countries west of Lake Nyasa were ravaged by tribes of more or less Zulu descent, the remains of former Zulu invasions of Central Zambesia. . . . These enemies were all subdued. . . . Mr. Rhodes began in 1893 his great scheme of connecting Cape Town with Cairo by a telegraph line. In five years he has at any rate connected Cape Town with Tanganyika through British Central Africa. These territories north of the Zambesi have proved peculiarly favourable to the cultivation of coffee, which was originally introduced by Scottish missionaries and planters, and which will probably end by making the fortune of this part of Africa, though these countries possess other valuable resources in vegetable products, in min-

erals, and in ivory."—H. H. Johnston, *History of the colonization of Africa by alien races*, pp. 180-183.—In 1923 the population of Nyasaland numbered 1,109,934 natives, divided into three tribes, the Anyanja, the Yao, and the Angoni: 1,486 Europeans, and 563 Asiatics.

See also WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: c, 3.

ALSO IN: J. S. Moore, *Tanganyika problem*.—

F. D. Luggard, *Rise of our Eastern empire*.—H. L. Duff, *Nyasaland under the foreign office*.—*South and East African Year Book and Guide*, 1923.—H. A. Gibbons, *New map of Africa*.

NYBORG, Battle of (1659). See BRANDENBURG: 1640-1688.

NYSTAD, Treaty of (1721). See SWEDEN: 1719-1721.

O

OAHU, island in the Hawaiian group. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Geographical description; Map of Hawaii.

OAJACA. See OAXACA.

OAK TREE, Worship of the. See DRUIDS.

OAKBOYS, political association of insurgents in Ulster, Ireland, which led an insurrection in 1764. See IRELAND: 1760-1798.

OATES, Titus (1649-1705), English conspirator. Chief informer of a fictitious Roman Catholic plot to murder Charles II, 1678. See ENGLAND: 1678-1679.

OATH, Ironclad. See IRONCLAD OATH.

OATH, Legal: According to religion. See COMMON LAW: 1739-1744.

OAXACA, or Oajaca, state in southern Mexico bordering on the Pacific ocean. See MEXICO: Map.

1812.—Captured from Spanish by Mexicans. See MEXICO: 1810-1819.

OBABU-SAN, Temple of, Japan. See TEMPLES: Ancient examples.

OBALDIA, José Domingo (1845-1910), president of Panama, 1908-1910. See PANAMA: 1908.

OBELISKS, Egyptian. See CLEOPATRA'S NEEDLES; EGYPT: B. C. 1700-1400.

OBERLANDGERICHT, German provincial court. See COURTS: Germany: Modern courts.

OBERLIN, Jean Frederic (1740-1826), Alsatian clergyman and philanthropist. Noted for his work in agriculture, industry and education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: France: Infant schools.

OBERLIN COLLEGE, Ohio. It was one of the first colleges to advance negro education by admitting them in 1834. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Negroes; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1832.

OBERNDORFF, Alfred von, Count (b. 1870), German representative at the signing of the Armistice. See WORLD WAR: 1918: XI. End of the war: a, 6.

OBERPFALZ, or Upper Palatinate, former district in northern Bavaria, Germany. See FRANCONIA.

OBER-SCHNELLENDORF, Convention of. See AUSTRIA: 1741 (October).

OBES, division of a Spartan tribe. See GEROUSIA; SPARTA: Constitution.

OBLETES.—"The Oblates, or Volunteers, established by St. Charles Borromeo in 1578, are a congregation of secular priests. . . . Their special aim was to give edification to the diocese, and to maintain the integrity of religion by the purity of their lives, by teaching, and by zealously discharging the duties committed to them by their bishop. These devoted ecclesiastics were much loved by St. Charles."—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 3, p. 456.

OBNUNTIATIO. See ELIAN AND FUFIAN LAWS.

OBOLLA, city in Persian province near the Euphrates river. In 633 it was captured by an

expedition sent by Caliph Abu Bekr against the Christian Arabs. See CALIPHATE: 632-651.

OBOLUS, Greek coin and measure of weight. See TALENT; GREECE: B. C. 4th century: Economic conditions.

OBREGÓN, Alvaro (1880-), president of Mexico since 1920. Took part in the Madero revolution, 1912; joined Carranza against Huerta, 1913; commander of the Constitutionalist Army of the West, 1914; supported Carranza against Villa, 1915; secretary of war, 1916; joined Huerta revolution, 1920. See MEXICO: 1914-1915; 1916-1917; 1920-1921; 1922; U. S. A.: 1916 (March).

OBRENOVITCH DYNASTY. See SERBIA: 1817; 1885-1903.

OBRY GEAR: Use in torpedoes. See TORPEDO: Development.

OBSERVATION RIDGE, in France, north of Arras. During the World War it was a scene of heavy fighting, especially in the battle of Arras, 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: c, 5.

OBSTETRICS: Advance in science. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: 19th century: Antiseptic surgery and obstetrics.

OCAÑA, Battle of. See SPAIN: 1809 (August-November).

OCCASIONAL CONFORMITY BILL (1711). See ENGLAND: 1711-1714.

OCCLEVE, Thomas (1370-1450), English poet and lawyer. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 14th century.

OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES: Accident insurance. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: France: 1919.

OCEAN, English warship. It was sunk at the Dardanelles. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a, 2.

OCEAN COMMERCE: Introduction of Yankee clipper.—Extent in 1900. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1770-1921; 1820-1920.

Tonnage: United States supply service.—Pershing's report. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: V. Moving men and material: a, 5.

Transport in World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services. V. Moving men and material: b.

OCEANIA: French colonies in. See FRANCE: Colonial empire.

OCEANIC DOMAIN: Ethnographical limits. See MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE.

OCEANIC MYTHOLOGY: Polynesia. See MYTHOLOGY: Polynesian mythology.

OCHA, Battle of (483). See IRELAND: 5th-9th centuries.

OCHAKOV, or Otchakov, port in Russia, on the Black sea, forty-one miles east of Odessa. In 1787 and 1788 it was the scene of fighting between Russia and Turkey. See TURKEY: 1776-1792.

OCHENTE SHAKOANS, North American Indian tribe. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

OCHLOCRACY.—This term was applied by the Greeks to an unlimited democracy, where

rights were made conditional on no gradations of property, and where "provisions were made, not so much that only a proved and worthy citizen should be elected, as that every one, without distinction, should be eligible for everything."—G. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state*, pt. 1, ch. 3.

OCHTERLONY, David (1758-1825), British general. Leader of campaigns in India during Nepal War, 1814-1816, and the Pindari War, 1817-1818. See INDIA: 1805-1816.

OCHUS. See ARTAXERXES III.

O'CONNELL, Daniel (1775-1847), Irish patriot and political agitator. See IRELAND: 1811-1829; 1840-1841; 1841-1848.

O'CONNOR, Feargus Edward (1794-1835), Irish lawyer and one of the leaders of the Chartist party. See ENGLAND: 1838-1842; 1848.

O'CONNOR, Roderick, or Rory (1116-1198), last king of Ireland, 1166-1198. Acknowledged supremacy of Henry II of England, 1175. See IRELAND: 1014-1169; 1169-1200.

O'CONNOR, Turlough, king of Connaught, 1151-1154. See IRELAND: 1014-1169.

OCTAETERIS, Greek period of eight years. See METON, YEAR OF.

OCTAVIA HILL ASSOCIATION. See BALTIMORE: 1917.

OCTAVIAN LIBRARY. See LIBRARIES: Ancient: Rome.

OCTAVIUS. See AUGUSTUS.

OCTOBER CLUB. See CLUBS: October and March.

OCTOBRISTS, Russian political party. See RUSSIA: 1905-1906.

OCTUPE AGREEMENT OF RAILWAYS. See RAILROADS: 1750-1881.

ODAL. See ADEL.

ODD FELLOWS, secret, benevolent and social society which arose in England during the eighteenth century. It now has lodges in various countries and is known by the full name of The Independent Order of Odd Fellows.

ODDI, Italian family. They carried on wars with the Baglioni in Perugia during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. See BAGLIONI.

ODELSRET.—By exercising the right of Odelsret the Norwegian peasants, when forced to sell their land, can prevent its acquisition by the purchaser by declaring to the authorities every ten years their intention of buying it back. See NORWAY, CONSTITUTION OF: Title IV: Art. 16: footnote.

ODELSTHING, lower house of the Norwegian legislature or Storting. See NORWAY, CONSTITUTION OF: Title III.

ODENATHUS (died c. 271), Roman general and ruler of Palmyra. See PALMYRA: Rise and fall; ROME: Empire: 192-284.

ODER, river in northeastern Germany. It rises in northern Moravia and flows into the Baltic sea. 1919.—Provisions regarding navigation of river in Treaty of Versailles. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part XII: Section II: Chapter III.

ODESSA, city and port on the Black sea, Russia. It is the chief city for exports and has an excellent harbor which is open nearly all year. In 1912 the population numbered 631,040. In early days it was colonized consecutively by Greeks, Lithuanians, Poles and Turks. The Russians captured it in 1789. In 1905-1906 it was the scene of fierce revolutionary and anti-Semitic fighting. During the World War it was bombarded by the Austrians, Turks and Germans and was taken by the Allies. See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states; 1905 (April-November); 1918-1920; TURKEY: 1914: Turkey at outbreak of World War.

ODEUM AT ATHENS.—"Pericles built, at the south-eastern base of the citadel, the Odeum, which differed from the neighbouring theatre in this, that the former was a covered space, in which musical performances took place before a less numerous public. The roof, shaped like a tent, was accounted an imitation of the gorgeous tent pitched of old by Xerxes upon the soil of Attica."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 3, ch. 3.

ODIN, principal god of Northern mythology. He was represented as the king of the gods of Valhalla, excelling in wisdom and giving victory in war. Other forms of his name are Woden and Wotan. See MYTHOLOGY: Scandinavian.

ODOACER, or Odovacar (c. 434-493), Roman emperor (Western), 476-493. See ROME: Empire: 455-476; Medieval city: 488-526.

O'DONNELL, ancient and powerful Irish family, lords of Tyrconnell, who held most of what is now Donegal. They were the chief rivals of the O'Neills of Ulster. See ULSTER: 1540-1567.

O'DONNELL, Godfrey, Lord of Tyrconnell (d. 1241), first important chieftain of the O'Donnell family. See ULSTER: 1190-1260.

O'DONNELL, Leopold (1809-1867), Spanish general and statesman, descendant of O'Donnell family of Ulster. See SPAIN: 1854-1868.

ODYSSEY, epic relating the adventures of the Greek hero, Odysseus. See HOMER AND THE HOMERIC POEMS; GREEK LITERATURE: Period of the epic; HISTORY: 13.

OEÄ, ancient town on the site of modern Tripoli, Africa. See LEPTIS MAGNA.

ECUMENICAL, or ECUMENICAL, COUNCIL, general or universal council of the entire Christian church. Twenty such councils are recognized by the Roman Catholic church. See COUNCILS OF THE CHURCH; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN; PACIFY: Supremacy of the Roman See; 1869-1870; RUSSIA: 1917 (August).

ÆDIPUS, Theban legendary hero, son of Laius, king of Thebes and Jocasta, whose tragic story is told by Sophocles in his drama "Ædipus Tyrannus."—See also ATHENS: B.C. 461-431: Development of Greek drama.

OEHLENSCHLÄGER, Adam Gottlob, (1779-1850), Danish poet and dramatist. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1750-1850.

ÆKIST, chief founder of a Greek colonial city.

OE LAND, Battles of (1675, 1713). See SWEDEN: 1644-1697; 1707-1718.

ÆNOE, Battle of, a battle of some importance in the Corinthian War, fought about 388 B.C. in the valley of the Charander, on the road from Argos to Mantinea. The Lacedæmonians were defeated by the Argives and Athenians.—Based on E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 5, ch. 4.

OENOPHYTA, Battle of (456 B.C.). See ATHENS: B.C. 457-456; GREECE: B.C. 458-456.

ENOTRIANS.—"The territory [in Italy] known to Greek writers of the fifth century B.C. by the names of Enotria on the coast of the Mediterranean, and Italia on that of the Gulfs of Tarentum and Squillace, included all that lies south of a line drawn across the breadth of the country, from the Gulf of Poseidonia (Paestum) and the river Silarus on the Mediterranean Sea, to the north-west corner of the Gulf of Tarentum. It was bounded northwards by the Iapygians and Messapians, who occupied the Salentine peninsula and the country immediately adjoining to Tarentum, and by the Peuketians on the Ionic Gulf. . . . This Enotrian or Pelasgian race were the population whom the Greek colonists found there on their arrival. They were known apparently under other names, such as the Sikels [Sicels], (mentioned even

in the Odyssey, though their exact locality in that poem cannot be ascertained) the Italians, or Itali, properly so called—the Morgetes,—and the Chaones,—all of them names of tribes either cognate or subdivisional. The Chaones or Chaonians are also found, not only in Italy, but in Epirus, as one of the most considerable of the Epirotic tribes.”—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 22.

OERSTED, Hans Christian. See **ORSTED**.

OESSEL, or **Ösel**, island in the Baltic belonging to Esthonia. In 1917 it was occupied by the Germans in their Baltic campaign against Russia. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: i, 1; o.

1917.—Represented in Courland National Assembly. See **BALTIC PROVINCES**: 1917-1918.

OEVERSEE, Battle of (1848). See **GERMANY**: 1848 (March-September).

OFEN, German name for Buda. See **BUDA**.

Sieges and capture of. See **HUNGARY**: 1638-1699.

OFFA'S DYKE, earthen rampart which King Offa, of Mercia, in the eighth century, built from the mouth of the Wye to the mouth of the Tee, to divide his kingdom from Wales and protect it from Welsh incursions. A few remains of it are still to be seen.—Based on J. Rhys, *Celtic Britain*.

OFFENBACH, Jacques (1819-1880), French composer of *opéra bouffe*. Studied at the Paris conservatory under Vaislin, 1833; became musical director of the Théâtre Français, 1848; director of Bouffes-Parisiens, 1855-1866; his best known work, “Les Contes d'Hoffman” was produced after his death in 1881.

OFFICERS' RESERVE ' CORPS, United States. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: i, 2.

OFNET, grotto near Nordlingen in Bavaria, Germany. It contains remains of the prehistoric period. See **EUROPE**: Prehistoric: Neolithic period.

OG, Amorite king of Bashan. Defeated by the Hebrews on their entrance into Canaan. See **JEWS**: Israel under the Judges.

OGADEN SOMALIS, Rise of. See **BRITISH EAST AFRICA**: 1900-1901.

OGALALAS, North American Indian tribe. See **SIOUAN FAMILY**.

OGAM. See **OGHAM INSCRIPTIONS**.

OGARIOV, Nicholas Platonovich (1813-1877), Russian poet. See **RUSSIAN LITERATURE**: 1855-1889.

OGDAI, Okkodaï, or Oktai (d. 1241), ruler of Mongolia 1229-1241. Succeeded his father, Jhengis Khan. See **MONGOLIA**: 1153-1227; 1229-1294.

OGDEN TRACT. See **NEW YORK**: 1786-1799.

OGHAM INSCRIPTIONS.—“In the south and south-western counties of Ireland are to be found, in considerable numbers, a class of inscribed monuments, to which the attention of Irish archaeologists has been from time to time directed, but with comparatively little result. . . . They [the inscriptions] are found engraved on pillar stones in that archaic character known to Irish philologists as the Ogham, properly pronounced Oum, and in an ancient dialect of the Gaedhelic (Gaelic). These monuments are almost exclusively found in the counties of Kerry, Cork, and Waterford, numbering, as far as I have been able to ascertain, 147; the rest of Ireland supplies 13. . . . Again it is worthy of remark, that while 29 Irish counties cannot boast of an Ogham monument, they have been found in England, Wales, and Scotland. In Devonshire, at Fardel, a stone has been discovered bearing not only a fine and well-preserved Ogham inscription, but also one in Romano-British letters.” It is now deposited in the British Museum. . . . The Ogham letters, as found on Megalithic monuments, are

formed by certain combinations of a simple short line, placed in reference to one continuous line, called the fleasg, or stem line; these combinations range from one to five, and their values depend upon their being placed above, across, or below the stem line; there are five consonants above, five consonants below, and five consonants across the line, two of which, NG and ST are double, and scarcely ever used. The vowels are represented by oval dots, or very short lines across the stem line. . . . The characters in general use on the monuments are 18 in number. . . . It may be expected from me that I should offer some conjecture as to the probable age of this mode of writing. This, I honestly acknowledge, I am unable to do, even approximately.”—R. R. Brash, *Transactions International Congress of Prehistoric Archaeology*, 1868. —“The Ogam alphabet is of a double origin, forming a sort of compromise between the East and the West. The characters used, if considered merely as writing and without reference to their meaning, are European and traceable to the quaternary period: the same may probably be said of the direction of the writing from left to right. The order of the letters, on the other hand, and some of their names, admit of being traced to a Phœnician origin. The Celts appear to have got their Ogams from the Teutons, who seem to have used an alphabet of that description before they adopted the characters of the Roman alphabet.”—J. Rhys, *Lectures on Welsh philology*, p. 346.—See also **IRELAND**: Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants.

ALSO IN: R. R. Brash, *Ogam inscribed monuments*.—R. A. S. Macalister, *Studies in Irish epigraphy*.

OGLETHORPE, James Edward (1696-1785), English general and philanthropist. Sponsored plan for permitting debtors and persecuted Protestants to settle in Georgia; founded settlement at Savannah, 1733; returned to England, 1734. See **GEORGIA**: 1732-1739; 1738-1743; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

OGORS. See **AVARS**.

OGULIAN LAW. See **ROME**: Republic: B.C. 300.

OGYGIA, name given by Plutarch to Ireland; also given by Homer to that legendary island where Calypso detained Ulysses. See **IRELAND**: Geographic description.

OHASHI LIBRARY. See **LIBRARIES**: Modern: Japan.

O'HIGGINS, Ambrosio, Marquis of Osorno (c. 1730-1801), Spanish administrator and general of Irish birth. Made general, 1778; viceroy of Peru, 1796-1801. See **CHILE**: 1810-1818; **PERU** 1550-1816.

OHIO: Geography.—Area.—Population.—Ohio is an east north central state, bounded by Michigan and Lake Erie on the north, Pennsylvania and West Virginia on the east, West Virginia and Kentucky on the south, and Indiana on the west. It is the thirty-fifth state in size, with an area of 41,040 square miles, and the fourth in population, which in 1920 was 5,759,394.

Resources.—Manufacturing, mining and oil are the principal industries. Cleveland leads the world in the reduction of iron and steel ore and in the manufacture of machinery. Akron is the world's rubber center. Only four states exceed Ohio in agricultural wealth. It was fourth in the production of hay and tobacco, fifth in the production of corn and oats, and sixth in wheat. Ohio has fifteen universities and a public school enrolment of more than 1,000,000. Politically it is regarded as a pivotal state. See U.S.A.: Economic map.

Name.—“The words Ohio, Ontario, and Onontio (or Yonnondio)—which should properly be pro-

nounced as if written 'Oheeyo,' 'Ontareeyo,' and 'Ononteeeyo'—are commonly rendered 'Beautiful River,' 'Beautiful Lake,' 'Beautiful Mountain.' This, doubtless, is the meaning which each of the words conveys to an Iroquois of the present day, unless he belongs to the Tuscarora tribe. But there can be no doubt that the termination 'io' (otherwise written 'iyo,' 'iio,' 'eeyo,' etc.) had originally the sense, not of 'beautiful,' but of 'great.' . . . Ontario is derived from the Huron 'yontare,' or 'ontare,' lake (Iroquois, 'oniatare'), with this termination. . . . Ohio, in like manner, is derived, as M. Cuq in the valuable notes to his *Lexicon* (p. 159) informs us, from the obsolete 'ohia,' river, now only used in the compound from 'ohionha.'"
—H. Hale, *Iroquois book of rites, appendix, note B.*

(Valley): Description.—"The Ohio valley is made up of the province of the Allegheny Plateaus and the southern portion of the Prairie Plains. In it are found rich mineral deposits which are changing the life of the section and of the nation. . . . The unity of the section and its place in history were determined by the 'beautiful river,' as the French explorers called it—the Ohio, which pours its flood for over a thousand miles, a great highway to the West; an historic artery of commerce, a wedge of advance between powerful Indian confederacies, and rival European nations, to the Mississippi Valley; a home for six mighty States, now in the heart of the nation, rich in material wealth, richer in the history of American democracy; a society that holds a place midway between the industrial sections of the seaboard and the plains and prairies of the agricultural West; between the society that formed later along the levels about the Great Lakes, and the society that arose in the Lower South on the plains of the Gulf of Mexico. The Alleghenies bound it on the east, the Mississippi on the west. At the forks of the great river lies Pittsburgh, the historic gateway to the West, the present symbol and embodiment of the age of steel, the type of modern industrialism. Near its western border is St. Louis, looking toward the Prairies, the Great Plains and the Rocky Mountains, the land into which the tide of modern colonization turns. Between these old cities, for whose sites European nations contended, stand the cities whose growth preëminently represents the Ohio valley; Cincinnati, the historic queen of the river; Louisville, the warder of the falls; the cities of the 'Old National Road,' Columbus, Indianapolis; the cities of the Blue Grass lands, which made Kentucky the goal of the pioneers; and the cities of that young commonwealth, which the Ohio river by force of its attraction tore away from an uncongenial control of the Old Dominion, and joined to the social section where it belonged. The Ohio Valley is, therefore, not only a commercial highway, it is a middle kingdom between the East and the West, between the northern area, which was occupied by a greater New England and emigrants from northern Europe, and the southern area of the 'Cotton Kingdom.' As Pennsylvania and New York constituted the Middle Region in our earlier history, between New England and the seaboard South, so the Ohio Valley became the Middle Region of a later time. In its position as a highway and a Middle Region are found the keys to its place in American history. . . . The Ohio river played an important part in the movements of the earlier men in America, and . . . the mounds of the valley indicate a special type of development intermediate between that of the northern hunter folk, and the pueblo building races of the south."—F. J. Turner, *Frontier in American history*, pp. 160-162.

(Valley): Aboriginal inhabitants. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; ALLEGHANS; CHEROKEES; DELAWARES; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Iroquoian family; Their conquests and wide dominion; SHAWANESE.
(Valley): 1700-1725.—Beginnings of French occupation. See CANADA: 1700-1735.

(Valley): 1748-1754.—First movements of struggle of French and English for possession.—"The close of King George's War was marked by an extraordinary development of interest in the Western country. The Pennsylvanians and Virginians had worked their way well up to the eastern foot-hills of the last range of mountains separating them from the interior. Even the Connecticut men were ready to overleap the province of New York and take possession of the Susquehanna. The time for the English colonists to attempt the Great Mountains in force had been long in coming, but it had plainly arrived. In 1748 the Ingles-Draper settlement, the first regular settlement of English-speaking men on the Western waters, was made at 'Draper's Meadow,' on the New River, a branch of the Kanawha. The same year Dr. Thomas Walker, accompanied by a number of Virginia gentlemen and a party of hunters, made their way by Southwestern Virginia into Kentucky and Tennessee. . . . The same year the Ohio company, consisting of thirteen prominent Virginians and Marylanders, and one London merchant, was formed. Its avowed objects were to speculate in Western lands, and to carry on trade on an extensive scale with the Indians. It does not appear to have contemplated the settlement of a new colony. The company obtained from the crown a conditional grant of 500,000 acres of land in the Ohio Valley, to be located mainly between the Monongahela and Kanawha Rivers, and it ordered large shipments of goods for the Indian trade from London. . . . In 1750 the company sent Christopher Gist, a veteran woodsman and trader living on the Yadkin, down the northern side of the Ohio, with instructions, as Mr. Bancroft summarizes them, 'to examine the Western country as far as the Falls of the Ohio; to look for a large tract of good level land; to mark the passes in the mountains; to trace the courses of the rivers; to count the falls; to observe the strength of the Indian nations.' Under these instructions, Gist made the first English exploration of Southern Ohio of which we have any report. The next year he made a similar exploration of the country south of the Ohio, as far as the Great Kanawha. . . . Gist's reports of his explorations added to the growing interest in the overmountain country. At that time the Ohio Valley was waste and unoccupied, save by the savages, but adventurous traders, mostly Scotch-Irish, and commonly men of reckless character and loose morals, made trading excursions as far as the River Miami. The Indian town of Pickawillany, on the upper waters of that stream, became a great centre of English trade and influence. Another evidence of the growing interest in the West is the fact that the colonial authorities, in every direction, were seeking to obtain Indian titles to the Western lands, and to bind the Indians to the English by treaties. The Iroquois had long claimed, by right of conquest, the country from the Cumberland Mountains to the Lower Lakes and the Mississippi, and for many years the authorities of New York had been steadily seeking to gain a firm treaty-hold of that country. In 1684, the Iroquois at Albany, placed themselves under the protection of King Charles and the Duke of York [see NEW YORK: 1684]; in 1726, they conveyed all their lands in trust to England [see NEW YORK: 1726], to be protected and defended by his Majesty to and for the use of

the grantors and their heirs, which was an acknowledgment by the Indians of what the French had acknowledged thirteen years before at Utrecht. In 1744, the very year that King George's War began, the deputies of the Iroquois at Lancaster, Pa., confirmed to Maryland the lands within that province, and made to Virginia a deed that covered the whole West as effectually as the Virginian interpretation of the charter of 1609 [see VIRGINIA: 1744]. . . . This treaty is of the greatest importance in subsequent history; it is the starting-point of later negotiations with the Indians concerning Western lands. It gave the English their first real treaty-hold upon the West; and it stands in all the statements of the English claim to the Western country, side by side with the Cabot voyages. . . . There was, indeed, no small amount of dissension among the colonies, and it must not be supposed that they were all working together to effect a common purpose. The royal governors could not agree. There were bitter dissensions between governors and assemblies. Colony was jealous of colony. . . . Fortunately, the cause of England and the colonies was not abandoned to politicians. The time had come for the Anglo-Saxon column, that had been so long in reaching them, to pass the Endless Mountain; and the logic of events swept everything into the Westward current. In the years following the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle the French were not idle. Galissonière, the governor of Canada, thoroughly comprehended what was at stake. In 1749 he sent Céloron de Bienville into the Ohio Valley, with a suitable escort of whites and savages, to take formal possession of the valley in the name of the King of France, to propitiate the Indians, and in all ways short of actual warfare to thwart the English plans. Bienville crossed the portage from Lake Erie to Lake Chautauqua, the easternmost of the portages from the Lakes to the southern streams ever used by the French, and made his way by the Alleghany River and the Ohio as far as the Miami, and returned by the Maumee and Lake Erie to Montreal. His report to the governor was anything but reassuring. He found the English traders swarming in the valley, and the Indians generally well disposed to the English. Nor did French interests improve the two or three succeeding years. The Marquis Duquesne, who succeeded Galissonière, soon discovered the drift of events. He saw the necessity of action; he was clothed with power to act, and he was a man of action. And so, early in the year 1753, while the English governors and assemblies were still hesitating and disputing, he sent a strong force by Lake Ontario and Niagara to seize and hold the northeastern branches of the Ohio. This was a master stroke: unless recalled, it would lead to war; and Duquesne was not the man to recall it. This force, passing over the portage between Presque Isle and French Creek, constructed Forts Le Bœuf and Venango, the second at the confluence of French Creek and the Alleghany River." —B. A. Hinsdale, *Old Northwest*, ch. 5.—See also CANADA: 1750-1753; U.S.A.: 1748-1754.

ALSO IN: J. H. Perkins, *Annals of the West*, ch. 2.—B. Fernow, *Ohio valley in colonial days*, ch. 5.—O. H. Marshall, *De Celoron's expedition to the Ohio in 1749* (*History writings*, pp. 237-274).—N. B. Craig, *Olden time*, v. 1, pp. 1-10.

(Valley): 1754.—Opening battle.—Washington's first campaign.—The planting of the French at Forts Le Bœuf and Venango "put them during high water in easy communication by boat with the Alleghany River. French tact conciliated the Indians, and where that failed arrogance was sufficient, and the expedition would have pushed on

to found new forts, but sickness weakened the men, and Marin, the commander, now dying, saw it was all he could do to hold the two forts, while he sent the rest of his force back to Montreal to recuperate. Late in the autumn Legardeur de Saint-Pierre arrived at Le Bœuf, as the successor of Marin. He had not been long there when on the 11th of December [1753] a messenger from Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, with a small escort, presented himself at the fort. The guide of the party was Christopher Gist; the messenger was George Washington, then adjutant-general of the Virginia militia. Their business was to inform the French commander that he was building forts on English territory, and that he would do well to depart peaceably. . . . At Le Bœuf Washington tarried three days, during which Saint-Pierre framed his reply, which was in effect that he must hold his post, while Dinwiddie's letter was sent to the French commander at Quebec. It was the middle of February, 1754, when Washington reached Williamsburg on his return, and made his report to Dinwiddie. The result was that Dinwiddie drafted 200 men from the Virginia militia, and despatched them under Washington to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio. The Virginia assembly, forgetting for the moment its quarrel with the governor, voted £10,000 to be expended, but only under the direction of a committee of its own. Dinwiddie found difficulty in getting the other colonies to assist, and the Quaker element in Pennsylvania prevented that colony from being the immediate helper which it might, from its position, have become. Meanwhile some backwoodsmen had been pushed over the mountains and had set to work on a fort at the forks. A much larger French force under Contrecoeur soon summoned them, and the English retired. The French immediately began the erection of Fort Duquesne [on the site now covered by the city of Pittsburgh]. While this was doing, Dinwiddie was toiling with tardy assemblies and their agents to organize a regiment to support the backwoodsmen. Joshua Fry was to be its colonel, with Washington as second in command. The latter, with a portion of the men, had already pushed forward to Will's Creek, the present Cumberland. Later he advanced with 150 men to Great Meadows, where he learned that the French, who had been reinforced, had sent out a party from their new fort, marching towards him. Again he got word from an Indian—who, from his tributary character towards the Iroquois, was called Half-King, and who had been Washington's companion on his trip to Le Bœuf—that this chieftain with some followers had tracked two men to a dark glen, where he believed the French party were lurking. Washington started with forty men to join Half-King, and under his guidance they approached the glen and found the French. Shots were exchanged. The French leader, Jumonville, was killed, and all but one of his followers were taken or slain. The mission of Jumonville was to scour for English, by order of Contrecoeur, now in command of Duquesne, and to bear a summons to any he could find, warning them to retire from French territory. The precipitancy of Washington's attack gave the French the chance to impute to Washington the crime of assassination; but it seems to have been a pretence on the part of the French to cover a purpose which Jumonville had of summoning aid from Duquesne, while his concealment was intended to shield him till its arrival. Rash or otherwise, this onset of the youthful Washington began the war. The English returned to Great Meadows, and while waiting for reinforcements from Fry, Washington threw up some en-

trenchments, which he called Fort Necessity. The men from Fry came without their leader, who had sickened and died, and Washington, succeeding to the command of the regiment, found himself at the head of 300 men, increased soon by an independent company from South Carolina. Washington again advanced toward Gist's settlement, when, fearing an attack, he sent back for Mackay, whom he had left with a company of regulars at Fort Necessity. Rumors thickening of an advance of the French, the English leader again fell back to Great Meadows, resolved to fight there. It was now the first of July, 1754. Coulon de Villiers, a brother of Jumonville, was now advancing from Duquesne. The attack was made on a rainy day, and for much of the time a thick mist hung between the combatants. After dark a parley resulted in Washington's accepting terms offered by the French, and the English marched out with the honors of war. The young Virginian now led his weary followers back to Will's Creek. . . . Thus they turned their backs upon the great valley, in which not an English flag now waved."—J. Winsor, *Struggle for the great valleys of North America* (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 5, ch. 8).

ALSO IN: W. Irving, *Life of Washington*, v. 1, ch. 7-12.—H. C. Lodge, *George Washington*, v. 1, ch. 3.—N. B. Craig, *Olden time*, v. 1, pp. 10-62.

(Valley): 1755.—Braddock's defeat.—French possess the West and devastate English frontiers.—"Now the English Government awoke to the necessity of vigorous measures to rescue the endangered Valley of the Ohio. A campaign was planned which was to expel the French from Ohio, and wrest from them some portions of their Canadian territory. The execution of this great design was intrusted to General Braddock, with a force which it was deemed would overbear all resistance. Braddock was a veteran who had seen the wars of forty years. . . . He was a brave and experienced soldier, and a likely man, it was thought, to do the work assigned to him. But that proved a sad miscalculation. Braddock had learned the rules of war; but he had no capacity to comprehend its principles. In the pathless forests of America he could do nothing better than strive to give literal effect to those maxims which he had found applicable in the well-trodden battlegrounds of Europe. The failure of Washington in his first campaign had not deprived him of public confidence. Braddock heard such accounts of his efficiency that he invited him to join his staff. Washington, eager to efface the memory of his defeat, gladly accepted the offer. The troops disembarked at Alexandria. . . . After some delay, the army, with such reinforcements as the province afforded, began its march. Braddock's object was to reach Fort Duquesne, the great centre of French influence on the Ohio. . . . Fort Duquesne had been built [or begun] by the English, and taken from them by the French. It stood at the confluence of the Alleghany and Monongahela; which rivers, by their union at this point, form the Ohio. It was a rude piece of fortification, but the circumstances admitted of no better. . . . Braddock had no doubt that the fort would yield to him directly he showed himself before it. Benjamin Franklin looked at the project with his shrewd, cynical eye. He told Braddock that he would assuredly take the fort if he could only reach it; but that the long slender line which his army must form in its march 'would be cut like thread into several pieces' by the hostile Indians. Braddock 'smiled at his ignorance.' Benjamin offered no further opinion. It was his duty to collect horses and carriages for the use of the expedition, and he did what was required of him

in silence. The expedition crept slowly forward, never achieving more than three or four miles in a day; stopping, as Washington said, 'to level every mole-hill, to erect a bridge over every brook.' It left Alexandria on the 20th April. On the 9th July Braddock, with half his army, was near the fort. There was yet no evidence that resistance was intended. No enemy had been seen; the troops marched on as to assured victory. So confident was their chief that he refused to employ scouts, and did not deign to inquire what enemy might be lurking near. The march was along a road twelve feet wide, in a ravine, with high ground in front and on both sides. Suddenly the Indian war-whoop burst from the woods. A murderous fire smote down the troops. The provincials, not unused to this description of warfare, sheltered themselves behind trees and fought with steady courage. Braddock, clinging to his old rules, strove to maintain his order of battle on the open ground. A carnage, most grim and lamentable, was the result. His undefended soldiers were shot down by an unseen foe. For three hours the struggle lasted; then the men broke and fled in utter rout and panic. Braddock, vainly fighting, fell mortally wounded, and was carried off the field by some of his soldiers. The poor pedantic man never got over his astonishment at a defeat so inconsistent with the established rules of war. 'Who would have thought it?' he murmured, as they bore him from the field. He scarcely spoke again, and died in two or three days. Nearly 800 men, killed and wounded, were lost in this disastrous encounter—about one-half of the entire force engaged. All the while England and France were nominally at peace. But now war was declared."—R. Mackenzie, *America: A history*, bk. 2, ch. 3.—"The news of the defeat caused a great revulsion of feeling. The highest hopes had been built on Braddock's expedition. . . . From this height of expectation men were suddenly plunged into the yawning gulf of gloom and alarm. The whole frontier lay exposed to the hatchet and the torch of the remorseless red man. . . . The apprehensions of the border settlers were soon fully justified. Dumas, who shortly succeeded de Contrecoeur in the command at Fort Duquesne, set vigorously to work to put the Indians on the war-path against the defenceless settlements. 'M. de Contrecoeur had not been gone a week,' he writes, 'before I had six or seven different war parties in the field at once, always accompanied by Frenchmen. Thus far, we have lost only two officers and a few soldiers; but the Indian villages are full of prisoners of every age and sex. The enemy has lost far more since the battle than on the day of his defeat.' All along the frontier the murderous work went on."—T. J. Chapman, *French in the Allegheny valley*, pp. 71-73.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*, v. 1, ch. 7, 10.—W. Sargent, *History of Braddock's expedition* (Pennsylvania Historical Society Memoirs, v. 5).—N. B. Craig, *Olden time*, v. 1, pp. 64-133.

(Valley): 1758.—Retirement of French.—Abandonment of Fort Duquesne. See CANADA: 1758.

(Valley): 1763.—Relinquishment to Great Britain by Treaty of Paris. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties.

(Valley): 1763.—King's proclamation excluding settlers. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1763.

(Valley): 1763-1764.—Pontiac's War. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

(Valley): 1765-1768.—Indian treaties of German Flats and Fort Stanwix.—Pretended cession of lands south of the Ohio.—Walpole Com-

pany and its proposed Vandalia settlement. See U.S.A.: 1765-1768.

(Valley): 1768-1778.—Boundary disputes.—Early civil government.—“The boundary controversy between Pennsylvania and Virginia, which had been discussed by Dinwiddie and Hamilton before the Braddock Campaign, became acute again after 1768; Virginia claiming that the western line of Pennsylvania was east of the Forks of Ohio, and that Fort Pitt was within the chartered limits of Virginia. . . . [In the beginning of 1774 the boundary troubles broke out in violent form on the western border.] There was a brief lull in the . . . strife during the progress of Dunmore's campaign against the Shawnees in the Summer and Fall of 1774; but after the battle of Point Pleasant and the defeat of the Shawnees in October, it broke out afresh. . . . On December 6, 1774, Lord Dunmore had issued a new commission appointing magistrates for the county of West Augusta, including the district around Pittsburgh, and on the 21st of the following February a number of the new justices west of the mountains met at Fort Dunmore [Fort Pitt] and held their first Court. . . . These records, for Augusta County, extend from February 21, 1775, to November 20, 1776; and for Yohogania County, from December 23, 1776, to August 28, 1780. They are practically the only records of the civil government of the country around the Forks of Ohio during most of this time; as the jurisdiction of Westmoreland County, Pennsylvania, which nominally covered all of Southwestern Pennsylvania, did not actually, at that period, extend much farther west and south than the present limits of the county; although three or four of the Westmoreland justices continued to reside in Pittsburgh. On May 16, 1775, less than a month after the actions at Lexington and Concord, a ‘Meeting of the Inhabitants of that part of Augusta County which lies on the west side of the Laurel Hill’ was held at Pittsburgh, and a Committee of Safety for the District was chosen. Of this Committee, George Croghan was Chairman, and the other justices of Augusta County, with some of the justices of Westmoreland County, and other leading citizens, were members. The Committee adopted a set of resolutions, approving the spirited behavior of their brethren in New England in ‘opposing the invaders of American rights and privileges to the utmost extreme,’ and resolving that the recommendation of the Richmond Convention of March 20th, ‘relative to the embodying, arming, and disciplining of the militia, be immediately carried into execution.’ Similar resolutions were adopted at Hannastown. . . . In July, 1775, the Continental Congress created three Indian Departments, of which the one west of the Alleghany Mountains was called the ‘Middle Department.’ . . . On the 4th of July, 1776, the Virginia Convention of Delegates appointed sixteen Commissioners, ‘to take and collect evidence in behalf of Virginia against persons pretending to have claims for lands within the territory thereof, under deeds and purchases from the Indians. . . . On June 15, 1778, the Supreme Executive Council of the new State of Pennsylvania met at Lancaster and issued a Proclamation, naming some two hundred persons in the State, who ‘have severally adhered to and knowingly and willingly assisted the enemies of the State, and of the United States of America, by having joined their armies at Philadelphia’; and declaring that under the authority given the Council by the Assembly, for the ‘attainder of divers traitors if they render not themselves by a certain day,’ they ‘hereby strictly charge’ the parties named, that, ‘not rendering himself as aforesaid and abiding the trial

aforesaid, shall, from and after the first day of August, stand and be attainted of High Treason.’”

—C. A. Hanna, *Wilderness trail*, v. 2, pp. 66, 76-78, 80-81, 82.

(Valley): 1772-1782.—Moravian settlement and mission on Muskingum. See MORAVIAN, OR BOHEMIAN, BRETHREN: Saxony and America.

(Valley): 1774.—Lord Dunmore's War with Indians.—Territorial claims of Virginia.—Wrongs of Logan and his famous speech.—“On the eve of the Revolution, in 1774, the frontiersmen had planted themselves firmly among the Alleghanies. Directly west of them lay the untenanted wilderness, traversed only by the war parties of the red men, and the hunting parties of both reds and whites. No settlers had yet penetrated it, and until they did so there could be within its borders no chance of race warfare. . . . But in the southwest and the northwest alike, the area of settlement already touched the home lands of the tribes. . . . It was in the northwest that the danger of collision was most imminent; for there the whites and Indians had wronged one another for a generation, and their interests were, at the time, clashing more directly than ever. Much the greater part of the western frontier was held or claimed by Virginia, whose royal governor was, at the time, Lord Dunmore. . . . The short but fierce and eventful struggle that now broke out was fought wholly by Virginians, and was generally known by the name of Lord Dunmore's war. Virginia, under her charter, claimed that her boundaries ran across to the South Seas to the Pacific Ocean. The king of Britain had graciously granted her the right to take so much of the continent as lay within these lines, provided she could win it from the Indians, French, and Spaniards. . . . A number of grants had been made with the like large liberality, and it was found that they sometimes conflicted with one another. The consequence was that while the boundaries were well marked near the coast, where they separated Virginia from the long-settled regions of Maryland and North Carolina, they became exceedingly vague and indefinite the moment they touched the mountains. Even at the south this produced confusion, . . . but at the north the effect was still more confusing, and nearly resulted in bringing about an inter-colonial war between Pennsylvania and Virginia. The Virginians claimed all of extreme western Pennsylvania, especially Fort Pitt and the valley of the Monongahela, and, in 1774, proceeded boldly to exercise jurisdiction therein. Indeed a strong party among the settlers favored the Virginian claim. . . . The interests of the Virginians and Pennsylvanians not only conflicted in respect to the ownership of the land, but also in respect to the policy to be pursued regarding the Indians. The former were armed colonists, whose interest it was to get actual possession of the soil; whereas in Pennsylvania the Indian trade was very important and lucrative. . . . The interests of the white trader from Pennsylvania and of the white settler from Virginia were so far from being identical that they were usually diametrically opposite. The northwestern Indians had been nominally at peace with the whites for ten years, since the close of Bouquet's campaign. . . . Each of the ten years of nominal peace saw plenty of bloodshed. Recently they had been seriously alarmed by the tendency of the whites to encroach on the great hunting-grounds south of the Ohio. . . . The cession by the Iroquois of the same hunting-grounds, at the treaty of Fort Stanwix [see U.S.A.: 1765-1768], while it gave the whites a colorable title, merely angered the northwestern Indians. Half a century earlier they

would hardly have dared dispute the power of the Six Nations to do what they chose with any land that could be reached by their war parties; but in 1774 they felt quite able to hold their own against their old oppressors. . . . The savages grew continually more hostile, and in the fall of 1773 their attacks became so frequent that it was evident a general outbreak was at hand. . . . The Shawnees were the leaders in all these outrages; but the outlaw bands, such as the Mingos and Cherokees, were as bad, and parties of Wyandots and Delawares, as well as of the various Miami and Wabash tribes, joined them. Thus the spring of 1774 opened with everything ripe for an explosion. . . . The borderers were anxious for a war; and Lord Dunmore was not inclined to baulk them. . . . Unfortunately the first stroke fell on friendly Indians." Dunmore's agent or lieutenant in the country, one Dr. Conolly, issued an open letter in April which was received by the backwoodsmen as a declaration and authorization of war. One band of these, led by a Maryland borderer, Michael Cresap, proceeded to hostilities at once by ambushing and shooting down some friendly Shawnees who were engaged in trade. This same party then set out to attack the camp of the famous chief Logan, whose family and followers were then dwelling at Yellow Creek, some 50 miles away. Logan was "an Iroquois warrior, who lived at that time away from the bulk of his people, but who was a man of note . . . among the outlying parties of Senecas and Mingos, and the fragments of broken tribes that dwelt along the upper Ohio. . . . He was greatly liked and respected by all the white hunters and frontiersmen whose friendship and respect were worth having; they admired him for his dexterity and prowess, and they loved him for his straightforward honesty, and his noble loyalty to his friends." Cresap's party, after going some miles toward Logan's camp, "began to feel ashamed of their mission; calling a halt, they discussed the fact that the camp they were preparing to attack consisted exclusively of friendly Indians, and mainly of women and children; and forthwith abandoned their proposed trip and returned home. . . . But Logan's people did not profit by Cresap's change of heart. On the last day of April a small party of men, women, and children, including almost all of Logan's kin, left his camp and crossed the river to visit Greathouse [another borderer, of a more brutal type], as had been their custom; for he made a trade of selling rum to the savages, though Cresap had notified him to stop. The whole party were plied with liquor, and became helplessly drunk, in which condition Greathouse and his associated criminals fell on and massacred them, nine souls in all. . . . At once the frontier was in a blaze, and the Indians girded themselves for revenge. . . . They confused the two massacres, attributing both to Cresap, whom they well knew as a warrior. . . . Soon all the back country was involved in the unspeakable horrors of a bloody Indian war," which lasted, however, only till the following October. Governor Dunmore, during the summer, collected some 3,000 men, one division of which he led personally to Fort Pitt and thence down the Ohio, accomplishing nothing of importance. The other division, composed exclusively of backwoodsmen, under General Andrew Lewis, marched to the mouth of the Kanawha River, and there, at Point Pleasant, the cape of land jutting out between the Ohio and the Kanawha, they fought, on the 10th of October, a great battle with the Indians which practically ended the war. This is sometimes called the battle of Point Pleasant,

and sometimes the battle of the Great Kanawha. "It was the most closely contested of any battle ever fought with the northwestern Indians; and it was the only victory gained over a large body of them by a force but slightly superior in numbers. . . . Its results were most important. It kept the northwestern tribes quiet for the first two years of the Revolutionary struggle; and above all it rendered possible the settlement of Kentucky, and therefore the winning of the West. Had it not been for Lord Dunmore's War, it is more than likely that when the colonies achieved their freedom they would have found their western boundary fixed at the Alleghany Mountains. . . . [For some time after peace had been made with the other chiefs Logan would not join in it. When he did yield a sullen assent, Lord Dunmore] was obliged to communicate with him through a messenger, a frontier veteran named John Gibson. . . . To this messenger Logan was willing to talk. Taking him aside, he suddenly addressed him in a speech that will always retain its place as perhaps the finest outburst of savage eloquence of which we have any authentic record. The messenger took it down in writing, translating it literally. [The authenticity of this famous speech of Logan has been much questioned, but apparently with no good ground.]"—T. Roosevelt, *Winning of the West*, v. 1, ch. 8-9.

ALSO IN: J. H. Perkins, *Annals of the West*, ch. 5.—J. G. M. Ramsey, *Annals of Tennessee*, p. 112.—V. A. Lewis, *History of West Virginia*, ch. 9.

(Valley): 1774.—Embraced in Province of Quebec. See CANADA: 1763-1774.

(Valley): 1778-1779.—Conquest of Northwest from British by General Clark, and its annexation to Kentucky District of Virginia. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779: Clark's conquest.

(Valley): 1781-1786.—Conflicting territorial claims of Virginia, New York and Connecticut.—Their cession to United States, except Western Reserve of Connecticut. See U.S.A.: 1781-1786.

(Valley): 1784.—Included in proposed states of Metropotamia, Washington, Saratoga and Pelisipia. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1784.

(Valley): 1786-1788.—Ohio Company of Revolutionary Soldiers and their settlement at Marietta. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1786-1788.

(Valley): 1786-1796.—Western Reserve of Connecticut.—Founding of Cleveland.—In September, 1786, Connecticut ceded to Congress the western territory which she claimed under her charter (see U.S.A.: 1781-1786; PENNSYLVANIA: 1753-1799), reserving, however, from the cession a tract "bounded north by the line of 42° 2', or, rather, the international line, east by the western boundary of Pennsylvania, south by the 41st parallel, and west by a line parallel with the eastern boundary and distant from it 120 miles—supposed, at the time, to be equal in extent to the Susquehanna tract given to Pennsylvania, 1782. . . . This territory Connecticut was said 'to reserve,' and it soon came to be called 'The Connecticut Western Reserve,' 'The Western Reserve,' etc. . . . On May 11, 1792, the General Assembly quit-claimed to the inhabitants of several Connecticut towns who had lost property in consequence of the incursions into the State made by the British troops in the Revolution, or their legal representatives when they were dead, and to their heirs and assigns, forever, 500,000 acres lying across the western end of the reserve, bounded north by the lake shore. . . . The total number of suf-

ferers, as reported, was 1,870, and the aggregate losses, £161,548, 11s., 6½d. The grant was of the soil only. These lands are known in Connecticut history as 'The Sufferers' Lands,' in Ohio history as 'The Fire Lands.' In 1796 the Sufferers were incorporated in Connecticut, and in 1803 in Ohio, under the title 'The Proprietors of the Half-million Acres of Land lying south of Lake Erie.' . . . In May, 1793, the Connecticut Assembly offered the remaining part of the Reserve for sale." In September, 1795, the whole tract was sold, without survey or measurement, for \$1,200,000, and the Connecticut School Fund, which amounts to something more than two millions of dollars, consists wholly of the proceeds of that sale, with capitalized interest. "The purchasers of the Reserve, most of them belonging to Connecticut, but some to Massachusetts and New York, were men desirous of trying their fortunes in Western lands. Oliver Phelps, perhaps the greatest land-speculator of the time, was at their head. September 5, 1795, they adopted articles of agreement and association, constituting themselves the Connecticut Land Company. The company was never incorporated, but was what is called to-day a 'syndicate.'" In the spring of 1796 the company sent out a party of surveyors, in charge of its agent, General Moses Cleaveland, who reached "the mouth of the Cuyahoga River, July 22d, from which day there have always been white men on the site of the city that takes its name from him. [In 1830 the spelling of the name of the infant city was changed from Cleaveland to Cleveland by the printer of its first newspaper, who found that the superfluous "a" made a heading too long for his form, and he therefore decided to drop it out.]"—B. A. Hinsdale, *Old Northwest*, ch. 19, with footnotes.

ALSO IN: C. Whittlesey, *Early history of Cleveland*, p. 145, and after.—H. Rice, *Pioneers of the Western Reserve*, ch. 6-7.—R. King, *Ohio*, ch. 7-8.—S. P. Hildreth, *Pioneer history*.

(Valley): 1787.—Ordinance for government of Northwest Territory.—Perpetual exclusion of slavery. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1787.

(Valley): 1788.—Founding of Cincinnati. See CINCINNATI: 1788.

(Valley): 1790-1795.—Indian war.—Disastrous expeditions of Harmar and St. Clair, and Wayne's decisive victory.—Greenville Treaty. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1790-1795.

(Territory and state): 1800-1802.—Organized as separate territory and admitted to Union as state. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1788-1802.

1812-1813.—Harrison's campaign for recovery of Detroit.—Winchester's defeat.—Perry's naval victory. See U.S.A.: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

1830-1846.—Temporary stay of Mormons. See MORMONISM: 1830-1846.

1831.—Seneca Indians cede land to the United States. See OKLAHOMA: 1830-1844.

1835.—Settlement of boundary dispute with Michigan. See MICHIGAN: 1837.

ALSO IN: H. Howe, *Historical collections of Ohio*.—S. P. Hildreth, *Biographical and historical memoirs of the early pioneer settlers of Ohio*.—J. W. Taylor, *History of the state of Ohio: First period, 1650-1787*.—W. H. Smith, *St. Clair papers: Life and services of Arthur St. Clair*.—C. E. Slocum, *Ohio country between 1783 and 1815*.—W. A. Venable, *Beginnings of literary culture in the Ohio valley*.

1840-1865.—Rôle of state in Mexican and Civil Wars.—The war with Mexico, declared May 13, 1846, was not popular at first in Ohio. The Whigs of the state felt that the war had been brought on by the annexation of Texas and hence was a deliberate and concerted scheme for perpetuating slavery. This sentiment was gradually overcome as the war progressed. "In response to the first call of President Polk for three regiments from Ohio, Governor Bartley issued his proclamation May 20, 1846, appealing to the courage and patriotism of the state to render promptly the required aid. Samuel R. Curtis, Adjutant General of the state, established a general rendezvous at Camp Washington, near Cincinnati, to which point all companies were ordered to proceed as soon as organized. That there was a sustaining war sentiment in Ohio is evidenced by the fact that in less than two weeks after the President's requisition was received, three thousand Ohioans were marching toward the rendezvous. Before June, forty companies were in their tents at Camp Washington. During this month companies assembled here from all over the state; indeed, more appeared than necessary to fill the quota, and these, with much clamor and dissatisfaction, were turned homeward. The thirty companies in camp were ordered by Governor Bartley to be organized into three regiments, and these, after being reviewed by General Wool, who was on his way to Mexico, were mustered into the service of the United States for one year. The recruiting of volunteers was kept up until the Ohio military forces were organized into five infantry regiments, fifteen independent companies of infantry, five companies for the Fifth United States Infantry, and one company of United States Mounted Riflemen. There were about seven thousand officers and men in the Mexican War from Ohio in the army, not including the navy, and these constituted about one-eighth of the entire land forces. . . . [Great as was the rôle of Ohio in the Mexican War, an even greater part was played by the state during the Civil War. In spite of the secret influence of numerous organizations such as the "Sons of Liberty" within the state, the president's calls for troops were loyally met. Up to December 31, 1864, the state had sent 346,326 men into the service of the United States.] A brief review of the record of Ohio in this most trying period of the nation's history will show the remarkable contribution she made in patriotism, blood and treasure. Of her troops that she sent to the field, 11,237 were killed or mortally wounded, and 13,354 died of disease. The people of Ohio paid out in money, according to the Adjutant General's report for 1866, for local bounties during the war, over \$54,000,000 and the state government's expense amounted to over \$11,000,000, making the total expenditures chargeable to the war and paid by the state, and her people, over \$65,000,000."—E. O. Randall and D. J. Ryan, *History of Ohio*, v. 4, pp. 50-51, 279.

1850.—Women's rights legislation. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1848-1851.

1863 (July).—John Morgan's raid. See U.S.A.: 1863: (July: Kentucky).

1866-1908.—Economic and social transformation.—Construction of railways.—Growth of population.—Political parties.—"The history of Ohio since the close of the Civil War has been that of a profound economic and social transformation. . . . In the Ohio of 1860 agriculture was the great source of individual wealth, and grazing and wool growing came next. . . . The state stood second in the amount of cereals raised, second in horses and cattle, and first in wool. Manufactures

at that time employed only 75,000 men, in a total of 11,000 establishments with a capital of 57 millions, and most of these were limited to local and domestic markets. Cities were small, there being only six with over 8,000 population, only three over 20,000, and only one, Cleveland, over 100,000. In a population of two and a third millions only one ninth lived in cities; the farmer was the typical figure, dominating society and politics. The decade containing the Civil War saw the great change. In those years railways began to be pushed across the state with vigor, until by 1871 over three thousand miles were constructed. Simultaneously and partly as a result of the railway extension the coal measures of the eastern parts of the state began to be opened up; the iron of Pennsylvania, and later of Lake Superior, began to be brought to meet the Ohio coal; and iron and steel manufacturing spread from city to city. All other manufactures felt the stimulus and rushed into production, the number of establishments doubling in a decade, the employees rising to 137,000, and the value of the output more than doubling. In the panic of 1873, this first over-enthusiastic rush of Ohio capital into railways and manufactures paid the penalty of too great optimism and too little caution. In that fatal year and during a long period of subsequent 'hard times' railway earnings decreased, until bankruptcies followed, manufactures were idle or failed, and it seemed as if all industry had come to an indefinite suspension of activity. But from this relapse Ohio rose again with vigor in the years after 1878, and although hindered by another epoch of financial stringency after 1893, did not cease its progress nor experience any severe mishaps. Railways, coal, and iron gave the direction of development throughout. . . . By the opening of the twentieth century Ohio had become one of the leading manufacturing states in the Union, fifth as to the total value of its output, fourth in boots and shoes, second in iron and steel, first in clay products. Ohio manufactures were sent over the United States and exported through the civilized and uncivilized world. Over nine thousand miles of railway covered the state like a network, carrying the coal of the southeastern regions to every corner, and gathering the products of every city or solitary factory. The 75,000 employees of 1860 had increased to 345,000 in 1900, and the proportion of persons engaged in trade, transportation, and manufactures had grown from one third to nearly one half of the total number engaged in remunerative pursuits. By the side of this great industrial development agriculture failed to hold its own. [While the staple crops doubled, manufactures increased seven-fold, and by 1900 Ohio was no longer second, but seventh as a grain-producing state.] . . . The change in industrial interests showed itself unmistakably in the distribution of the population. Of the two and a third millions of 1860 scarcely one ninth lived in cities, a lower proportion than held good in the United States as a whole; but of the four and a sixth millions of 1900 nearly two fifths were urban, a considerably higher proportion than the country at large had reached. In place of six cities only, with more than 8000 population, there were thirty-eight; in place of one over 100,000 there were four, and two of these, Cleveland and Cincinnati, were seventh and tenth respectively among the cities of the land. . . . The real history of Ohio is to be sought in the field of business, of manufactures, and of railways, for beside their great development the politics or public life of the state has been of slight moment. The interests of the men of the era since the Civil War have

been mainly engrossed with the wonderful industrial expansion, and public affairs have had to adjust themselves to the altered situation. Governmentally the history of the state is conservative beyond precedent, since the Constitution of 1851, drawn up for a race of farmers, continued in operation throughout the century,—one of the very few in the country to exist for so long a time. In 1873-74 a constitutional convention,—led by many of Ohio's ablest and most practical men, labored with great thoroughness to perfect a more modern instrument; but the conservative voters in the ill-temper of the year of hard times, 1874, rejected the draft by an overwhelming majority. . . . Legislation during the two generations after the Civil War centred about industrial and economic matters. [The principal local issues were the temperance question and the problem of restricting special legislation. In 1885 the Dow law, imposing a liquor tax, was upheld as constitutional and closed the controversy. The second difficulty was ended in 1902 when the state supreme court made it impossible for municipal corporations to abuse their money power. Local issues, however, were not paramount. In national politics the state held a unique position.] The vote in Ohio was supposed to indicate conclusively the tendencies in the Union at large, and the result was that the two great political parties concentrated their efforts upon the Ohio elections to an unequaled degree. After twenty years of this extreme pressure the voters of the state sought relief by changing the election day to November, but although the state fortunately lost the character of weather-gauge its real political weight was undiminished. The result of this political prominence has been the existence of two very bitterly opposed party organizations in the state, struggling at every election with never fading rancor. For about eighteen years, from 1865 to 1893, their relations remained fairly constant. The Republicans controlled the larger maximum vote, and in presidential elections could be reasonably sure of success; but the Democrats, in 'off years' or on local issues, ran a chance of occasionally electing governors, carrying legislatures, and choosing United States senators. During these eighteen years the Democratic party was a 'hard times party,' almost invariably winning in years of depression, as 1873, 1874, 1883, and 1889, and as invariably being decisively beaten in years of agricultural and industrial prosperity. . . . Finally, in the last decade of the century the two parties came to join issue squarely, the Democrats adhering to their demands for free coinage and a low tariff, while the Republicans shifting with the altered interests of the state, grew steadily firmer in opposition to silver inflation and increasingly vigorous in advocacy of protection. The results of this change showed that the new economic development of the state had worked to the profit of the Republicans. The Democrats, beaten in 1893 during a panic year, failed to recover as on previous occasions, and steadily remained for the next ten years in a hopeless minority. The industrial development of Ohio had apparently brought about a permanent change in the balance of political parties. [During the years 1865 to 1908 Ohio contributed five presidents and many leaders prominent in Senate, House, Cabinet, and judiciary.]—T. C. Smith, *Ohio since the Civil War* (R. King, ed., *Ohio: First fruits of the Ordinance of 1787*, pp. 401-404, 405-407, 408, 411-413).

ALSO IN: R. E. Chaddock, *Ohio before 1850*.—G. H. Porter, *Ohio politics during the Civil War period* (Columbia University Studies in history, economics and public law, no. 2).—T. Ewing, Jr.,

Ohio presidents, pp. 510-511.—D. C. Shilling, *Relation of southern Ohio to the South during the decade preceding the Civil War (Historical and Philosophical Society of Ohio, v. 8, pp. 1-28)*.

1893.—Arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1909-1911.—Social legislation enacted.—Political corruption rebuked.—Constitutional amendment approved.—With the inauguration of Judson Harmon as governor of Ohio on January 11, 1909, a vigorous campaign for the enactment of a program of social legislation was undertaken. The legislature, however, was slow to enter upon the work, and the sessions of 1909 and 1910 placed no important statutes on the books. "Governor Harmon was inaugurated for his second term on January 9, 1911. Great interest centered in the legislative session because of the important measures which the governor favored. In January the income tax amendment to the constitution of the United States was ratified, the previous legislature having declined to give it approval. The laws adopted in 1911 include a number of far-reaching character. A maximum one per cent. tax rate was fixed, with the proviso for increase to one and one-half per cent. in any tax district by a majority vote of the people. The affairs of the seventeen state institutions were taken from the control of separate boards of trustees and placed under the management of a state board of administration. A state public service commission was created, with extensive powers for controlling enterprises of public utility, regulating rates, and affording satisfaction to citizens in cases of grievance. A state insurance fund was instituted, from which money will be paid employees injured and dependents of employees killed at their work. The 'Oregon plan' for direct nomination of United States senators was established. The referendum was granted to municipalities upon petition of fifteen per cent. of the voters, and the initiative upon petition of thirty per cent."—E. D. Randall and D. J. Ryan, *History of Ohio, v. 4, pp. 464-465*.—At the same time that the state legislature was establishing an enviable record in social legislation, Judge A. Z. Blair in Adams county was giving the nation a lesson in practical political reform. For several years Judge Blair had been trying to purify the politics of his county and in January, 1911, he succeeded in applying a really effective method of reform. "To begin with, the buying and selling of votes, which had been going on in Adams County for more than thirty years, had become so open and shameless as to be a matter of common knowledge. . . . Judge Blair had been so intimately acquainted with the political life of the county that he knew, as did many others, the condition prevailing. He knew that both parties had been guilty, and that the local politicians and 'party workers' had been very generally engaged in making the bargains and distributing the money, using their respective quotas of funds contributed in greater part by candidates for office. The law of Ohio permits the judge, in a bribery case, to grant immunity to those who turn informer and become State's evidence. Judge Blair's great thought was to take all the politicians and vote-buyers in the county, to the number perhaps of two or three hundred, summon them as witnesses before a special grand jury, and promise them all immunity from present or future prosecution if they would turn over to the court and grand jury their lists of purchased voters, with the amounts paid, and all the necessary facts. . . . It was plain enough that if all the vote-buyers should put the grand jury in possession, frankly, of the

entire truth, they would bring no harm upon themselves and a minimum of harm upon the men whose votes had been sold. The next part of the scheme was to be the announcement, through all the newspapers of the county, and through all other sources of publicity, that the names of those who had sold their votes were known to Judge Blair and to the grand jury, and that indictments had been found against them. If, however, they were wise enough to come to West Union, the county seat, of their own free will and make confession to the judge,—thus saving the expense and trouble of serving papers and making arrests,—they would be treated with great leniency. It was a part of the scheme not to make known the information disclosed to the grand jury by the politicians, and not to make public the names of those against whom indictments had been found. It was desired that as many as possible might facilitate the movement of justice by making confession, and allowing themselves to be sentenced. Such was the bold, simple project. Suffice it to say that it was as effective in practice as it was comprehensive in conception."—A. Shaw, *National lesson from Adams county (Review of Reviews, Feb., 1911)*.

1912.—Adoption of new state constitution.—On January 9, 1912, the constitutional convention, authorized by the electors of the state on November 8, 1910, met in the city of Columbus. Herbert S. Bigelow, of Cincinnati, was elected president, and Charles B. Galbreath, of Columbus, secretary. There were one hundred and nineteen delegates in the body. On September 3, the people of the state ratified the major portion of the work of the convention by adopting thirty-three of the forty-one proposed amendments to the existing constitution. The amendments thus approved constitute virtually a new constitution. More than one half are radical, some are revolutionary in their significance. "The first amendment states that in civil cases the legislature may provide for verdicts by not less than three-fourths of the jury. The amendment providing for the abolition of the death penalty and the substitution of life imprisonment was lost. . . . Probably the most important amendment adopted was that providing for the initiative and referendum. Against this amendment privileged interests used all their power and agencies of publicity. The amendment provides that the constitution can be amended by petition, the proposed change being offered by 10 per cent of the electors and submitted to the electors at the next election. Provision was made for the enactment of laws by the same method, although the details are different from those of any previous initiative and referendum amendment. This section provides that measures may be initiated by 3 per cent of the electors, who file their petitions with the secretary of state who then transmits the proposed measure to the general assembly. If the general assembly enacts the bill it becomes a law. If, however, the assembly fails to pass the bill or passes it in an amended form, the proposed measure can be submitted to the electors in its original or amended form if 3 additional per cent of the electors petition for it. Referendums on laws passed by the legislature are made possible on petition of 6 per cent of the electors. [See INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.] . . . Advanced amendments were enacted in the interest of labor. The legislature was authorized to provide direct mechanics' liens against the property of the owner; to regulate the hours of labor, establish a minimum wage [see LABOR REMUNERATION: 1910-1920] and provide for the comfort, health, safety and general

welfare of all employees. . . . The state was authorized to establish state insurance funds for the protection of industrial workers. Eight hours was made a day's work on all public work, whether done by contract or by the state directly. The abuses of contract prison labor were made impossible by requiring that prisoners should not be contracted out or made to work under the contract system. The element of private profit was eliminated in prison labor, and provision was made for the employment of prisoners in the production of things needed by the state. Conservation of natural resources was provided for by authorizing laws to encourage and promote forestry, to protect streams and lakes, and to regulate the use of water power. The introduction of the Torrens land title system was made possible, by means of which land titles can be registered under public supervision. Substantial judicial reform was secured by giving an intermediate court of appeals final authority in most cases. The most radical departure relates to the interference of the courts with legislation, for the Supreme Court cannot hold a statute unconstitutional if more than one of the judges dissent, although a judgment of the court below holding a statute unconstitutional may be affirmed by a majority of the Supreme Court. Judgments of the trial court can be reversed only with the concurrence of all the judges of the Court of Appeals on the weight of the evidence and by a majority of such judges upon other questions. . . . The direct primary was made mandatory for all offices. School districts were authorized to determine for themselves the size and organization of local boards of education. The double liability of bank stockholders was provided for as was the regulation of corporations. The merit or civil service system was made obligatory on state, county and city offices, and the legislature was required to provide laws for competitive examinations. . . . In general, the constitution takes advanced ground on industrial and labor questions, on the arbitrary powers of the court, on judicial reform, and in providing for the fullest and freest expression of political democracy, through municipal home rule, the direct primary and the initiative and referendum."—F. C. Howe, *New constitution of Ohio* (*Survey*, Sept. 21, 1912).

1913.—Great floods.—Their toll in lives and property.—Schemes for prevention.—In March, 1913, a great flood on the Ohio river spread destruction through the valley, especially in the city of Dayton. More than 500 persons were drowned and property worth 250 million dollars was destroyed. Measures were taken immediately to prevent the recurrence of such a disaster and by an expenditure equal to only one-tenth the loss sustained in 1913 the valley has been thoroughly protected against the flood danger. See OHIO RIVER.

1913-1914.—Legislation in harmony with new constitution.—Municipal charters.—During 1913-1914 Ohio enacted several laws in conformity with policies authorized by the constitutional amendments adopted in 1912. In 1913 the Torrens land registration system was adopted, an eight hour day for laborers on public works was legalized, a public utilities commission of three was created and the federal amendment for direct election of senators was ratified by the legislature. Under the municipal home rule provisions of the constitution, Cleveland adopted a new charter, providing for nomination by petition, preferential voting, the short ballot, initiative, referendum and recall. A year later Columbus adopted a charter containing provisions for a council of members chosen at large and for the initiative, referendum and recall

of officials. In November, 1914, Cleveland won its case in a dispute with the New York Central system over the possession of a large tract of land on the lake front. The Federal Supreme Court rendered the decision.

1914.—City manager plan of municipal government adopted in Dayton. See CITY MANAGER PLAN OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Dayton, Ohio.

1914-1916.—Eastern Ohio coal strike.—Federal mediation.—Youngstown steel strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1914-1915; 1916.

1917-1918.—Part played in World War.—During the World War, Ohio furnished 200,293 soldiers, or 5.33 per cent of the whole force of the United States. The Ohio branch of the council of national defense was appointed by Governor Cox on June 1, 1917. A national army camp, Camp Sherman, was erected at Chillicothe, an ordinance camp at Erie Proving Grounds near Port Clinton, and a chemical plant at Willoughby near Cleveland. \$1,324,545,750 were raised in the state for the Liberty and Victory loans.

1917-1920.—Development of direct legislation, education and taxation.—Recent special legislation.—On November 6, 1917, the voters of Ohio approved an amendment to the state constitution, reserving to the people the power to approve or reject an action of the legislature ratifying any proposed amendment to the Federal Constitution. At the same election woman suffrage was defeated by 136,000. In 1917 the Wright law, creating the Ohio State Board of Education, placed the state well on the way toward an efficient control of its educational system. Two years later the legislature passed the Freeman Bill, providing for a state teachers' retirement system. The system went into operation in 1920 throughout the state and means that during its existence Ohio teachers, who have taught the required number of years, may retire on State pensions. In 1920 the School Revenue Bill provided an increase in the general school levy to enable counties and townships to increase appreciably the salaries of their teachers. "The Ohio legislature, which first met on January 6, 1919, reconvened in December. The session lasted in all about 13 months. The legislature reorganized the state's health service; increased the legal rate of fare on steam and interurban railways from two to three cents a mile; passed a new state highway act; prohibited the teaching of German in the elementary grades of public and parochial schools; defined and provided for the punishment of criminal syndicalism; passed a law prohibiting the flying of the red flag in parades; and enacted a veteran preference measure."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, p. 75).—The same legislature ratified two amendments to the Federal Constitution: the Eighteenth, providing for national prohibition, January 7; and the Nineteenth, or Woman Suffrage Amendment, June 16.

1920.—Workmen's compensation. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: United States: 1920.

1920.—Use of merit system. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1920.

1921.—Child welfare legislation. See CHARITIES: 1921.

1922.—Coal strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922: Nation-wide coal strike.

OHIO AND CHESAPEAKE CANAL: Construction. See CANALS: American canals: Rehabilitated.

OHIO BLUE SKY LAW. See BLUE SKY LAWS: Ohio law.

OHIO COMPANY OF REVOLUTIONARY SOLDIERS: Their land purchase. See NORTH-WEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1786-1788.

OHIO RIVER, principal eastern tributary of the Mississippi river, formed by the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and flowing thence between Ohio, Indiana and Illinois on the north, and West Virginia and Kentucky on the south to its union with the Mississippi at Cairo, Kentucky. Little was known of the river until the end of the Indian wars in 1763, when the English gained complete control of the region through which it flowed. (See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties.) The first steamboat on the Ohio was the "New Orleans," which sailed from Pittsburgh to New Orleans in 1811. From 1820 until 1825, when the Erie canal was opened the Ohio was the great commercial and industrial link between the East and the West. The Middle West owes its rapid industrial development to the presence of this waterway, which by a system of canals, locks and dams, has been made navigable for a distance of 950 miles. The river rises frequently. Twice within fifteen years it destroyed lives and property. In 1898 more than sixty persons died in floods, and in 1913 a great flood again swept through the valley. "On Monday morning, March 24, a few newspapers announced the prediction of the weather bureau that abnormal rains would fall over eastern and southern states during the coming week. Those rains had actually begun the day before. By Monday morning, however, few townspeople or farmers along the threatened rivers foresaw unusual danger. To many persons not themselves in the possible paths of floods, the first real sense of impending destruction dawned when a Pennsylvania train, compelled by wash-outs to detour, plunged into the Mad River at West Liberty, Ohio. This occurred at 1:30 Tuesday morning. But before that, evidence had been accumulating in northwestern Ohio and northeastern Indiana that something more than an ordinary spring run-off was taking place. Not only were a score of lesser creeks in both Ohio and Indiana establishing new flood records, but some of the larger rivers as well were rising with ominous rapidity. There seemed to be little general expectation of widespread disaster. The Omaha tornado of Easter Sunday was still the topic of chief interest. Throughout Monday the scene of the heaviest rainfall had shifted southward; on Tuesday it spread wide over all of Central Ohio. It was, indeed, during the twenty-four hours from midnight on Monday to midnight on Tuesday that most of the Ohio and Indiana towns not on the Ohio river itself, learned what was to be their fate. Then it was that the nation heard those first frantic calls for help which told of whole cities—Dayton, Hamilton, Columbus, Chillicothe, Peru, and other—foundering like stricken ships at sea. Then, too, began those experiences of individuals, families, neighbors, which mark epochs in the memories of those who went through them: the grappling with death, the even worse grappling with a despair that held no hope; the strained waiting for release, accompanied by awful uncertainty as to what might be happening in the next block or the next house; the sight of friends or the members of one's own family perishing without a chance for help to reach them. These things the world has read and re-read; they are being woven into the folk-lore of the communities where they occurred."—*The 1913 floods: Their coming* (Survey, May 2, 1914).—"One million and twelve thousand people lived in the flooded cities and towns. After the waters had

subsidied, 428 bodies were recovered, and probably half as many more were never found; 20,000 houses were absolutely destroyed within twenty-four hours; 35,000 homes were damaged in the same length of time. The property loss was easily \$300,000,000. During the first few days of the disaster, 200,000 people had to be fed. But 220,000 represents only those who had to be fed because all their food supplied and means of preparing food were destroyed. It does not include hundreds of thousands who had money to buy food who were hard pressed to obtain it."—G. F. Burba, *The state's part in the emergency* (Survey, May 2, 1914).—Immediately following the disastrous days of the flood of 1913 steps were taken to prevent a recurrence of the catastrophe. "A flood prevention committee, whose function was to devise some means of protecting the city of Dayton, employed engineers to make a careful investigation of the underlying causes and to present some adequate means of preventing future similar disasters. The novel plan now [1919] being executed by the Miami Conservancy district is the result of the work of the chief engineer, Arthur E. Morgan and his assistants. After the survey had been some time in progress, it became apparent that separate flood protection projects carried out separately by each subdivision of the flooded district would be inefficient and unnecessarily expensive. For this reason, a plan of protection for the entire valley was passed by the state legislature, and the Miami Conservancy district was established by law in July, 1915, with its office in Dayton, the largest city in the flooded territory. . . . The district is working to provide for maximum floods by arbitrarily increasing the maximum estimated by the engineers. The protection of the valley depends wholly upon the system of retarding basins and channel improvements that are being made, so the engineers must be beyond their own judgment in the matter. The Conservancy system provides for from 15 to 20 per cent more everflow than is believed possible and 40 per cent beyond the mark of March, 1913. . . . Much legal procedure was necessary before the work could be got under way. Chief engineer Morgan, drafted the Conservancy act, as there was no existing law under which the work could be done and especial assessment levied to pay for it; and his text . . . passed without revision. The Supreme Court tested the validity of the law in many ways and it was not until June 1915, that the Miami Conservancy district was verified beyond dispute as a legal department under the State. An immense bond issue was floated to carry the work until the assessments could be collected, and \$10,000,000 worth were sold in Dayton alone. . . . The river channel improvements are very extensive and include deepening and straightening the channels of the various streams in the Great Miami Valley, and strengthening the levees. It is a work not only for the present but for future generations and will last for probably three centuries with very little improvement."—W. A. Drake, *Miami conservancy flood prevention plan* (Scientific American, Mar. 22, 1919).

ALSO IN: A. B. Hulbert, *Waterways of westward expansion*; Idem, *Ohio river, a course of empire*. —R. G. Thwaites, *Afloat on the Ohio*.

OHIO RIVER CANAL. See CANALS: American canals: Rehabilitated.

"OHIO SETTLEMENT." See U.S.A.: 1765-1768.

OHIO UNIVERSITY, founded at Athens, Ohio, 1804.

OHMMETER. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Measuring instruments: 1833-1921.

OHOD, Battle of (625 A.D.). See **MOHAMMEDANISM**.

OIL BURNER. See **INVENTIONS**: Artificial light.

OIL ENGINES. See **STEAM AND GAS ENGINES**: Hot air and gas engines.

OIL INDUSTRY: Mexico. See **MEXICO**: 1918.

OIL RIVERS PROTECTORATE, district surrounding the delta of the Niger river, now a part of the British colony and protectorate of Nigeria. See **NIGERIA**: 1887-1899.

OILS, Essential: Contrast to fatty oil.—Composition, extraction and use. See **CHEMISTRY**: Practical application: Essential oils and perfumes: Composition and extraction.

OISE, river in France, flowing into the Seine. During the World War, especially in 1918, there was severe fighting along its banks. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: u, 4; 1918: II. Western front: c, 4; d, 2; g, 9, iv; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XI. Devastation: c.

OJEDA, Alonso de (c. 1465-1515), Spanish explorer. Accompanied Columbus on his second voyage, 1493; after several voyages of exploration in South America, founded a colony on the Gulf of Darien, 1509. See **AMERICA**: 1497-1498; 1499-1500; 1502; 1509-1511; **COLOMBIA**: 1499-1536.

OJIBWAS, or Chippewas.—"The Ojibways, with their kindred, the Pottawatamies, and their friends the Ottawas,—the latter of whom were fugitives from the eastward, whence they had fled from the wrath of the Iroquois,—were banded into a sort of confederacy. They were closely allied in blood, language, manners and character. The Ojibways, by far the most numerous of the three, occupied the basin of Lake Superior, and extensive adjacent regions. In their boundaries, the career of Iroquois conquest found at length a check. The fugitive Wyandots sought refuge in the Ojibway hunting grounds; and tradition relates that, at the outlet of Lake Superior, an Iroquois war-party once encountered a disastrous repulse. In their mode of life, they were far more rude than the Iroquois, or even the southern Algonquin tribes."

—F. Parkman, *Conspiracy of Pontiac*, ch. 1.—"The name of the tribe appears to be recent. It is not met with in the older writers. The French, who were the earliest to meet them, in their tribal seat at the falls or Sault de Ste Marie, named them Saulteur, from this circumstance. M'Kenzie uses the term 'Jibway,' as the equivalent of this term, in his voyages. They are referred to, with little difference in the orthography, in General Washington's report, in 1754, of his trip to Le Bœuf, on Lake Erie; but are first recognized, among our treaty-tribes, in the general treaty of Greenville, of 1794, in which, with the Ottawas they ceded the island of Michilimackinac, and certain dependencies, conceded by them at former periods to the French. . . . The Chippewas are conceded, by writers on American philology . . . to speak one of the purest forms of the Algonquin."

—H. R. Schoolcraft, *Information respecting the history, condition and prospects of the Indian tribes*, pt. 5, p. 142.—See also **PONTIAC**'s War; **ALGONQUIAN FAMILY**; **INDIANS**, **AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern Woodlands area. Also in: G. Copway, *Ojibway nation*.—J. G. Kohl, *Kitchi-gami*.

OKBA BEN NAFI, or Akbah (d. 682), Moslem ruler. Conquered Africa, from Egypt to Tangier; founder of Kairwan. See **KAIRWAN**.

OKEECHOBEE, lake in southern Florida. It was utilized for drainage of swamps. See **CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES**: United States: 1890-1921.

OKEGHEM, Johannes (1425-1513), Dutch composer, founder of the Netherlands school of music. See **MUSIC**: Medieval: 1450-1600.

OKLAHOMA: Location and resources.—One of the southwestern states of the United States, Oklahoma is bounded on the north by Kansas and Colorado; on the east by Missouri and Arkansas; on the south by Texas; and on the west by Texas and New Mexico. Its relative importance among the states may be indicated as follows: in area, it is the seventeenth, with 70,057 square miles; in population, it was, in 1920, the twenty-first, with 2,028,283; and in mineral output, it is the seventh, chiefly through the production of petroleum. Oklahoma is one of the most important of the cattle-raising states, and is also a great producer of corn, cotton, and wheat.—See also U.S.A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See **PAWNEE FAMILY**.

1806-1824.—Exploration.—Expulsion of white men.—Forts Gibson and Towson.—Traders.—First steamboat.—In 1806 two exploring expeditions were undertaken to traverse the farther reaches of the Louisiana Purchase, in which was included the present state of Oklahoma. (See **LOUISIANA**: 1798-1803.) One, commanded by Captain Richard Sparks, was turned back a few miles below the southeastern extremity of Oklahoma by a superior force of Spanish troops. The other was headed by Captain Zebulon M. Pike, who sent out a detachment under Lieutenant James B. Wilkinson in a canoe down the Arkansas river. Wilkinson wrote an interesting account of the trip. In 1810 George C. Sibley, a government Indian agent, visited the salt plains in northern Oklahoma; and in 1817 Major Stephen H. Long, exploring the Red and Poteau rivers, selected a site for a military post, which was occupied soon afterward by troops under the command of Major William Bradford, establishing Fort Smith. "Thomas Nuttall, the English naturalist, ascended the Arkansas River to Fort Smith in the late winter and early spring of 1819. After spending several weeks at the post, he accompanied a military expedition to the valley of the Red River. . . . Major Bradford organized and led this expedition in compliance with orders of the War Department directing him to expel all white people found living in the territory of the Osages, the Kiamitia River being its eastern boundary in the region which was tributary to the Red River. A number of families had formed a settlement near the mouth of the Kiamitia, even at that early day. Nuttall did not regard them very favorably, stating that many of them were fugitives from justice in the states, 'such as have forfeited the esteem of civilized society,' and, furthermore, that, to some extent at least, they were disloyal to the Government of the United States. . . . Forts Gibson and Towson were established respectively in April and May, 1824, by Col. Matthew Arbuckle, of the Seventh United States Infantry, and were garrisoned by detachments of troops from that regiment. . . . While it is not improbable that American trappers and traders began to visit the Arkansas River region within a few years after the transfer to Louisiana to American jurisdiction, it was not until after the close of the second war with Great Britain that they made any organized effort to embark in trade in this field. The first trading post to be established in Oklahoma by Americans was that of French and Butherford, near the mouth of the Verdigris River. This enterprise was undertaken in 1817, apparently at the same time with, or immediately after the establishment of the military

post at Fort Smith. The first steamboat arrived at Fort Smith in 1820. From that time on, steam navigation played an important part in the life and affairs of the Indian Territory, until the coming of the first railroad."—J. B. Thoburn, *Standard history of Oklahoma*, pp. 47, 55, 60.

1824-1837.—First Indian migrations.—Claims of western Indians.—Establishment of Indian Territory.—Transportation of tribes from the East.—Purchase treaties with Indians.—Steam navigation on Arkansas.—"Within the five years following the establishment of Forts Gibson and Towson in 1824, the Cherokee, Choctaw and Creek Indians began to move into the adjacent region from points farther east and south. The Creek Indians signed a treaty, February 12, 1825, by which they relinquished all of their lands in Georgia, taking in exchange therefor a grant of land lying between the Canadian and Arkansas rivers in what is now Oklahoma."—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, p. 35.—"At the beginning of this period the Osage Indians claimed all of Oklahoma north of the Canadian river and south of that stream they claimed to own all of the land lying west of the Kiamitia. East of the Kiamitia the country was claimed by the Quapaws, though they seldom came into Oklahoma, and the southeastern part of the state was occupied at times by bands of Caddo Keechi Indians. In the southwestern part of the state, in the vicinity of the Wichita Mountains and near the Red River, were the Indians of the Wichita and affiliated tribes. Roving over the plains of the entire western part of the state were the Comanches and the Kiowas. . . . [In May, 1830, an act was passed by Congress and approved by President Andrew Jackson, reserving a tract of land west of Missouri and Arkansas for the colonization therein of the various Indian tribes still living east of the Mississippi river.] Several reservations had already been established in the region immediately west of the State of Missouri and the territories of Arkansas and Iowa so it soon became popularly known as 'the Indian Territory.' . . . Within fifteen years after the passage and approval of the act which provided for the establishment of the Indian Territory, nearly thirty tribes of Indians were transplanted to new reservations within its limits from their old homes in the states east of the Mississippi. More tribes were settled in Kansas than in Oklahoma but they were smaller tribes than those which were given reservations in Oklahoma. Eventually nearly all of the tribes which were settled in Kansas and Nebraska were removed to Oklahoma but it was not done until the white settlements became so numerous in those states as to almost surround their reservations. Practically all of these tribal removals from Kansas and Nebraska occurred during the decade immediately following the close of the Civil war."—J. B. Thoburn, *Standard history of Oklahoma*, pp. 73, 75.—Meanwhile, a number of treaties had been negotiated with the western tribes by which they relinquished vast tracts of land in Indian Territory and the surrounding region. General William Clark, superintendent of Indian affairs for the region west of the Mississippi, and Auguste Chouteau, acting as commissioners for the United States, were responsible for a treaty with the Quapaws, signed at St. Louis, 1818, by which that tribe gave up territory between the Canadian, Arkansas, and Red rivers. General Clark also arranged treaties with the Osage tribes whereby other tracts were relinquished, thus making it possible for the government to assign large reservations to the immigrant tribes

from the southern states. The development of steam navigation greatly facilitated the removal of the Indian tribes from the south. The Arkansas river was the great means of communication with the outside world at this period. In 1828 the first steamboat to go above Fort Smith, the *Facility*, ascended the Arkansas to the Grand river. As early as 1837, one fine steamboat, owned by Cherokees, was engaged in traffic between New Orleans and points in the Indian Territory. "Most of the Choctaws were moved to the Indian Territory during the years 1832-3-4. Some of them came across the country in wagons. [Others were transported by steamboats, up the Mississippi and Arkansas rivers, and were landed at Fort Coffee, near Skulaville. Heartbroken and homesick, as well as worn out with the exposure and privations of the journey, an unduly large proportion of the members of the immigrating tribes sickened and died and were buried in unmarked graves by the wayside. . . . During the summer of 1836 several parties of Cherokees, aggregating in all about 6,000 people, were started on their westward journey under the supervision of army officers. Most of these made the journey by boat down the Tennessee and Ohio rivers to the far side of the Mississippi, whence they finished the trip overland to the Indian Territory."—*Ibid.*, pp. 107-108, 111.

1830-1844.—Settlement of Indians.—Five Civilized Tribes.—Camp Holmes council.—The Indian consolidation policy of the United States brought the Indians west rapidly. In 1830 the Choctaws of Mississippi agreed to move under the same promise as that made to the Cherokees, that their lands should never be included within the limits of a state or organized territory. In 1831 the Senecas and Shawnees ceded their lands in Ohio for large reservations in Indian Territory. The Creeks and Seminoles were united in the west by the treaties of 1832 and 1833. By the close of 1835, provisions had thus been made for settling the Choctaws, Creeks, Seminoles, and Cherokees, four of the so-called Five Civilized Tribes. The fifth tribe, the Chickasaw, whose home had been in Mississippi, agreed to move in 1837. "In February, 1833, commissioners from the United States met delegates from the Creeks and from the Western Cherokees at Fort Gibson to settle all conflicting claims. The northern limit of the Cherokee country was established definitely at the southern line of the Osage territory, practically at the thirty-seventh parallel. All the country between the Osages and the Choctaws from the Mexican border to Arkansas and Missouri was divided between Creeks and the Cherokees. . . . The Cherokee country was divided nominally into two parts. . . . The western part was styled a 'perpetual outlet west,' but the Cherokees were promised the free and unmolested use of it. . . . Although the United States had received all of the present state of Oklahoma from the Quapaws and Osages and had distributed it among tribes from the states east of the Mississippi, yet the . . . Plains Tribes, considered its western half a part of their hunting-grounds. To forestall serious trouble United States commissioners called a great council of the tribes concerned. It met in August, 1835, at 'Camp Holmes on the eastern border of the Grand Prairie, near the Canadian River.' . . . To this place came representatives of the Cherokees, Muskogees or Creeks, Choctaws, Osages, Senecas, and Quapaws, to meet representatives of the Comanches and Wichitas. These tribes agreed to remain on friendly terms with one another and with the United States. The 'Great Prairie west of the Cross Timbers' was made a common hunting-

ground, and licensed Indian traders were promised protection therein. . . . In this way, what is now Oklahoma was divided by a line drawn north and south almost through its center—a prophecy of the time when the civilized tribes were to have its eastern half, and 'blanket' Indians its western half."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 14-15, 17.—By 1844, the boundary between the Cherokees and the Osages was also well defined. As the massing of the Indians called for a better organization of the territory, two bills for that purpose were passed by Congress in 1834. They provided for a reorganization of the department of Indian affairs, and for the regulation of trade. White settlement in this region, now referred to as "Western Territory," was forbidden.

1844-1856.—Road to the west.—Northern territory cut off.—Dissension among Indians.—Treaty with Chickasaws and Choctaws.—"The movement to open the northern part of the larger Indian Territory was connected from the beginning with a desire for a road to the West. The first official suggestion of an encroachment upon the country of the Indians was made in 1844. . . . Within a quarter of a century of the establishment of the larger Indian Territory, it was divided at the thirty-seventh parallel. The northern part was organized and opened to white settlers, while the southern part was left unorganized. This contrast in the disposition of the two parts was due chiefly to the difference between their respective situations in relation to the road to the West. . . . The Indians of the Five Civilized Tribes were more nearly ready for the dissolution of their tribal governments in 1854 than the Indians of western Oklahoma were a generation later. . . . The Seminoles were not satisfied with their connection with the Creeks, considering it subordination. Farther south, the Chickasaws wished to separate from the Choctaws. . . . In June, 1855, a treaty was made with the Chickasaws and Choctaws by which these tribes, which had formed one people since 1837, were separated. . . . Separate reservations and distinct tribal organizations were also given to the Creeks and the Seminoles by a treaty made and ratified in August, 1856."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 25, 44-45, 50-52.

1845.—Across Oklahoma to California.—"In 1845 Capt. John C. Fremont, then en route to the Pacific Coast on an exploring expedition, detached Lieut. James J. Abert, near Bent's Fort, Colorado, sending him southward to explore what is now Western Oklahoma. Lieutenant Abert explored the valley of the Canadian and that of the Upper Washita."—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, p. 61.

1845-1861.—Development of Indian Territory.—"The period of fifteen years which ended shortly before the outbreak of the Civil War was distinguished as one of quiet and peaceful development in the Indian Territory. During this period the people of the Five Civilized Tribes made great progress. . . . Many of the Indians had neat, well-kept homes, with all of the comforts and conveniences of civilized life."—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, p. 72.

1858.—Survey of northern boundary.—"In the summer of 1858 the boundary line between Kansas and Oklahoma (37th Parallel of North Latitude), was surveyed by a party under the direction of Lieut. Col. Joseph E. Johnson, 2nd U. S. Dragoons."—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, p. 67.

1860-1865.—Civil War brought into Indian territory.—Part taken by Indians.—Neutrality of Cherokees.—Albert Pike as Confederate commissioner.—Council at Camp Napoleon.—"The territory included in the present state of Oklahoma had been set apart originally for the southern Indians, and until 1860 it had been occupied by them alone; but at the close of the Civil War, the United States deprived them of their exclusive rights within its limits. The position of the Five Civilized Tribes on the border, not their sympathy for the Southern Confederacy, caused them to take part in the war between Union and secession. The abandonment of the Indian Territory by the United States and its occupation by the Confederacy made it necessary for the Indians to recognize the authority of the Confederate government or oppose it unaided. After the war, the United States made this recognition a pretext for disregarding old agreements. . . . The first formal action in the Indian Territory regarding the coming conflict was taken by the Choctaws. On February 7, 1861, carefully worded resolutions were adopted by their legislature. . . . The resolutions expressed the hope that the Union would continue, but also the desire of the Choctaws to go with the Southern states in case of its dissolution. . . . On May 25 the Chickasaw legislature adopted violent resolutions which set forth that the government had deserted them and ignored their treaty rights. A sort of declaration of independence was issued, and the other Indians were called upon to assert their independence. The principal chief of the Choctaws responded to this on June 14 with a proclamation declaring the Choctaws independent. These declarations were preliminary to an alliance with the Confederates. Three days later, on June 17, John Ross, the chief of the Cherokees, in a letter to General Ben McCulloch, the commander of a force of Arkansas troops, said that he and his people wished to remain neutral. [President Davis, of the Southern Confederacy, sent Albert Pike as a commissioner to the tribes west of Arkansas; and he succeeded during the summer of 1861 in making treaties with a number of the tribes, including Creeks, Chickasaws, Choctaws, Seminoles, Osages, and Quapaws. But on the very day of the Osage Treaty the superintendent of Indian affairs for this region reported to Washington that the Indians in his district were loyal.] It can never be known how far Pike's treaties met the approval of the majority of the Indians. After the war, some of the tribes were naturally anxious to make it appear that they had not approved the treaties when they were made and that deception and even force had been used. It is certain that their only advisers were Confederates, and it must have seemed to them that the Confederate States had succeeded to the position recently held by the United States. The territory of the Choctaws and Chickasaws was held by the Confederates until practically the close of the war."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 56-59, 61, 73-75.—After the surrender of the last Confederate force, a council of Indians at Camp Napoleon decided to send delegates to ask a restoration of harmonious relations with the United States. A treaty commission was sent out to meet these delegates on the border, at Fort Smith. The Indians were told that they had forfeited their rights under the old treaties, but that the claims of those who had remained loyal would not be forgotten. New treaties were proposed by the commission with provisions for one consolidated government, but the Indians refused to accept them. An agreement of

renewed friendship was finally made, but all the questions at issue were left to be settled later.

1865-1876.—Indian outbreaks.—Custer massacre. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1865-1876; U.S.A.: 1866-1876.

1866.—Effects of Civil War.—"The representatives of the Government found chaotic conditions in the Indian Territory when peace was finally proclaimed. Farms had been abandoned, buildings destroyed and stock run off or confiscated by contending forces. Churches and schools had practically ceased to exist, and social, business and industrial conditions were generally demoralized. The people were encouraged to return, to rebuild their homes, and to reopen their farms. Stock, seeds, and implements were purchased for them, and thus they began life under the new order of things."—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, pp. 106-108.

1866-1879.—Treaties with Indians.—Attempts to organize territory.—"The history of the Indian Territory from 1866 to 1879 is the history of a struggle for the concentration of the Indians and the establishment of a territorial government. The one was partly accomplished; the other was left undone. The failure to effect a territorial organization was due chiefly to the opposition of the Indians, who believed that a change in their status would make it possible for the railroads to secure a foothold in their country. In time, the Indians came to believe that all the bills for the establishment of territorial government were schemes for depriving them of their land. The first task of the government after the Civil War was to secure territory from the Five Civilized Tribes for the use of other Indians."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 79-80.—"In their terms the treaties had much in common, yet they necessarily differed much in detail. All provided that there should be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, and each made some provision by which the legal status of freedmen should be fixed. All of the treaties contained explicit consent for the construction of railway lines across their respective tribal reservations. All contained provision for the federation of the tribes of the Indian Territory with a general legislative council, the membership of which was to be apportioned among the several tribes according to their population. All made provision for the settlement of other tribes of friendly Indians in the Territory. All of the treaties proclaimed a general amnesty on account of offenses committed as acts of war between 1861 and 1865, and each made provision for the reimbursement of tribesmen who had suffered loss or destruction of property by reason of their loyalty to the Union during the War."—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, p. 108.—"On March 17, 1870, Benjamin F. Rice, senator from Arkansas, introduced a bill for the organization of the Indian Territory under the name of 'Ok-la-ho-ma.' This bill was reported favorably on April 27 by Rice's colleague, Alexander McDonald, for the Committee on Territories. It was explained that the name proposed meant 'home for the red man' in the Choctaw tongue and that it had been given to the Indian Territory in the treaty of 1866 with the Chickasaws and Choctaws. For the next twenty years hardly a Congress passed without the introduction of one or more bills for the establishment of the Territory of Oklahoma."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 85, 86.

1866-1883.—Extermination of the buffalo.—Coming of ranchers.—Cattle raisers associations.—The building of the first railway lines

across the western plains brought unforeseen economic results. Easy transportation of skins and meat led to the wholesale slaughter of buffaloes, which in a few years were practically exterminated. The Indians, who had heretofore relied upon the buffalo herds for food, clothing, and shelter, were forced to seek aid at the tribal agencies for rations and supplies of clothing. Also the disappearance of the wild herds was soon followed by the coming of cattlemen with their stock. The grasses which had furnished sustenance for the buffaloes provided equally good grazing for the cattle. Lands were leased from the Indian reservations at low prices, and cattle ranches began to appear. There was, too, a movement of range cattle northward from the vast herds of Texas to railway lines in Kansas, beginning in 1866. In the earlier years of the Texas cattle trade, these herds were brought across central Oklahoma to avoid the hostility of the wilder Indian tribes to the west. For the grazing privileges, the early ranchmen paid to the Cherokee nation a tax of twenty-five cents per head. But there was usually more or less trouble because of the lack of a settled policy between ranchers, herdsmen, and Indians. "In the case of the Cheyennes and Arapahoes, leases aggregating 3,117,880 acres of land were made respectively to seven different parties for ten-year periods at an annual rental of 2 cents per acre, in January, 1883. . . . Finally it became apparent that some species of tenure other than that of merely occupying the range and paying a head tax on the number of cattle held on such ranges would have to be devised. Meanwhile, cattlemen were learning something of the advantages of organization. The Texas Cattle Raisers' Association was the first of these organizations to be effected. The advantages of meeting in convention for the purposes of counseling together concerning matters of common interest were soon manifest and similar associations of live stock men were formed in other parts of the West. . . . The fact that they were gaining confidence as the result of organizing was amply attested by the amount of wire fence which was built on their ranges during the following summer. The fencing of the ranges in the Cherokee strip had a very disquieting effect upon the 'boomers' who were trying to effect a settlement in the Unassigned Lands. . . . From that time on, the issue between the range cattle interests and the intending settlers was clearly defined."—J. B. Thoburn, *Standard history of Oklahoma*, pp. 534-535.

1872.—Railroad construction.—"On July 25, 26, and 27 [1866], charters were granted to three railroads in the Indian Territory. To each road was made a grant of land to aid in its construction, but the grant was to be effective only when the Indian title should be extinguished. In accordance with these provisions, two railroads were constructed in the Indian Territory in 1871 and 1872; the Missouri, Kansas, and Texas across the territory from north to south, and the Atlantic and Pacific from the Missouri state line to a junction with the other road."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, p. 83.

1874-1902.—Care of deaf and blind children. See CHARITIES: United States: 1874-1902.

1885.—Agitation against fencing Oklahoma lands.—Constant efforts to secure the opening of the lands in Oklahoma to white settlement by legal means had thus far had no results. The "boomers," companies of adventurers who hovered on the outskirts of the Indian Territory, occasionally stole across the border to make settlements, but were usually driven out by United States

troops. Captain David L. Payne was the most noted of the leaders during the boomer period which lasted about ten years. "Finding that there was to be no change of policy with respect to their claims under the Cleveland administration, the 'boomers' determined that the cattle companies should be brought to respect the law also. With this end in view, they started a strong agitation against the illegal fencing of the public domain in the Oklahoma country. It proved to be a popular appeal, and soon the pressure became so strong that President Cleveland issued a proclamation (August 7, 1885) ordering that such fences be removed. This was a moral victory for the 'boomers,' though, in effect, it was barren of results, for the cattle companies paid practically no attention to it. The 'boomers' made another organized effort to settle in Oklahoma under the leadership of Couch during the ensuing autumn. They were removed by Lieut. Col. E. V. Sumner, 5th U.S. Cavalry, November 10, 1885. This was the last organized attempt to settle in Oklahoma without warrant of law."—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, p. 167.

1885.—Threatened Indian outbreak.—"In the spring of 1885 many of the Cheyenne Indians became restless and were reported to be buying and secreting arms and ammunition. . . . After a thorough investigation into the causes of dissatisfaction among the Cheyennes, General Sheridan notified President Cleveland that there could be no permanent settlement of the trouble until the stockmen were required to remove their cattle from the Cheyenne and Arapaho Reservation. Accordingly President Cleveland issued a proclamation, July 23, 1885, warning all owners of stock on that reservation to remove the same within forty days and declaring existing leases to be void and of no effect."—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, pp. 164, 166.

1885-1887.—Dawes Act.—In 1885, H. L. Dawes, senator for Massachusetts, introduced a bill which provided for the allotment of land in severalty to Indians. The bill was passed in 1887, but excluded the lands of the Five Civilized Tribes, the Osage, Peoria, Miami or Sac and Fox Indians, all of whom were known to be definitely opposed to such a measure.—See also U.S.A.: 1885-1891.

1885-1889.—Disappearance of frontier.—Purchase of Creek and Seminole lands.—President authorized to open Oklahoma Territory.—The Indians were made to feel the pressure of the western movement of population. (See U.S.A.: 1885-1891.) "In January, 1889, a delegation headed by Pleasant Porter came to Washington and offered to relinquish to the United States the Creek claims. . . . William F. Vilas, who had succeeded Lamar as Secretary of the Interior, received the delegation under the authority conferred by the law of March 3, 1885. An agreement was signed on January 19, 1889, in which the Creeks for a consideration of two million two hundred and eighty thousand dollars released the United States from all restrictions on the use of the entire Creek cession of 1866. Secretary Vilas had hardly completed the negotiations with the Creeks before two Seminole delegates presented themselves. On February 15 they submitted a formal communication asking the government to enter into an agreement with them concerning their cession of 1866, similar to the agreement just made with the Creeks. . . . The Senate Committee on Indian Affairs by its chairman promptly introduced a bill to accept the offer of the Seminoles and to make an appropriation of one million nine hundred and

twelve thousand dollars as additional compensation for the land ceded by them in 1866. . . . As the adjournment of Congress was at hand . . . the members of the House Committee on Indian Affairs agreed to try to attach it as an amendment to an additional section of importance. This section authorized the President to open the Oklahoma district to settlement immediately, in accordance with the terms of the homestead law. . . . The Indian appropriation bill thus amended . . . was passed finally by both houses on March 2, 1889, and was approved by President Cleveland on the same day."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 149-151.—See also U.S.A.: 1889-1890.

1889-1890.—Opening day proclaimed.—Rush of settlers.—Race for homes.—Organization convention.—Organic Act.—Territorial government.—"March 23, 1889, President Benjamin Harrison issued a proclamation setting the date of the proposed opening of the Oklahoma country to settlement on the twenty-second of April, at 12 M. . . . As the appointed day for the legal opening of the Oklahoma country to homestead settlement drew near, throngs of people began to assemble on the border of the promised land. The multitude of intending settlers included many of the former 'boomers,' but they were in the minority. . . . Promptly at noon, on the twenty-second day of April, 1889, the cavalymen, who patrolled the borders of the promised land, fired their carbines in the air as a signal that the settlers could move across the line. A mighty shout arose and then the race for claims and homes began. Hundreds crowded the trains of the single railway line that entered Oklahoma; thousands rode on fleet horses, lightly saddled; other thousands rode in buggies and buckboards, and others yet, in heavy farm wagons, drawn by slower teams; yes, and some even made the race on foot!"—J. B. Thoburn and I. M. Holcomb, *History of Oklahoma*, pp. 173-174.—All the valuable land in the newly opened territory was taken up in a single day, and the city of Guthrie, which had no existence when the morning rush began, before night fell had a population of 10,000 souls. "Late in May a call was issued for a convention to meet at Guthrie, July 17, for the purpose of planning the organization of a territorial government. . . . Congress convened in regular session in December. A strong delegation of representative Oklahoma people was on hand with memorials and petitions to urge the immediate passage of an act providing for the organization of the Territory of Oklahoma. But Congress was deliberate and the people of Oklahoma had to wait five long months for the passage of a bill. . . . The Organic Act provided that the Territorial Government should consist of executive, legislative and judicial departments. The Governor and Secretary of the Territory were to be appointed by the President of the United States; the other executive officers to be chosen by the Governor. The Territorial Legislative Assembly consisted of two branches, a Council of thirteen members and a House of Representatives of twenty-six members. The territorial Supreme Court, as originally constituted, consisted of one chief justice and two associate justices, all to be appointed by the President, and all of whom also served as judges of the district courts. Immediately after the approval of the Organic Act, President Harrison appointed the first Territorial officers. George W. Steele, of Indiana, was named as governor. Governor Steele immediately came to Guthrie, which had been designated as the temporary capital, and entered upon the discharge of

his official duties May 22, 1890."—*Ibid.*, pp. 179-181.—See also U.S.A.: 1880-1890.

1889-1898.—Courts for Indian territory.—Tribal ownership and its abuse.—"On March 1, 1889, an act was passed establishing a United States court at Muskogee for the Indian Territory. Jurisdiction was given to this court in civil cases in which citizens of the United States were interested, if the amount involved exceeded the sum of one hundred dollars. . . . The tribal courts however, were allowed to retain exclusive jurisdiction in all cases, civil and criminal, in which only members of the tribes were concerned. . . . The conditions among the Indians themselves called for the attention of Congress. . . . Under the system of the tribal ownership of land with the free use of it by individuals, less than one-fourth of the Indians occupied nearly all that was desirable. Energetic, aggressive tribesmen, usually adopted whites or persons of mixed descent, had possession of farms of hundreds or even thousands of acres. . . . The Indian of pure blood usually lived as far as possible from a town and cultivated a plot of a few acres. His live stock perhaps consisted of a single pony. These conditions provided a strong argument for the allotment of lands in severalty. . . . The tribal courts were abolished [June 28, 1898], and all cases were transferred to the United States courts. Tribal laws were done away with, and the Indians were brought under the laws of the United States. The Dawes Commission was authorized to proceed with the allotment of lands as soon as the rolls of citizens should be completed. Oil, coal, asphalt, and mineral lands were reserved from allotment and set aside to be leased for the benefit of the tribes. The town sites were also reserved, and provisions were made for the sale of town lots under rules intended to protect the rights both of Indians and of owners of improvements."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 181-186, 191, 192.

1889-1916.—Evolution of educational system.—Subscription schools.—Establishment of public schools and universities under territorial government.—Incorporation of Indian schools with Federal schools.—"When Oklahoma was opened to white settlement, in 1889, the organization of a public school system was not possible until after the passage of the organic act and the installation of a territorial government. During the year which intervened between the date of the opening and the establishment of the territorial government, subscription schools were maintained in the larger towns and cities. The organic act provided for the organization of a system of public schools and appropriated the sum of \$50,000 for the support of the same until the necessary revenue could be raised by local taxation for their maintenance. In accordance with the law under which the lands of Oklahoma were opened to settlement, two sections of each township (16 and 36) were reserved for the benefit of the public schools of the future commonwealth. When the territorial government was installed, the organization of a public school system was promptly undertaken. . . . The first territorial Legislative Assembly enacted the necessary laws for the location and establishment of the University, at Norman, the Agricultural and Mechanical College, at Stillwater, and the Normal School, at Edmond. All of these institutions were organized during the following year. . . . The Legislative Assembly of 1897 passed an act providing for the establishment of the Northwestern State Normal at Alva. In 1901 the Assembly made provision for the establishment of

two additional state schools—the Southwestern State Normal which, after some contention and litigation, was finally located at Weatherford, and the University Preparatory School which was located at Tonkawa. . . . A district school was established in nearly every community within a year after its settlement. . . . In the Indian Territory each of the five civilized tribes had its own educational system, with its national superintendent of schools. These schools consisted of two classes, namely, (1) the district schools which, while primitive in type and in character of work done, were somewhat analogous to the district schools now maintained, and (2) the tribal academies and seminaries, most of which correspond to the grammar school grades, though there were a few which approximated the high school grade. In addition to these there were a number of mission schools scattered throughout the five civilized tribes. . . . With the passage of the Curtis act in 1898 the control of the tribal school systems were taken over by a Federal school administration. The common schools of the five civilized tribes were brought under a uniform system for the first time. To the supervision of this important work John D. Benedict, an Illinois educator of experience and standing was appointed. He was assisted by four district supervisors. Under his direction the schools of the Indian Territory were radically remodeled and improved."—J. B. Thoburn, *Standard history of Oklahoma*, pp. 873-876.

ALSO IN: L. B. Hill, *History of the state of Oklahoma*.

1891-1901.—Allotment of land to Indians in severalty.—Settlements.—Purchase of Cherokee outlet.—"In accordance with the terms of . . . [the Dawes act], which was supplemented by special agreements with the tribes, lands were allotted in severalty to two thousand seven hundred and eighteen Indians on the Iowa, Sac and Fox, and Pottawatomie-Shawnee reservations situated east of the Oklahoma district. After the Indians had received their allotments, nine hundred thousand acres remained in their reservations, and on September 22, 1891, this area was opened to settlement. The land was not given away. It was sold in tracts of one hundred and sixty acres each for a dollar and a quarter or a dollar and a half an acre, to actual occupants only, who must also be qualified to enter land under the homestead law. Nevertheless, the rush was similar to the one of 1889. Practically every tract was occupied on the first day. [The Cheyenne and Arapahoe reservation in the western part of the territory was opened to settlers in 1892. Meanwhile the government also completed negotiations with the Cherokees for the opening of the outlet.] The Cherokees gave up a tract of more than six million acres. For it they received eight and one-half million dollars. They also stipulated that seventy of their tribesmen should receive allotments in the cession. Finally, they secured a new promise that intruders should be removed from the country remaining to them. . . . The President issued his proclamation on August 19, 1893, declaring that the land would be opened to settlement at noon on September 16, . . . In the eight years from 1893 to 1901 only two additions were made to the area that was open to settlement. One small reservation, that of the Kickapoos, was opened, and the Supreme Court decided against the claims of Texas to the land between the forks of the Red River."—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 163, 165, 166, 168.

1891-1907.—Agitation for statehood.—“In 1891 agitation for admission of Oklahoma Territory and Indian Territory, as one state, began. . . . The representatives of the civilized tribes presented many arguments in opposition to the proposed statehood legislation. . . . One delegate said, ‘I am an old Indian, and I only know one way; and . . . you have agreed with me (that is, with the Creek Nation) that in no time, shall that country be included within the bounds and limits of any state; and I am perfectly satisfied that you will live up to that.’”—J. B. Thoburn, *Standard history of Oklahoma*, p. 673.—Bills for admitting Oklahoma to the Union had been introduced into every Congress since the territory was organized, but it was not until the latter part of the first session of the fifty-seventh Congress that Delegate Flynn secured the passage of a Statehood Bill by the House. When Congress convened in December, 1902, a famous legislative battle over the admission of new states began. The Democrats of the south and west supporting the Omnibus Bill which had passed the House, were opposed by Senator Beveridge, chairman of the Committee on territories, and most of his colleagues on that committee who were against the admission of Arizona and New Mexico at that time. The committee reported a bill for the admission of Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one state. The battle was waged furiously for some time, but in the end the Omnibus Bill was crowded out. “It soon became clear that the leaders in Congress had determined upon a union of the territories. In 1903, Congress met in a brief session. A bill was introduced in each house for the immediate admission of Oklahoma alone, but this was the last serious effort to admit Oklahoma without the immediate inclusion of the Indian territory.”—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the State of Oklahoma*, p. 206.—A bill was introduced in 1904 calling for the admission of two states, one made up of Oklahoma and the Indian Territory, the other of Arizona and New Mexico. This was passed by the House of Representatives, but rejected by the Senate in 1905. In 1905 an effort was made to have the territory occupied by the Five Civilized Tribes made into a separate state to be named Sequoyah; but the bill introduced in Congress did not receive a hearing in either House. Finally in 1906 an act covering Oklahoma, Indian Territory, New Mexico and Arizona enabled the people of Oklahoma and of the Indian Territory to form a constitution and state government and be admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the “original states.” The delegates to a constitutional convention were immediately chosen. The convention held its first meeting in November, and the constitution was finally adopted in July 1907. It was submitted to the people on September 17, and ratified, and on November 16, 1907, proclamation was made of the entry into the Union of the new state—See also U.S.A.: 1906 (June).

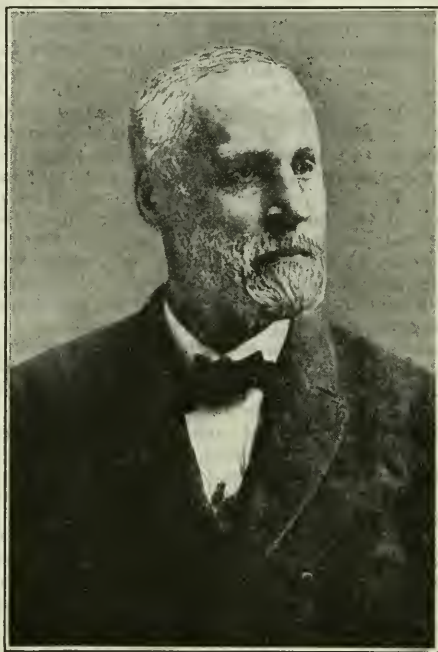
1893-1903.—Dawes commission.—A joint resolution of the two Houses, authorizing the appointment of a commission to negotiate with individual members of the Five Civilized Tribes, and induce them to take homesteads, was incorporated in the Indian Appropriation Bill of 1893. Senator Dawes was appointed chairman of the commission which carried on its labors until June, 1903, when it disbanded.

1898-1902.—Dissolution of tribes.—Indians declared citizens of the United States.—“The tribes in the Indian Territory were nearly dissolved before the end of the nineteenth century. The governments of the Five Civilized Tribes were

still in existence, but they were little more than consulting agents in the management of the business of the tribes. . . . An act of March 3, 1901, declared that all the Indians in the Indian Territory were citizens of the United States. A great deal was still to be done to close up the affairs of the Five Civilized Tribes, but they had ceased to exist except as financial corporations.”—R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 193-195.—In 1902, Indian Territory included one hundred and forty-seven incorporated towns.

1907.—Industrial arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1907.—Indian population.—The enrollment, completed in 1907, showed the Indian citizenship as follows: Seminoles, 3,122; Creeks, 18,716; Cherokees, 41,716; Choctaws, 26,730; and Chickasaws,



HENRY LAURENS DAWES

10,995; total tribal membership, 101,239, about one-fourth of whom were full bloods.

1907-1908.—Admission as a state.—Jurisdiction over Indians transferred to the state.—“Oklahoma became a State on November 16, 1907, with 1,500,000 population. Included within the borders of that State were over 100,000 Indians who only a few years ago owned every foot of that fertile domain, known as Indian Territory, secured to them by the solemn grant and covenants of our government. Oklahoma is an Indian word said to mean, ‘the home of the red man.’ . . . In the very nature of things the white man’s view of progress and prosperity in Oklahoma is incompatible with the Indian’s enjoyment of the rights vested in him by treaties with the government. While framing legislation looking to the erection of a State upon this land, Congress undertook to establish safeguards for protection of the Indians in their new relations. In the treaties of 1808, 1901 and 1902 provisions were made to allot all these lands to the Individual Indians. Having in mind their inexperience and improvi-

dence, restrictions upon the sale of their lands were imposed in various measures. After the lapse of a fixed number of years the degree of blood was to test the Indians' capacity for making provident sales. A homestead was reserved out of each allotment which could not be sold for 21 years. As a further protection and in consideration of the Indian's agreement to the allotment of the land, certain tax exemptions were reserved to the Indian on all or part of his allotment for a limited period of time. Not long after these agreements were made with the Indians the white people, whose presence here was a violation of a score of solemn but empty promises made by our government, discovered that these provisions made for the Indians' protection did not meet with their approval. From that time to this the white man has waged a tireless contest to remove every measure of Indian protection that seems to stand in his way. . . . Since Oklahoma was first represented in Congress it has been urged that the Indian situation should be given over to the care of the State, and that local authority could be trusted to give the Indians all the protection they need. In response to this demand Congress passed an act on May 27, 1908, declaring the status of the Indian in Oklahoma and removing the restrictions on the sale of over nine million acres of their land. This act also committed to the probate courts of Oklahoma full and complete jurisdiction over the persons and property of all minors of the Five Civilized Tribes who previously were under the protection and control of the Federal Government."—G. Foreman, *Protecting the Indian* (*Independent*, Jan. 2, 1913, pp. 39-41).

ALSO IN: R. Gittinger, *Formation of the state of Oklahoma*, pp. 191-195, 230.—F. W. Hodge, *Handbook of American Indians north of Mexico* (*Smithsonian Institution*).

1907-1916.—Political innovations.—Initiative and referendum.—Corporation commission.—"When Oklahoma adopted her constitution preparatory to admission into the Union, that document was widely criticised in certain quarters as 'radicalism run wild.' The many-worded constitution [it contains 30,000 words] has proven more formidable in length than in the fundamental character of its ponderous articles and numerous sections. The student will be a little surprised to find that the article devoted to the initiative and referendum is explicit, comparatively brief, carefully written and conservative in word and spirit. . . . Petitions and orders for the initiative and for the referendum shall be filed with the secretary of state and addressed to the governor of the state, who shall submit the same to the people. The referendum may be demanded against one or more items, sections, or parts of any act of the legislature,' but this shall not delay the remainder of the act from going into effect."—C. B. Galbreath, *Provisions for state-wide initiative and referendum* (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Sept., 1912, pp. 99-100).—See also INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States.—Another feature of the new constitution which was regarded as radical, was the strict regulation of public utilities corporations, partly by legislative enactment, but chiefly through the work of the Corporation Commission. "The people of Oklahoma who have to wait in the stations, ride on the trains and pay the freight, created a commission to establish their theory that public service corporations are licensed by the state primarily to serve the public. They bedded its authority deep in the constitution of the state and employed twenty-five or thirty

sections of that document to define its powers. . . . Pleased with the work of the commission, the people have enlarged its authority from time to time and a recent legislature committed to it jurisdiction of the vast natural resources of oil and gas. . . . The commission is called on frequently to determine what constitutes reasonable train service. A multitude of unfair freight rates have been considered and corrected. Refunds varying from a few cents to many dollars have been and constantly are being secured for patrons of railroads, and untold savings have been made to the people of Oklahoma by regulation of the freight rates. The commission deals in a direct manner with the questions before it and the humble citizen may apply for relief without cost. Many controversies that in other states would be heard by the courts, if at all, are considered promptly and the relief applied expeditiously and effectively. . . . Ninety per cent of such complaints submitted to the commission are adjusted in the most informal manner. So potent is the commission that frequently a letter to the offending corporation brings satisfactory adjustment, and often a telephone call will accomplish what otherwise, if the law afforded a remedy at all, could be secured only at the end of a tedious and expensive lawsuit. Where this method fails the matter is set for hearing according to the established procedure, either at the capitol or at some other town convenient to the parties interested. Vested with judicial functions and large executive powers, with authority to institute proceedings, to enforce its mandates and to punish for violation of its orders by fine as for contempt, accountable in a limited sense to only one court in the state, the Corporation Commission is an extraordinary agency of the people of the state. It is responsive to every demand, and by its simple procedure and expeditious method of apply remedies avoids the criticism most often directed at the courts."—G. Foreman, *Trusts and people get together* (*Independent*, Dec., 11, 1916, p. 454.)

ALSO IN: C. A. Beard, *American government and politics*, pp. 727, 729.

1910.—Removal of capital from Guthrie to Oklahoma City.—In 1910 the capital was changed from Guthrie to Oklahoma City, near the geographical center of the state.

1910-1915.—Grandfather clause declared unconstitutional.—Amendments ratified.—"On August 2 [1910] Oklahoma voted by approximately 40,000 majority to disfranchise practically all of its negroes. This franchise amendment is almost an exact copy of the North Carolina 'grandfather clause,' which the Federal Supreme Court has given the sanction of legality. . . . The vital difference between this clause and that which has been adopted in North Carolina is that it creates a permanent condition, whereas in North Carolina, it was adopted as a temporary expedient."—*Outlook*, Aug. 20, 1910, pp. 853, 854.—While criticism of the grandfather clause was still being heard everywhere, it was declared unconstitutional by the state supreme court; and in 1915, the United States Supreme Court upheld this decision. On March 14, 1910, Oklahoma ratified the Sixteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution; and on March 5, 1913, the Seventeenth Federal Amendment was ratified.

1913.—Work of commissioner of charities.—Rich oil lands.—Defense of Indian orphans.—The work of the commissioner of charities in Oklahoma is unique, both from the nature of the problems and from the method adopted. Much of the land allotted in severalty to the Indians

of the various tribes has proved to be exceedingly valuable because of the presence of oil, asphalt, coal, or other deposits. "This country of the Osage nation, made so rich in recent years by the bringing in of the Mid-Continent Oil Fields, is said to be the richest nation per capita in the world."—M. Nagle, *Aborigines (Oklahoma Authors' Club, Romance of Oklahoma)*.—There has been a temptation to exploit these Indian lands, and to purchase them at a tenth of their value. In the case of orphans among the Indians, their land has been cared for by guardians, whose motives have often been questionable. But in Oklahoma, as in New Jersey, a single commissioner of charities has done the work usually accomplished by a board, and with notably good results. "The legal department has taken up a vast number of Indian orphan cases. The results have been positively surprising. The legal department has not failed in one single case. The entire amount of money wrested from incompetent or dishonest guardians and returned to orphans has been nearly \$950,000. . . . Besides acting as next friend of orphan children, the general attorney of the commission has been . . . acting as public defender. It seemed to the Legislature that there was as much need of a public defender as of a public prosecutor. . . . On the whole it seems as though the plan of a single headed commission is a success in the State of Oklahoma."—A Johnson, *Commission of charities in Oklahoma (Survey, Apr. 26, 1913, pp. 138-139)*.—See also CHARITIES; PUBLIC DEFENDER.—In 1913 a state liquor law was passed, prohibiting the sale of liquor in regions occupied by Indians.

1913.—Attempt to guarantee bank deposits.—Oklahoma's banking law, as amended in 1913, provides for guarantees that bank deposits will be paid. Each bank is assessed annually to make up a guaranty fund.

1918.—Part played in World War.—The state furnished 80,169 soldiers or 2.13 per cent of the whole force. A national guard camp, Camp Donighan, was located at Fort Sill.

1918-1920.—Equal suffrage.—Miss Robertson in the house.—In 1918 Oklahoma granted full suffrage to women, being the fourteenth state to adopt equal suffrage before the ratification of the federal amendment to that effect August 29, 1920. (See also U.S.A.: 1918 [November].) In November 19, 1920, Miss Alice Robertson of Muskogee was elected to the United States House of Representatives. She was the second woman to sit with that body. January 7, 1918, Oklahoma ratified the Eighteenth Federal Amendment to the Constitution, and February, 28, 1920, she ratified the Nineteenth Federal Amendment.

1920.—Status of Indian inhabitants.—Treatment of them. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1920: Facts on Oklahoma Indians.

1923.—Oil and gas industry.—In his message to the legislature, Governor Walton reported that the oil and gas industry through the gross production tax was paying all the expenses of state government.

ALSO IN: M. H. Merrill, *Oklahoma legislature (Southwestern Political Science Quarterly, Sept., 1922)*.

OKTAI. See OGDAL.

OKU, Count Yasukata (1845-), Japanese field-marshal. Commander of the 2nd Army in the Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905; chief of the general staff, 1906-1912; became field-marshal, 1911. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

OKUBO, Toshimitsu (1830-1878), Japanese statesman. One of the leaders of the revolution of

1868 against the Shogunate. See JAPAN: 1863-1868.

OKUMA, Count Shigenobu (1838-1922), Japanese statesman. Founder and leader of the Progressive party; founder and president of Waseda university, Tokio, 1882; finance minister, 1869-1881; prime minister, 1898, 1914-1916. See JAPAN: 1868-1894; 1894-1914; 1895-1902; 1914-1918: Okuma and Terauchi cabinets, etc.; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1871-1913; WORLD WAR: 1914: V. JAPAN: d.

OLAF (d. 941), king of Northumbria and Dublin, c. 934-941.

Olaf, or Anlav (d. 981), king of Northumbria and Dublin.

Olaf I (Tryggvesson) (969-1000), king of Norway, 995-1000.

Olaf II (Haraldsson) (995-1030), king of Norway, 1016-1029.

Olaf III (the Pacific) (d. 1093), king of Norway, 1066-1093.

Olaf IV (the Saint) (1098-1116), king of Norway.

Olaf V (1371-1387), king of Norway.

OLAMENTKE, North American Indian tribe. See MOQUELUMNAN FAMILY.

OLBIA, ancient Greek settlement on the Dnieper. See BORYSTHENES.

OLD AGE INSURANCE. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Old age insurance; Details for various countries: France: 1910; Germany: 1883-1910; 1914-1918; 1918-1920; Great Britain: 1916-1920; Italy: 1898-1919; Portugal: 1919; Spain: 1919; United States: 1920; CHARITIES: Great Britain.

OLD CATHOLIC MOVEMENT. See PACAPACY: 1869-1870.

OLD DOMINION, early name for Virginia. See VIRGINIA: 1650-1660.

OLD GUARD, conservative division of the Republican party. See U.S.A.: 1910 (March-June).

"OLD HICKORY," nickname of Andrew Jackson given in recognition of his strength and endurance. In the presidential campaign of 1828 the hickory pole was the official flag-pole of the Democratic party.

"OLD HICKORY" DIVISION, name for the 30th Division of the United States army, during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: p. 2.

"OLD IRONSIDES," name given to the *Constitution*, the most famous of the American frigates in the War of 1812. See U.S.A.: 1812-1813; 1814.

OLD LEAGUE OF HIGH GERMANY. See SWITZERLAND: 1332-1460.

OLD MAN OF THE MOUNTAIN. See ALAMOOT; ASSASSINS.

OLD NATIONAL ROAD. See CUMBERLAND ROAD.

OLD PINAKOTHEK, museum in Munich noted for its valuable collection of northern art. The museum owes its origin to three notable collections: the paintings of Dürer, the Düsseldorf gallery and the Boisserée collection of works of the Lower Rhenish school. In the course of time the museum was considerably enlarged by the purchase of some important works of the Van Eyck school, notable examples of Italian art and by the addition in 1828 of the Wallerstein collection.

OLD POINT COMFORT, town in Virginia about twelve miles north of Norfolk. See VIRGINIA: 1606-1607.

OLD PROVIDENCE, island off the Mosquito Coast of Nicaragua. In the seventeenth century

an attempt was made to found a colony here by "a score of Puritan dignitaries, including the Earl of Warwick, Lord Saye and Sele, and John Pym [who] incorporated into the Westminster Company in 1630 with a combined purpose of erecting a Puritanic haven and gaining profits for the investors. . . . Prosperity came at once in the form of good crops and rich prizes taken at sea. Some of the latter contained cargoes of negro slaves, as was of course expected, who were distributed among the settlers to aid in raising tobacco; and when a certain Samuel Rishworth undertook to spread ideas of liberty among them he was officially admonished that religion had no concern with negro slavery and that his indiscretions must stop. Slaves were imported so rapidly that the outnumbered whites became apprehensive of rebellion. In the hope of promoting the importation of white labor, so greatly preferable from the public point of view, heavy impositions were laid upon the employment of negroes, but with no avail. The apprehension of evils was promptly justified. A number of the blacks escaped to the mountains where they dwelt as maroons; and in 1638 a concerted uprising . . . strained every resource of the government and the white inhabitants. Three years afterward the weakened settlement was captured by a Spanish fleet; and this was the end of the one Puritan colony in the tropics."—U. B. Phillips, *American negro slavery*, pp. 98-99.

OLD RÉGIME. See **ANCIEN RÉGIME**.

OLD SARUM, former borough, now a parish, in Wiltshire, England. See **SORBIODUNUM**; **ENGLAND**: 1830: Reform movement.

OLD SOUTHWEST. See **NORTH CAROLINA**: 1755-1759.

OLD STYLE: In chronology. See **CHRONOLOGY**: Gregorian reformation.

OLD TESTAMENT. See **HISTORY**: 14; **BIBLE**, **ENGLISH**: Sources; Modern Biblical research.

OLDCASTLE, Sir John (c. 1377-1417), English Lollard leader. Friend of Henry V; accused of heresy, 1413; hanged as a traitor and heretic, 1417.

OLDENBARNEVELDT, Johan van (1547-1619), Dutch statesman. Became pensionary of Rotterdam, 1576; appointed land's advocate of Holland, 1586; executed for treason. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1603-1619; **AARSENS**, **FRANCIS VAN**.

OLDENBURG, former duchy in northern Germany, a republic since 1918. In 1919 the population was 517,765. See **GERMANY**: Map.

1810.—Duchy annexed to France by Napoleon. See **FRANCE**: 1810 (February-December).

1815.—Embraced in Germanic confederation. See **VIENNA**, **CONGRESS OF**.

1833.—In Northwestern League. See **TARIFF**: 1833.

OLEG (879-912), prince of Kiev. See **RUSSIA**: 9th-12th centuries.

OLERON, Isle of, off the west coast of France, near Rochefort, and about ninety miles north of Bordeaux. See **FRANCE**: 1624-1626.

OLÉRON, Laws of.—"The famous maritime laws of Oleron (which is an island adjacent to the coast of France) are usually ascribed to Richard I, though none of the many writers, who have had occasion to mention them, have been able to find any contemporary authority, or even any antient satisfactory warrant for affixing his name to them. They consist of forty-seven short regulations for average, salvage, wreck, &c. copied from the antient Rhodian maritime laws, or perhaps more immediately from those of Barcelona."—D. Macpherson, *Annals of commerce*, v. 1, p. 358.—See

also **ADMIRALTY LAW**: 1798; **INTERNATIONAL LAW**: Maritime codes.

OLGA, Saint (d. 969), princess of Kiev. Saint of the Russian church. See **CHRISTIANITY**: 10th-18th centuries.

OLIGARCHY. See **ARISTOCRACY**; **ATHENS**: B. C. 413-411; **CHILE**: 1833-1884; **GEOMORI**; **ITALY**: 1250-1520; **JAPAN**: 1918-1921; **POLAND**: 1573.

OLIM, old registers of the French Parlement. See **FRANCE**: 1226-1270.

OLISIPO, ancient name for Lisbon.

OLIVA, Treaty of (1660). See **BRANDENBURG**: 1640-1688; **SWEDEN**: 1644-1697.

OLIVARES, Gaspar de Guzman, Count of Olivares and Duke of San Lucar (called El Conde duque) (1587-1645), Spanish statesman. Royal favorite and prime minister, 1621-1643; dismissed and exiled because of unpopularity, 1643. See **SPAIN**: 1598-1700.

OLIVER OF MALMESBURY (fl. 11th century), English Benedictine monk and astrologer. See **AVIATION**: Development of balloons and dirigibles: Early history.

OLIVES, Mount of (Mount Olivet), hill east of Jerusalem. See **CHRISTIANITY**: Map of Jerusalem; **JERUSALEM**: A. D. 33.

OLIVETANS.—"The Order of Olivetans, or Brethren of St. Mary of Mount Olivet, . . . was founded in 1313, by John Tolomei of Siena, a distinguished professor of philosophy in his native city, in gratitude for the miraculous restoration of his sight. In company with a few companions, he established himself in a solitary olive-orchard, near Siena, obtained the approbation of John XXII. for his congregation, and, at the command of the latter, adopted the Rule of St. Benedict."—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 3, p. 149.

OLLAMHS, ancient Irish bards.

OLMSTED ACT (1909). See **PORTO RICO**: 1909: Modification of Fundamental Act.

OLMSTED RESOLUTION. See **U.S.A.**: 1901 (January).

OLMÜTZ, Siege of. See **GERMANY**: 1758.

Humiliation of (1850). See **GERMANY**: 1850-1851.

OLNEY, Richard (1835-1917), American statesman. Attorney-general of the United States, 1893-1895; secretary of state, 1895-1897. See **VENEZUELA**: 1895 (July); (November); **ARBITRATION**, **INTERNATIONAL**: Modern: 1897.

OLPAI, or Olpae, Hill of, mountain fortress in Acarnania, on the eastern shore of the Ambracian gulf. The Acarnanians and Messenians, under the Athenian general, Demosthenes, were victorious here over the Peloponnesians and Ambraciotes in 426 B. C. In the 3rd century B. C. it was the meeting place of the Acarnanian League. See **ACARNANIAN LEAGUE**.

OLUSTEE, Battle of. See **U.S.A.**: 1864 (January-February; Florida).

OLYBRIUS, Flavius Anicius (d. 472), Roman emperor (Western), 472.

OLYMPIA, scene of the Olympic games, about eleven miles east of modern Pyrgos. See **GREECE**: Map of ancient Greece; **OLYMPIC GAMES**.

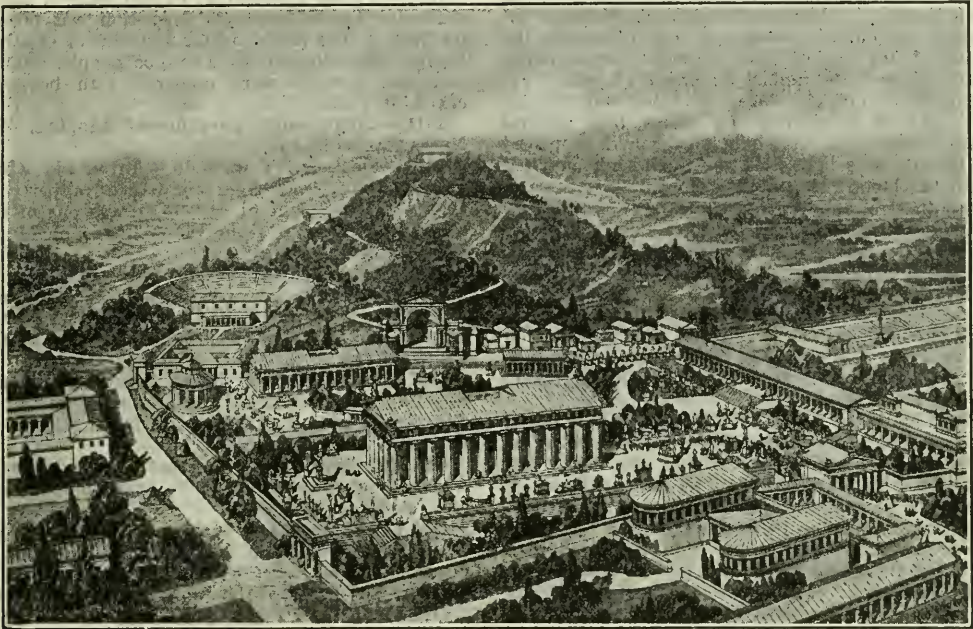
Battle of (365 B. C.). See **GREECE**: B. C. 371-362.

OLYMPIADS, Era of the. See **CHRONOLOGY**: Era of the Olympiads.

OLYMPIC GAMES.—"The character of a national institution, which the Amphictyonic council affected, but never really acquired, more truly belonged to the public festivals, which, though celebrated within certain districts, were not peculiar to any tribe, but were open and common to all

who could prove their Hellenic blood. The most important of these festivals was that which was solemnized every fifth year on the banks of the Alpheus, in the territory of Elis [see ELIS]; it lasted four days, and, from Olympia, the scene of its celebration, derived the name of the Olympic contest, or games, and the period itself which intervened between its returns was called an olympiad. The origin of this institution is involved in some obscurity, partly by the lapse of time, and partly by the ambition of the Eleans to exaggerate its antiquity and sanctity. . . . Though, however, the legends fabricated or adopted by the Eleans to magnify the antiquity and glory of the games deserve little attention, there can be no doubt that, from very early times, Olympia had been a site hallowed by religion; and it is highly

fare, from the time of the proclamation, for a period sufficient to enable strangers to return home in safety. During this period the territory of Elis itself was of course regarded as inviolable, and no armed force could traverse it without incurring the penalty of sacrilege. . . . It [the festival] was very early frequented by spectators, not only from all parts of Greece itself, but from the Greek colonies in Europe, Africa, and Asia; and this assemblage was not brought together by the mere fortuitous impulse of private interest or curiosity, but was in part composed of deputations which were sent by most cities as to a religious solemnity, and were considered as guests of the Olympian god. The immediate object of the meeting was the exhibition of various trials of strength and skill, which, from time to time,



RESTORATION OF THE ANCIENT CITY OF OLYMPIA

Palaestra	Theater		Hill of Cronus	
			Treasuries	Stadium
	Prytaneum	Exedra of Herodes		Colonnade
	Hearth	Metroum		
	Philippeum	Temple of Zeus		
Byzantine Church			Bouleuterium	
	Heraeum			

probable that festivals of a nature similar to that which afterwards became permanent had been occasionally celebrated in the sanctuary of Jupiter. . . . Olympia, not so much a town as a precinct occupied by a great number of sacred and public buildings, originally lay in the territory of Pisa, which, for two centuries after the beginning of the olympiads, was never completely subject to Elis, and occasionally appeared as her rival, and excluded her from all share in the presidency of the games. . . . It is probable that the northern Greeks were not at first either consulted or expected to take any share in the festival; and that, though never expressly confined to certain tribes, in the manner of an Amphictyonic congress, it gradually enlarged the sphere of its fame and attraction till it came to embrace the whole nation. The sacred truce was proclaimed by officers sent round by the Eleans: it put a stop to war-

were multiplied so as to include almost every mode of displaying bodily activity. They included races on foot and with horses and chariots; contests in leaping, throwing, wrestling, and boxing; and some in which several of the exercises were combined; but no combats with any kind of weapon. The equestrian contests, particularly that of the four-horsed chariots, were, by their nature, confined to the wealthy; and princes and nobles vied with each other in such demonstrations of their opulence. But the greater part were open to the poorest Greek, and were not on that account the lower in public estimation. . . . In the games described by Homer valuable prizes were proposed, and this practice was once universal; but, after the seventh olympiad, a simple garland, of leaves of the wild olive, was substituted at Olympia, as the only meed of victory. The main spring of emulation was undoubtedly

the celebrity of the festival and the presence of so vast a multitude of spectators, who were soon to spread the fame of the successful athletes to the extremity of the Grecian world. . . . The Altis, as the ground consecrated to the games was called at Olympia, was adorned with numberless statues of the victors, erected, with the permission of the Eleans, by themselves or their families, or at the expense of their fellow citizens. It was also usual to celebrate the joyful event, both at Olympia and at the victor's home, by a triumphal procession, in which his praises were sung, and were commonly associated with the glory of his ancestors and his country. The most eminent poets willingly lent their aid on such occasions, especially to the rich and great. And thus it happened that sports, not essentially different from those of our village greens, gave birth to masterpieces of sculpture, and called forth the sublimest strains of the lyric muse. . . . Viewed merely as a spectacle designed for public amusement, and indicating the taste of the people, the Olympic games might justly claim to be ranked far above all similar exhibitions of other nations. It could only be for the sake of a contrast, by which their general purity, innocence, and humanity would be placed in the strongest light, that they could be compared with the bloody sports of a Roman or a Spanish amphitheatre, and the tournaments of our chivalrous ancestors, examined by their side, would appear little better than barbarous shows."—G. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 10.

Revival.—In 1896 the first modern Olympic games were revived at Athens. They were held at Paris in 1900; at St. Louis in 1904; at London in 1908; at Stockholm in 1912; and at Antwerp in 1920. See **ATHENS**: 1896; **ST. LOUIS**: 1904; **BELGIUM**: 1920.

OLYMPIUM AT ATHENS.—The building of a great temple to Jupiter Olympius was begun at Athens by Peisistratus as early as 530 B. C. Republican Athens refused to carry on a work which would be associated with the hateful memory of the tyrant, and it stood untouched until 174 B. C., when Antiochus Epiphanes employed a Roman architect to proceed with it. He, in turn, left it still unfinished, to be afterwards resumed by Augustus, and completed at last by Hadrian, 650 years after the foundations were laid.—Based on W. M. Leake, *Topography of Athens*, v. 1, appendix 10.

OLYMPUS.—The name Olympus was given by the Greeks to a number of mountains and mountain ranges; but the one Olympus which impressed itself most upon their imaginations, and which seemed to be the home of their gods, was the lofty height that terminates the Cambunian range of mountains at the east and forms part of the boundary between Thessaly and Macedonia. Its elevation is nearly 10,000 feet above the level of the sea and all travelers have seemed to be affected by the peculiar grandeur of its aspect. Other mountains called Olympus were in Elis, near Olympia, where the great games were celebrated, and in Laconia, near Sellasia. There was also an Olympus in the island of Cyprus, and two in Asia Minor, one in Lycia, and a range in Mysia, separating Bithynia from Galatia and Phrygia. See **BALKAN STATES**: Map; **THESSALY**.

OLYNTHUS, ancient city in Chalcidice. See **GREECE**: Map of ancient Greece.

B. C. 383-379.—Confederacy overthrown by Sparta. See **GREECE**: B. C. 383-379.

B. C. 351-348.—War with Philip of Macedon. —Destruction of the city. See **GREECE**: B. C. 351-348.

OMAGUAS, tribe of South American Indians. See **EL DORADO**.

OMAHA, largest city in Nebraska, on the west bank of the Missouri river. In 1920 the population numbered 191,601. It is the industrial center of the state. Its name comes from the Omaha ("Upper Stream") Indians, aboriginal inhabitants of the district. It is the seat of an important Jesuit university, military headquarters of the department of the Missouri, and one of the principal grain markets in the United States.

1804-1846.—**Early history.**—In 1804 Lewis and Clark held a council here with the Indians. A fur trading station was established in 1825. Mormons settled at Winter Quarters, six miles north of the present Omaha, in 1846, but had to abandon the place after two years because it lay within Indian territory.

1898.—**Trans-Mississippi exposition.**—A highly successful Trans-Mississippi exposition was opened on June 1, and closed on the last day of October, having been attended by 2,600,000 people. Buildings and grounds were prepared with beautiful effect, at a cost of \$2,500,000.

1911.—**Commission government adopted.** See **NEBRASKA**: 1911-1917.

1913.—**Destructive tornado.**—A tornado which destroyed numerous lives and much property in Omaha on the night of March 23 was one of the causes of the great Ohio valley floods of March and April. See **OHIO**: 1913.

1915-1922.—**Growth of city.**—In 1915 Omaha and South Omaha were consolidated. Though only thirty-fourth in population, Omaha was at the end of 1922, the seventeenth business city of the United States.

OMAHAS, tribe of North American Indians. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; **PAWNEE FAMILY**; **SHOAN FAMILY**.

OMAN, kingdom on the southeastern coast of Arabia. See **ARABIA**: Map; 1919: King of Hejaz, etc.; Political division.

OMAR (c. 581-644), Mohammedan caliph, 634-644. Conquered Syria and Palestine. See **CALIPHATE**: 632-639; 640-646; 644, 661.

Omar II (d. 720), Mohammedan caliph, 717-720.

OMAR KHAYYAM (d. 1123), Persian poet, scientist and philosopher. Leading mathematician of his day, and great astronomer; one of his principal achievements was the reformation of the calendar. See **PERSIAN LITERATURE**.

OMDURMAN, town in the Sudan on the Nile, two miles northwest of Khartum. It was the capital of the Mahdi from 1884 until his final defeat in 1885, and of the Khalifa until his overthrow by the English in 1898. The population in 1922 was about 78,000.—See also **EGYPT**: 1885-1896; 1897-1898.

OMER, or **Gomer**, ancient Jewish grain measure. See **EPHRAH**.

OMICHUND (d. 1767), Hindu leader of a conspiracy against Surajud Dowlah. See **INDIA**: 1757.

OMLADINA, Society of. See **SERBIA**: 1817-1875.

OMMAYYADS, **Ommiads**, or **Ummayyads**, dynasty of the Mohammedan caliphate founded by Moawiyah, governor of Syria. It lasted from 651 to 750. See **CALIPHATE**: 661; 680; 715-750; 756-1031; **BAGDAD**: 762-763; **ABD-AR-RAHMAN**; **ABBASIDS**; **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Ancient: 7th-11th centuries.

OMNIBUS BILL. See **U.S.A.**: 1850 (April-September).

OMORTAG (fl. 810-851), Bulgarian ruler. See **BULGARIA**: 8th-9th centuries.

OMSK, capital of the province of Akmolinsk, on the Irtysh, western Siberia, from 1839 to 1882, and thereafter of the Steppes. After the construction of the Trans-Siberian railway Omsk became an important commercial center. In 1900 the population numbered 53,050. The town was the seat of Admiral Kolchak's anti-Bolshevik government until the Bolsheviks captured it on December 13, 1919. See *ASIA: Map*; *RUSSIA: 1918-1920; 1919*.

ON.—"A solitary obelisk of red granite, set up at least 4,000 years ago, alone marks the site of On, also called the City of the Sun, in Hebrew Beth-shemesh, in Greek Heliopolis. Nothing else can be seen of the splendid shrine and the renowned university which were the former glories of the place. . . . The university to which the wise men of Greece resorted perished when a new centre of knowledge was founded in the Greek city of Alexandria. . . . It was during the temporary independence of the country under native kings, after the first Persian rule, that Plato the philosopher and Eudoxus the mathematician studied at Heliopolis. . . . The civil name of the town was An, the Hebrew On, the sacred name Pe-Ra, the 'Abode of the Sun.'"—R. S. Poole, *Cities of Egypt*, ch. 9.—The site of On, or Heliopolis, is near Cairo.

ONAS, South American Indian tribe. See *PATAGONIANS AND FUEGIANS*.

ONATE, Juan de (c. 1555-c. 1615), Spanish explorer. See *NEW MEXICO: 1595-1598*.

ONCKEN, Johann Gerhard (1800-1884), German Baptist leader. See *BAPTISTS: Development in Europe*, etc.

ONEIDA COMMUNITY, communistic settlement at Oneida, New York, founded in 1847 by John Humphrey Noyes. See *SOCIALISM: 1848*.

ONEIDAS, North American Indian tribe. See *IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY*.

O'NEILL, family of Ulster occupying Armagh, Tyrone and Londonderry. See *IRELAND: 1559-1603; 1607-1611; ULSTER: 1540-1567*.

O'Neill, Brian, prince of Tyrone. See *ULSTER: 1190-1260*.

O'Neill, Hugh (c. 1540-1616), earl of Tyrone. See *IRELAND: 1559-1603; ULSTER: 1585-1608*.

O'Neill, Owen Roe (c. 1590-1649), leader of the O'Neills in the Irish rebellion of 1641. See *IRELAND: 1641*.

O'Neill, Sir Phelim (c. 1603-1653), Irish leader in the rebellion against the Protestants in 1641. See *IRELAND: 1641*.

O'Neill, Shane (c. 1530-1567), leader of the O'Neills against the English. See *IRELAND: 1559-1603*.

ONIAGARA, early name for Niagara. See *NIAGARA: Name and its original applications*.

ONNES, Heike Kamerlingh (1853-), Dutch physicist. See *NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1913*.

ONONDAGAS, North American Indian tribe. See *IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY*.

ONTARIO: Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—Resources.—Ontario, the central province of the Dominion of Canada is bounded "on the east by James Bay and the Province of Quebec; on the west by the Province of Manitoba; on the south by the River St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the State of Minnesota; and on the north by Hudson Bay. [See *CANADA: Map*.] The Province has an estimated area of 407,262 square miles. Its greatest extent from north to south is 1,075 miles, and from east to west 1,000 miles. . . . Larger than the largest of the prairie provinces by 155,430 square miles, it is fully three and a third times the size of the British Isles, and is almost twice the size . . . [of France].

Ontario is divided into two great sections: Southern Ontario, the older settled portion, with an area of 77,000 square miles; and Northern Ontario, 330,000 square miles. . . . Southern Ontario begins about forty-eight miles west of Montreal. . . . Northern Ontario lies north of a line commencing at Mattawa, 266 miles farther west, and running westward and northwestward along the north shores of Georgian Bay, the North Channel and Lake Superior, and along the United States boundary to Manitoba. . . . [The population in 1921 was 2,933,662]. The Province of Ontario, though great in forests, minerals, water powers and manufactures, is chiefly agricultural. [See *CANADA: Agriculture; U.S.A.: Economic map*.] . . . The mineral resources . . . cover practically the entire list of metallics and non-metallics with the exception of coal and tin. . . . The Sudbury camp [on Lake Superior] is the world's chief source of nickel. . . . The prosperity of the Province until twenty years ago [written in 1920] depended upon transportation by the Great Lakes, rivers and canals, upon the development of the agricultural and lumber industries, and upon Pennsylvania coal. Since that time the assets have been added to by the Sudbury, Cobalt and Porcupine mines. Then came the immense water-power resources of Niagara, resulting largely from the rapid progress of the art of high voltage transmission. . . . Ontario is the chief manufacturing Province of the Dominion. It has about half the factories of all Canada, and produces almost every kind of manufactured article. All the western towns and cities, with nearly all the villages, and all the eastern cities and large towns are engaged in some kind of manufacturing."—W. S. Wallace, *Province of Ontario* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 17, pp. 1, 17, 127, 135, 167).

Name. See *OHIO: Name*.

1756.—Fort captured by Montcalm. See *CANADA: 1756-1757*.

1783-1841.—Early settlement by Loyalists.—Hardships of pioneers.—War of 1812.—Increase in population.—The first settlement of Ontario was made by Loyalists who migrated from the United States after the War of Independence. "The majority of the loyalists and other settlers in Upper Canada came from the colony of New York, or from the adjoining colonies of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New England . . . After the arrival of the loyalists in the western settlements, a number of the officers who accompanied them were given commissions as magistrates. . . . In 1785 an ordinance was passed by the governor and council of the Province of Quebec 'for granting a limited civil power and jurisdiction to His Majesty's justices of the peace in the remote parts of this province.' . . . In response to the petitions [in 1786] of the magistrates and others representing the western territory, an ordinance, of April, 1787 . . . provided for the creation of new administrative districts in the western country and for the appointment of special officers with a combination of powers. . . . Originally this province was covered with forest. . . . It was into this wooded wilderness that the United Empire Loyalists, numbering in all approximately ten thousand people, came in the latter part of the eighteenth century. They were a people of varied origins—Highland Scottish, German, Dutch, Irish Palatine, French Huguenot, English. Most of them had lived on farms in New York State, and therefore brought with them some knowledge and experience that stood them in good stead in their arduous work of making new homes. . . . In the year 1783

prospectors were sent into Western Quebec, the region lying west of the Ottawa River, and selections were made for them in four districts—along the St. Lawrence, opposite Fort Oswegatchie [Prescott]; around the Bay of Quinté, above Fort Cataragui [Kingston]; in the Niagara peninsula, opposite Fort Niagara; and in the southwestern section, within reach of Fort Detroit. . . . It is difficult at the present time to realize the hardships and appreciate the conditions under which these United Empire Loyalist settlers began life in the forest of 1784. . . . In each of the four districts the government erected mills to grind the grain for the settlers. . . . Waterpower mills were located near Kingston, at Gananoque, at Napanee, and on the Niagara River. . . . For the first thirty years of the new settlements the chief concern of the people was the clearing of their land, the increasing of their field crops, and the improving of their homes and furnishings. It was slow going, and had it not been for government assistance, progress, and even maintenance of life, would have been impossible. That was the heroic age of Upper Canada, the period of foundation-laying in the province. Farming was the main occupation, and men, women, and children shared the burdens in the forest, in the field, and in the home. Roads were few and poorly built, except the three great military roads planned by Lieutenant-Governor Simcoe running east, west, and north from the town of York. Social intercourse was of a limited nature. Here and there a school was formed when a competent teacher could be secured. Church services were held once a month, on which occasions the missionary preacher rode into the district on horseback.”—A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, *Canada and its provinces*, v. 18, pp. 405, 408-409, 552-554.—“On July 24, 1788, it was proclaimed by Lord Dorchester, by the advice and consent of the council, that that part of Quebec west of the eastern boundary of the township of Lancaster be divided into four districts called Lunenburg, Mecklenburg, Nassau, and Hesse. . . . Land boards and courts were organized in each district. The land boards proceeded to grant lands to loyalists, who continued to enter the province until nearly the end of the century. Those who came in later were called ‘late loyalists’ and were subjected to some annoyance unless they came from some of the eastern provinces. By instructions of Lord Dorchester on June 2, 1787, these boards were authorized to grant two hundred acres of land to all who had improved their former grants and two hundred acres to all new applicants who could establish their claims as loyalists. . . . Many names continued to be added to the United Empire Loyalist list even as late as 1824. . . . Many of the Mohawks and some others of the Six Nations were living at Niagara at the close of the war and, like the loyalists, were not allowed to go back to their old homes on the Mohawk River in New York State. On Brant’s application General Haldimand, on March 23, 1784, gave directions for the purchase of lands from the Missisaugas of the tract between the three lakes, Ontario, Erie, and Huron. Out of his purchase a tract six miles wide on each side of the Ouse or Grand River from its mouth to its source was to be reserved for the Mohawks and such other of the Six Nations as wished to join them, the rest of the purchase to be reserved for loyalists. This grant was authorized by General Haldimand on October 25, 1784. . . . When the Province of Quebec was divided by the Constitution Act of 1791 into Upper Canada and Lower Canada many persons continued to come into the upper province

from the United States [from as far south as the Carolinas]. . . . Only persons of good character and undoubted loyalty were given grants after taking the oath of allegiance. . . . [The first lieutenant governor, John Graves Simcoe, released restrictions and made the oath of allegiance the only requirement for a grant of land]. . . . In 1793 Simcoe had to deviate somewhat from his original policy of granting only two hundred acres to any one person. To encourage the chief men of the province to make an effort to bring in settlers, entire townships were granted to individuals or associations. . . . In 1805 the Queen’s Rangers was disbanded and all its members settled in Upper Canada. . . . Many of the settlers on Yonge Street [which runs through Toronto to Lake Simcoe] came from the Northern States and held in contempt the officers of the province, both civil and military. They brought in with them their own school-teachers, and in their schools used American books that ridiculed British institutions and lauded the institutions of the United States. Indeed, this state of affairs existed in some parts of the province until the middle of the nineteenth century. Many settlers avowing republican principles settled along Lake Erie west of Long Point, as well as in the district about Newcastle along Lake Ontario. . . . Itinerant Methodist preachers, who were soon active among them, propagated political doctrines intended to show the superiority of the republican form of government over the monarchical form. . . . Hull’s invasion of Upper Canada from Detroit [in 1812] was the signal for an uprising in the London district of a large party under Simon Watson, a surveyor, which raided the country without opposition as far as the township of Westminster. The capture of Detroit and the victory of Queenston Heights put a stop to active demonstration in favour of the United States. Hundreds . . . left the country, and others who were less pronounced in their attitude deemed it wise to remain neutral and respectful to the government. But this hatred of British principles took a long time to die out. With scarcely an exception these same districts—about London and the northern part of the county of York—were the recruiting grounds of the participants in the rebellion under Mackenzie in 1837.”—W. S. Wallace, *Province of Ontario* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 17, pp. 39, 41, 42-45).—“Progress was slow [in the early days] but after thirty years fair hope of an agricultural country was beginning to dawn upon the people when the War of 1812 broke out. By this time the population of the province had increased to about eighty thousand. . . . For three years the agricultural growth received a severe check. . . . The close of the war saw a province that had been checked at a time of vigorous growth now more or less impoverished, and, in some sections, devastated. This was, however, but the gloomy outlook before a period of rapid expansion. In 1816, on the close of the Napoleonic wars in Europe large numbers of troops were disbanded, and for these new homes and new occupations had to be found. Then began the first emigration from Britain overseas to Upper Canada. . . . Then began the settlements along the north shore of Lake Ontario and of Lake Erie, and the population moved forward steadily. In 1816 the total population of the province was approximately 100,000; by 1826, according to returns made to the government, it had increased to 166,000; . . . and in 1841 it was 456,000. The great majority of these people, of course, lived upon the land, the towns being comparatively small, and the villages

were composed largely of people engaged in agricultural work. . . . [In 1830] there were only five towns of 1,000 or over; namely, Kingston, 3,587; York (Toronto), 2,860; London (including the township), 2,415; Hamilton (including the township), 2,013; and Brockville, 1,130. The returns to the government show that of the 4,018,385 acres occupied 773,727 were under cultivation."—A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, *Canada and its provinces*, v. 18, pp. 554-556.

19th century.—Struggle for a public elementary school system. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Canada.

1826.—Founding of Ottawa. See OTTAWA: Founding.

1846-1867.—Growth of population.—Crash of 1856.—Reciprocity with United States.—The period from 1846 to 1867 was one of rapid growth in population. "The free-grant land policy of the government was a great attraction for tens of thousands of people in the British Isles. . . . In the twenty years referred to the population more than doubled, and the improved lands of the province increased fourfold. . . . The Crimean War, in 1854-56, gave an important though temporary boom to Canadian farm products."—A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 18, pp. 565, 569.—"In 1857 there was a great commercial crash in Upper Canada. There had been railway inflation, followed by over-speculation in various directions. Portions of many farms had been converted into village plots, and surveyors and lithographers lived in clover. In some sections the speculation had been productive of wealth; villages and even towns had been successfully 'laid out,' and sold at high prices. . . . All sorts of schemes were set on foot. Some were practicable; some were doubtful; the great bulk were chimerical."—C. Clarke, *Sixty years in upper Canada*, pp. 99-100.—"Reciprocity with the United States from 1855 to 1866 offered a profitable market that had been closed for many years. Then came the close of the great civil war in the United States, and the opening of the cheap, fertile prairie lands of the Middle West to the hundreds of thousands of farmers set free from military service. This westward movement was joined by many farmers from Ontario; there was a disastrous competition in products, and an era of agricultural depression set in just before Confederation."—A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, *Canada and its provinces*, v. 18, pp. 565, 569-570.

1867.—Government.—Organization of provincial government.—"The Province of Ontario was created by the British North American Act and came into existence on July 1, 1867. [See CANADA: 1867.] The organization of the government of the province, however, was not completed in a night. It was not until July 8, 1867, that the representative of the crown was sworn in under the title of lieutenant-governor; it was not until July 20 that the cabinet of ministers was completed; and it was only on December 27 that the first legislative assembly of Ontario met at Toronto in the old Parliament buildings."—W. S. Wallace, *Province of Ontario* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 17, pp. 103-104).—"The gentleman upon whom Lieutenant-Governor Stisted called to form an administration was John Sandfield Macdonald. In doing this Stisted was of course acting upon instructions from Ottawa. . . . [Sir John A. Macdonald saw that] Sandfield Macdonald was the best man to be placed in charge of the upper province. . . . An opponent of Confederation who had resolved to make the best of the new order, he might serve

to conciliate that large element which had been strongly anti-Confederationist; and a Roman Catholic, he would be able to carry with him the Roman Catholic vote, for which George Brown in the *Globe* had been angling openly. . . . Thus Ontario would be assured a strong administration, ready to work in harmony with the government at Ottawa in setting the Confederation scheme a-working. . . . It was the desire of both Sir John A. Macdonald and John Sandfield Macdonald to establish the new administration of a no-party basis. . . . A coalition had carried Confederation; and it was advisable to entrust a coalition with the task of putting Confederation into effect in Ontario. . . . It was on these lines that Sandfield Macdonald constructed his administration. . . . The first legislative assembly of Ontario met on December 27, 1867, in the old Parliament Buildings in Toronto. . . . Hardly had the house got down to business when the prime minister began to have trouble with his supporters. . . . It was in the third session, however, which began on November 3, 1869, that the opposition won its greatest tactical success. . . . [The attack] . . . was concentrated largely upon . . . the way in which the government was administering the public moneys. The charge was not one of extravagance. . . . Sandfield Macdonald was admitted even by his enemies to be an exemplar of economy: [Edward Blake, the liberal leader], indeed, on more than one occasion had criticized him for his parsimony. What proved the undoing of the Sandfield Macdonald government was its surplus. Partly as the result of rigid economy, but still more because of the excellent terms awarded Ontario in the financial arbitration between the provinces and the Dominion after the Confederation, it very soon became clear that Ontario could have a surplus of several millions [\$4,000,000]. The greater part of this surplus was invested in the debentures and other public securities of the Dominion of Canada; but it proved too great a temptation not to use a little of it in the interests of party patronage. . . . To regard Sandfield Macdonald as personally corrupt would be a grave mistake; he had merely the idea of nearly every other practical politician of his day regarding the distribution of patronage. . . . [The premier induced the House to vote \$1,500,000 in aid of railways, the amount to be distributed at the discretion of the cabinet. This proved to be his undoing. He was defeated by one vote on an amendment to a government measure and was compelled to resign.] The government had accepted the amendment of the opposition as a general motion of no-confidence . . . [and the next day, December 19, 1871 the ministry resigned]. . . . Sandfield Macdonald deserved much of Ontario, and received little. It was he who did the ditch-work for the foundations of the Confederation scheme in the province; and he administered the affairs of the province with great honesty and economy for four years and a half, under circumstances where neither honesty nor economy was easy. [He was succeeded by the leader of the opposition, Edward Blake who, however, had a seat in the Dominion House also. But when a law forbidding dual representations was passed by the Dominion, he elected to stay in the Dominion parliament. He was followed, in 1872, by Oliver Mowat as premier of Ontario.]—W. S. Wallace, *Province of Ontario* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 17, pp. 104-106-108, 116-118, 126-128).

1872-1896. — Mowat government. — Disputes with Dominion.—Protestant protective associa-

tion.—Prohibition question.—Legislation.—“For many years before Confederation, and after its creation, electoral corruption . . . had been employed at various elections. . . . The evil had become so serious and threatening that every honest man felt the necessity for some effective remedy. It was the fashion to denounce one or the other of the great parties as the more blamable, but public inquiry . . . proved that . . . each side was sometimes guilty, and that some radical step was necessary to a wide and thorough suppression of the evil. . . . [In 1873 Charles Clarke prepared a ballot bill which in 1874 became law.] This system of voting was afterwards extended to school and municipal elections, and to Separate Schools when desired by the trustees.”—C. Clarke, *Sixty years in upper Canada*, pp. 103, 108.—“Since Confederation the control of liquor licences in the province had been vested in the municipalities, and it must be confessed that the municipal councils had been scandalously slack, for the most part, in their administration of the law. [A bill introduced by Adam Crooks] . . . proposed, therefore, to take the control of licences away from the municipalities, and place it in the hands of boards of commissioners appointed by the government. . . . [This bill, known as the Crooks’ Act, was passed in 1876.] The other notable bill of the session was the Education Bill. . . . A bill was introduced abolishing the Council of Public Instruction, and substituting for it a new department of Education, with a responsible minister of Education at its head. . . . The Education Bill, like the ‘Crooks Act,’ placed in the hands of the government dangerous powers in regard to patronage. . . . Mowat gave his word that, under the new régime, political considerations would not be allowed to enter into educational appointments; and it is pleasing to think that to a large extent this promise was kept. . . . Indeed, it might almost be said that Mowat regarded the interests of the province as paramount over those of the Dominion. . . . It is not within the scope of this article to discuss in detail the constitutional struggles over the interpretation of the British North America Act which took place between Mowat and the government of Sir John A. Macdonald. But something must be said about the struggle in its broad outlines. The first conflict which arose between Ontario and the Dominion was over the act respecting Escheats and Forfeitures, passed by the Ontario legislature in the session of 1874. . . . The second conflict took place over the ‘Crooks Act’ of 1876. . . . Since that time there has been no question of the right of the provinces to regulate the sale of liquor within their confines. . . . But it was over another measure, a government bill of the session of 1881, entitled a Bill to protect the Public Interest in Rivers and Streams, that the battle-royal took place. . . . Mowat achieved another victory over the champions of federal rights. . . . Mention must be made, finally, of the dispute over the boundary question. . . . The decision arrived at by the arbitrators in 1878 was a complete corroboration of the claims of Ontario to the vast hinterland of the province north and west of Lake Superior. The effect of the award was to make Ontario twice as large again as the Dominion government contended it was. . . . Thus the dispute ended all along the line in a victory for Mowat, who had himself argued some of the cases before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. [See MANITOBA: 1871-1912.] [W. R. Meredith, the Conservative leader] and his followers may have been ill-advised in defending, as they did,

the course of the Dominion government regarding the boundary dispute. . . . Yet he did not seem to see that by his belligerent championship of provincial rights, by his magnification of the province at the expense of the Dominion, he was doing what in him lay to wreck the work of Confederation. . . . [From] 1883 the Mowat government . . . spared no pains to confirm the Roman Catholics in their attachment to the liberal party. . . . That some sort of understanding existed between some members of Mowat’s cabinet and some high officials of the Roman Catholic Church, one is tempted to believe. . . . In 1894 the agitation against the Roman Catholics was taken up by what was known as the Protestant Protective Association. . . . It had come into Canada from the United States, where it had first arisen; and it had no connection with the official conservative party. Yet in the public mind the two were, unfortunately, not entirely dissociated; and the opposition leader had to bear the blame, doubtless, of some of the ‘P. P. A.’s lucubrations. . . . The question of prohibition, has been the rock on which more than one administration in Ontario has nearly come to grief. Sandfield Macdonald and Edward Blake escaped it, but from the beginning of Sir Oliver Mowat’s régime . . . it was a burning question in provincial politics. . . . Sir Oliver Mowat was at first sceptical regarding the power of the province to prohibit the sale of liquor, but as an earnest of his goodwill he introduced the Licence Act and its amendments. . . . [In the summer of 1896 Laurier asked Mowat to undertake the administration of justice in the new cabinet. Sir Oliver accepted the offer and thus the way was cleared in the provincial government for other men.] Sir Oliver Mowat was prime minister of Ontario for nearly twenty-five years, a longer period of office than has fallen to the lot of any other first minister in the history of constitutional government in the British Empire. During this time he administered the affairs of the province with great honesty and efficiency, so that Ontario presented the spectacle of one of the best-governed territories in the world; and he placed on the statute-book a mass of sound and useful legislation which was a model of conservative reform. By a series of gradual extensions of the franchise he introduced manhood suffrage; he reformed the electoral laws and introduced the use of the ballot; unified the courts of law and equity; he cheapened and simplified legal proceedings; he carried out repeatedly the codification of the statute law, and he consolidated the municipal law; he curbed and regulated the liquor traffic; he bettered the legal status of married women; he went far toward protecting the rights of wage-earners; he introduced the principle of the graded succession duty. . . . That he made mistakes, and serious mistakes, it would be folly to deny; but the rarity of this occurrence is well illustrated in the difficulty the opposition had in formulating election platforms.”—W. S. Wallace, *Province of Ontario* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 17, pp. 140-151, 160-164, 175-177).

1896-1905.—Hardy administration.—Ross administration.—Defeat of liberal government.—“With the disappearance of Sir Oliver Mowat and G. F. Marten in 1896 the reins passed into other hands. A. S. Hardy, the commissioner of Crown Lands, was called upon by the lieutenant-governor, Sir George Kirkpatrick, to form an administration; and the conservatives chose as the leader of the opposition James (afterwards Sir James) Pliny Whitney. The administration that

Hardy formed was merely a reorganization of the cabinet of Sir Oliver Mowat. . . . As prime minister Hardy scarcely had a chance to show his hand. . . . [In 1890 he was forced by ill-health to resign and George W. Ross] was called upon to form an administration. [The Ross government is remembered chiefly for a measure of municipal reform and for opening up New Ontario by the Temiskaming and Northern Ontario railway. The government was defeated at the general election of 1905.] The causes of the downfall of the government were in the main two: first, Ross's policy in regard to prohibition [see CANADA: 1898 (September)]; and second, the charges of corruption which were levelled against his administration. . . . He introduced a prohibition bill which required a referendum to the people before it became law, and which required . . . a two-thirds majority, to carry it. The referendum took place in December 1902; and although a large majority was polled in favour of the bill, the bill failed to reach the required two-thirds majority by only a few hundred votes. . . . In 1905 Ross decided to appeal to the country with the hope of being returned with a working majority. . . . [But] most people in the province felt that 'thirty-two years in the saddle' was enough for any political party, . . . and the result of the elections was a landslide in favour of the conservative party. Five of the ministers . . . [were defeated, and James P. Whitney, the conservative leader] was carried to power with a majority in the house of forty. Never in the history of the province had there been such a startling upheaval. The administration which Whitney formed in 1905 did not seem at the time to be a conspicuously strong one. . . . [Its undeniable success] was largely due to the personality of Sir James Whitney himself." —W. S. Wallace, *Province of Ontario* (A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty, ed., *Canada and its provinces*, v. 17, pp. 179-185).—During the period of the Ross administration Ontario came into possession of great wealth by the accidental discovery in 1903 of an immense silver field on the line of the Temiskaming and Northern Ontario Railway. The deposit of silver is accompanied by cobalt, and as the province owns the public lands within her borders, she is the recipient of a large income from mining royalties. Gold was found a few years later at Porcupine and other points.

1900.—Fire in Ottawa. See OTTAWA: 1900.

1902.—New parliamentary representation. See CANADA: 1901-1902.

1903.—Discovery of cobalt and silver mines. See CANADA: 1903.

1904-1921.—Temiskaming and Northern Ontario Railway. See RAILROADS: 1904-1921.

1906-1907.—Political experiments.—Broadening the functions of government. See CANADA: 1906-1907.

1906-1914.—Whitney administration.—Educational developments.—Hydro-electric commission.—The new administration set to work with all the vigor of a party which had been long out of office. Improvements were made in the educational system,—new normal schools established, rural continuation schools were introduced, industrial and elementary technical training were made part of the public school system, half the succession duties was assigned for the support of the Provincial University at Toronto. (See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Canada.) "In 1906 the Hydro-Electric Commission was appointed, with the Honourable Adam Beck as its first chairman. . . . No country in the world has such water-powers

as Canada, and the discovery of this 'white coal' has begun to change the whole face of Ontario. From Niagara and from other falls various companies began to generate power, but in 1906 a number of the municipalities of Ontario combined to provide power for themselves, in order to save the profits paid to the companies. With the help of the Government their combination grew into the Hydro-Electric Power Commission, which represents most of the municipalities of Western Ontario, is gradually being joined by more and more in the centre and east, and now supplies most of the power of this type used in the province. . . . In the same year (1906) a Railway and Municipal Board was appointed, to decide questions at issue between railways, especially electric railways, and the municipalities."—W. L. Grant, *Ontario high school history of Canada*, p. 318.—The Whitney administration lasted until the death of the leader in 1914.

1909.—Prohibition law passed. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: Canada: 1909.

1912.—Enlarged by receiving part of North-West Territories. See CANADA: 1912.

1914.—A. B. C. conference at Niagara. See U.S.A.: 1914 (April).

1914-1918.—Attitude towards prohibition. See CANADA: 1914-1918: War time prohibition.

1914-1923.—Hearst administration.—Farmer-Labor government.—"In the provincial elections in Ontario in June-July 1914, the Conservatives were again successful, in spite of vigorous attacks upon their administration of hydro-electric power, their restrictions upon bilingual schools, and their attitude toward the liquor traffic. Later in the year Sir James Whitney died. . . . He was succeeded by . . . William Hearst, who had been Minister of Mines in his Cabinet. . . . In 1919, at a general election, . . . [the Conservative government] was swept from power. At this election, in addition to the two historic parties, members were elected by the United Farmers of Ontario . . . and by a Labour Group in the cities, which advocated further legislation in favour of the working-man. There were thus four parties; and a Farmer-Labour Coalition, under the leadership of Mr. E. C. Drury, a prominent farmer, came into power. . . . In 1914, Ontario passed a very important Workmen's Compensation Act. . . . Scales of compensation were laid down, but large powers of inspection and of assessing damages were given to a Board of Commissioners. . . . The general feeling was that the Act was wise, and a just recognition by the province of the great principle that the working-man is not a tool, but a citizen, whose just rights it is the business of the state to safeguard. . . . In Ontario the age limit for compulsory education was raised by The Adolescent School Attendance Act, the operation of the Act beginning in September, 1921." —W. L. Grant, *Ontario high school history of Canada*, pp. 392-394.—The most difficult of the problems with which the government was confronted, was, perhaps, "that of administering the Temperance Act. The next most troublesome problem was that of dealing with the Hydro-Electric Commission . . . [which] had extended itself gradually under succeeding acts, until it controlled all the water powers for the Province of Ontario. [Large sums were being asked for to extend the Hydro-Electric Commission's railways. Opposition to this policy developed, and Drury appointed what was known as the Hydro Commission to investigate the Hydro-Electric Commission.] But the efforts of the Premier to solve this problem only brought upon him large ex-

penditures and the steady opposition of large interests. . . . Great road contracts were let, and the rural politicians were not long in recognizing their opportunity. The outcome of the policy was that though enormous amounts of money were spent, relatively few roads were completed. [Salaries of the teachers in the province were increased by fifty per cent. This was a much needed advance which nevertheless still further raised the already high expenditure from \$22,000,000 in 1919 to \$37,000,000 in 1922, and caused great dissatisfaction. The premier's difficulties were increased moreover by the opposition of the leader of the United Farmers of Ontario to the government policy of acting with the support of the Liberal party. At the general election of 1923 the Agrarian party was defeated and the Conservatives went into power with a sweeping majority.]—P. H. Bryce, *Agrarian movement in Ontario* (New York Times Current History, Sept., 1923).

1917-1920.—Farm Loans Act.—Coöperative Marketing Loan Act. See RURAL CREDIT: Canada: Ontario.

1919-1921.—Housing problem. See HOUSING: Canada.

1921.—Electoral system. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

1921.—Vocational Education Act. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Canada.

See also EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL; LIBRARIES: Modern: Canada.

OODEYPOOR. See UDAIPUR.

OPECHANCANOUGH (d. 1646), chief of the Powhatan Indian confederacy, 1613-1646. See VIRGINIA: 1644.

"OPEN DOOR." See BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR"; CHINA: 1899-1900 (September-February); 1917 (November); JAPAN: 1905-1914; U.S.A.: 1921 (April-September).

OPEN FIELD SYSTEM: In agriculture. See AGRICULTURE: Medieval: Manorial system.

OPEN HEARTH FURNACE. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

OPEN PORTS OF JAPAN. See JAPAN: 1797-1854.

OPEN SHOP MOVEMENT. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1825-1875; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

OPEQUAN CREEK, or WINCHESTER, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1864 (August-October: Virginia).

OPERA. See MUSIC: Modern: 1575-1676; 1607-1734.

England. See MUSIC: Modern: 1660-1694; 1750-1870; DRAMA: 1843-1895.

France. See MUSIC: Modern: 1645-1764; 1730-1816; 1774-1864; 1830-1921.

Germany. See MUSIC: Modern: 1630-1800; 1700-1827; 1843-1897.

Italy. See MUSIC: Modern: 1650-1739; 1730-1816; 1813-1868; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1690-1800.

OPHEL, land in Jerusalem. See JERUSALEM: A.D. 33.

OPHIR, Land of.—The geographical situation of the land called Ophir in the Bible has been the subject of much controversy. Many recent historians accept, as "conclusively demonstrated," the opinion reached by Lassen in his "Indische Alterthumskunde," that the true Ophir of antiquity was the country of Abhira, near the mouths of the Indus, not far from the present province of Guzerat. But some who accept Abhira as being the original Ophir conjecture that the name was extended in use to southern Arabia, where the products of the Indian Ophir were marketed.—See

also ARABIA: Ancient succession and fusion of races.

OPHITES, religious sect. See CAINITES; GNOSTICS.

OPICANS, ancient race in Italy. See OSCANS.

OPITZ, Martin (1597-1639), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1600-1750.

OPIUM PROBLEM: 1729-1858.—Origin of opium smoking.—Introduction in China.—Chinese anti-opium edicts.—"The poppy has been known in China for twelve centuries, and its medicinal use for nine centuries. . . . It was not until the middle of the seventeenth century that the practice of mixing opium with tobacco for smoking purposes was introduced into China. This habit was indulged in by the Dutch in Java, and by them taken to Formosa, whence it spread to Amoy and the mainland generally. There is no record to show when opium was first smoked by itself, but it is thought to have originated about the end of the eighteenth century. Foreign opium was first introduced by the Portuguese from Goa at the beginning of the eighteenth century. In 1729, when the foreign import was 200 chests the Emperor Yung Ching issued the first anti-opium edict, enacting severe penalties on the sale of opium and the opening of smoking divans. The importation however continued to increase, and by 1790 it amounted to 4000 chests annually. In 1796 opium smoking was again prohibited, and in 1800 the importation of foreign opium was again declared illegal. Opium was now contraband, but the fact had no effect on the quantity introduced into the country, which rose to 5000 chests in 1820; 16,877 in 1830; 20,619 chests in 1838, and 70,000 chests in 1858."—China Year Book, 1921-1922, p. 789.

1840.—Friction between Great Britain and China.—So-called "opium war."—In 1834 the "British government . . . sent out a special representative who was instructed to obtain further trading concessions from China. He was to open negotiations directly with the Chinese government, and not with the group of merchants through which the government had heretofore dealt with foreigners. The English insisted, in other words, that the Chinese open their country to foreign nations on the basis of equality. This demand led to friction, for the Chinese continued to regard the English as barbarians. Under the circumstances there could be but one outcome, war. Unfortunately for the good name of Great Britain, the question came to an issue over the opium question. For some years one of the principal British exports to China had been opium, chiefly opium raised in India. The traffic had been frowned upon by the Chinese government, partly because it led to the export of silver and partly because of the demoralizing moral and physical effects of the drug. The Chinese repeatedly declared the traffic illegal, and occasionally made half-hearted attempts to stamp it out. The venality of the local authorities, however, had thwarted attempts at restriction and had even permitted an increase. Finally, in 1839 the imperial court resolved on a determined effort and sent to Canton a special commissioner [named Lin,] to put an end to the traffic. This commissioner . . . forced the surrender of all the drug then held in stock by the foreign merchants and destroyed it. This and some other acts, in which the British were treated with arrogance and with what was from their standpoint rank injustice, led to increased friction and finally to open hostilities (1840-42). [See also CHINA: 1839-1842.] From the British standpoint the war was primarily to secure just treatment of their subjects by the Chinese and to open China to trade on terms more

nearly fair to foreigners. To the Chinese and to most of the world, however, it seemed to be designed primarily to force opium upon the Chinese. Hostilities were confined almost exclusively to naval attacks on the cities of the southern coast. The British were uniformly successful and finally, after several abortive attempts at negotiations, concluded a treaty, known as the Treaty of Nan-king, which brought to an end the days of restricted trade. Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai were opened to foreign trade; the island of Hong Kong was ceded to Great Britain; a policy of fair tariffs at treaty ports replaced that of arbitrary official exactions; an indemnity of twenty-one million dollars was exacted, of which six millions went to pay for the opium destroyed; and official correspondence between the two nations was placed on a basis of equality. . . . This was China's first foreign war."—K. S. Latourette, *Development of China*, pp. 144-146.—"The so-called 'opium war' of 1840 . . . attracted much attention in the United States, as the interests of its merchants prospectively involved, was at that time very considerable. Among those of its citizens who especially considered the subject was ex-President John Quincy Adams, who gave to the American public, in December, 1841, the results of his investigations and study, in the form of a lecture before the Massachusetts Historical Society. . . . After tracing historically what had occurred up to the year 1841, Mr. Adams said: 'Do I hear you inquire what is all this to the opium question, or the taking of Canton? These, I answer, are but that movement of mind on this globe of earth of which the war between Great Britain and China is now the leading star—The justice of the cause between the two parties—which has the righteous cause? I answer, Britain has the righteous cause. The opium question is not the cause of the war; but the arrogant and insupportable pretensions of China, that she will hold commercial intercourse with the rest of mankind, not upon terms of equal reciprocity, but upon the insulting and degrading forms of the relation between lord and vassal.'"—D. A. Wells, *United States and Great Britain (America and Europe*, pt. 1, pp. 24-25).

ALSO IN: H. B. Morse, *International relations of the Chinese empire*, ch. 8-11.—D. C. Boulger, *History of China*, pp. 38-160.—H. W. Williams, *Middle kingdom*.

1895.—Report of opium commission in India. See INDIA: 1895 (April).

1900-1906.—Progressive tariff and internal taxation measures to check consumption of the drug in China.—The following is from a report on opium production and taxation in China prepared by Mr. Williams, Chinese secretary of the United States legation at Peking, and sent to the State Department at Washington, in September, 1906: "Previous to 1900 native opium passing through the maritime customs at Ichang had been paying a total charge of taels,* 60 per picul* exclusive of taxes at the place of production. In July, 1900, the viceroy, Chang Chih-tung, with a view to checking the consumption of opium in the territory under his jurisdiction, increased this charge to taels 72 per picul, and near the close of 1901 increased it again, making it taels 80 per picul. This, with the likin charged in Szechuen, made a total on the product coming from that province of taels 84.76. Opium designed for local consumption was still more heavily taxed, being required to pay taels 90 besides the likin of Sze-

chuen, or a total of 94.76 taels per picul. The immediate result of this action was to greatly increase smuggling and to drive legitimate traffic to the use of native junks or roundabout land routes controlled by the native customs or likin offices, and thus to reduce the receipts of the maritime customs. Another significant result was the importation of a small amount of foreign opium to a district where it had been unknown for many years. In view of these facts, in 1903 the authorities reduced the tax to a total of 76.75 taels per picul, including the Szechuen likin. In February, 1904, the same tax was imposed in the province of Hunan, also in the jurisdiction of the Viceroy Chang Chih-tung, and in the summer of the same year an agreement was made with the provincial authorities of the provinces of Kiangse and Anhui that one consolidated tax, to include both likin and customs duties, should be levied at a uniform rate in the four provinces, and to prevent discrimination by the native customs as against the maritime service it was agreed that the collection of this consolidated tax should be intrusted to the imperial maritime customs at Ichang and to branch offices under its control. The port of Ichang was chosen because it is at the head of steam navigation on the Yangtze, for which reason most of the opium from Yunnan and Szechuen was sent thither for distribution. In 1905 this arrangement was extended to four other provinces, Kiangse, Fukien, Kuangtung, and Kuangsi, and the tax increased to taels 134.79 per picul for opium destined to the four inner provinces and taels 104 for that going to those on the seaboard. Previous to this latter arrangement, however, after the experience of 1902, it was seen that unless the tax on foreign opium should also be increased the effort to stamp out the vice by heavy taxation would fail, and therefore in 1903 representations were made to the British Government by the Chinese minister in London looking toward the increase of the duty upon Indian opium. The reply of the British Government, as quoted in the Peking Gazette, was that the tax on the native drug ought to be increased by the same amount as any addition made to the duty on the foreign article. Upon this a memorial was submitted to the Imperial Chinese Government, asking that the customs duty and likin on foreign and native opium be increased by an equal amount, and the matter was referred to the proper boards for consideration and report. . . . As to the native drug, the steps to increase the taxes upon it in eight of the provinces have been related above. The success of this arrangement . . . [was] so pronounced that on the 7th of May (1906) an imperial edict appeared directing that the system adopted in the eight provinces mentioned above should be at once extended to all the provinces of China proper and at a later date, to be hereafter determined, to Turkestan and Manchuria."

1905.—Recommendations for Philippines.—A committee appointed by the Philippine commission, to investigate methods of dealing with the sale and use of opium, included an American army officer, Major Carter, a Filipino physician, Dr. Albert, and the missionary bishop of the Protestant Episcopal church, Bishop Brent. The following is from a summary of the committee's report, published in *The Outlook of March 4, 1905*: "Although the Committee visited and studied Java, Cochín China, the Straits Settlements, and various places in China, including Hong-kong, it really found the solution of the question in the Japanese administration of Formosa. [See also FORMOSA: 1874-1910.] . . . It is not surprising that the Com-

* The tael was said to be worth 73 cents in gold in 1905. The weight of the picul is 133½ pounds.

mittee recommend what is practically an adaptation of the Formosan system for the Philippines. For the maintenance of this system it is indispensable that the 'opium and the traffic therein be made a strict Government monopoly immediately.' That is the first provision. 'Second, prohibition, except for medicinal purposes, after three years. Third, only licensees, who shall be males and over twenty-one years of age, shall be allowed to use opium until prohibition goes into effect. Fourth, all vendors or dispensers of opium, except for medical purposes, shall be salaried officials of the Government. Fifth, every effort shall be made (a) to deter the young from contracting the habit by pointing out its evil effects and by legislation, (b) to aid in caring for and curing those who manifest a desire to give up the habit, and (c) to punish and, if necessary, to remove from the islands incorrigible offenders.'

1906.—Chinese imperial edict against the use of opium.—Undertaking to suppress it in ten years.—By formal edict from the throne, published in September, 1906, the imperial government of China undertook to eradicate the use of opium in that empire, and to do so by heroic measures within ten years. A register was ordered to be made of every consumer of the drug (estimated at 40 per cent. of the vast population of the empire) and of the quantity that he consumed. Those who were under sixty years of age were required to diminish their consumption by not less than twenty per cent each year, till they were free of the habit and the use was stopped. Meantime there would be a public provision of medicines to assist the cure. To those beyond sixty years in age, and to the princes, nobles, and magnates of the empire, a certain relaxation of these rules would be allowed. But all minor officials under sixty years must drop opium entirely, at once, and there would be no toleration of an acquirement of the opium habit thereafter. No further cultivation of the poppy would be allowed, and, of course, the importation would be controlled. Tang Shao Yi, the special Chinese envoy who visited the United States and England early in 1909, had much to do with this measure on the part of his government, and, in addressing a deputation which called on him in London, had this to say of the circumstances connected with it: "He had always taken a deep interest in the anti-opium movement ever since he was a student in America in the early seventies. He had never realized, however, that they could attempt to make such a movement in China till he was sent by his Government to India in 1905 in connexion with the Lhasa Convention. While there he had opportunities of studying the opium question, and he was fortunate enough to make the acquaintance of the finance secretary, Mr. Baker. From him he learnt that the Government of India could dispense with the revenue derived from opium. Nothing was more surprising to him and nothing gave him greater joy than to hear that. In that year the question was brought up in England, and when he returned to China in the winter of 1905 he informed his Government that the British public was very 'anti-opium' and also that the Indian Government was not at all anxious for the revenue derived from opium. Therefore, he told his Government that it was for the Chinese themselves to put a stop to the opium trade, and that they must not rely upon others. He had already got regulations in his head and the Government asked him to draw up certain rules to put a stop to the opium curse. In order not to be too radical, he suggested that three years should be allowed for

putting an end to it, but the Cabinet said that was too radical, and, although he suggested six years, the final decision of the Government was to make it ten years."—See also MANCHURIA: 1905-1907.

1908.—Indo-Chinese agreement to restrict traffic.—In accordance with an agreement between China and the Indian government, China reduced its production of opium and India its export of the drug by 5,100 chests a year for three years, commencing January 1, 1908. India forfeited a revenue of ten million dollars a year by this arrangement.

1909.—Progress in opium reform.—An official report on the progress of the opium reform in China, by Mr. Max Müller, Councillor of the British legation at Peking, was published as a Parliamentary Paper (Cd. 4967), early in January, 1910. In communicating the report to the Foreign Office, Sir N. Jordan wrote: "This report shows that considerable progress continues to be made in the task which the Chinese Government undertook three years ago. There has undoubtedly been a very sensible diminution in the consumption and cultivation of opium, and a public opinion has been formed which will greatly strengthen the hands of the Government and the provincial authorities in the drastic measures which they contemplate taking in the near future. . . . That the end, however, is so near as many of the official pronouncements would seem to indicate is, I venture to think, very doubtful. We have full and reliable information about only two of the provinces—Shansi and Yunnan—and the annexes to Mr. Max Müller's report furnish eloquent testimony of the good work that has been done in both. At the opposite extreme stand Shensi, Kansu, Hupei, and Szechuan, in all of which comparatively little has been accomplished to check either the consumption or cultivation of the drug. The last-named province, which is by far the largest producing area in the Empire, will furnish the supreme test of the success or failure of the programme of total prohibition, and as the order has gone forth that no poppy is to be sown this autumn, the issue on which so much depends is doubtless being fought out as this report is being written."

1909 (February).—International opium commission, in session at Shanghai.—On the suggestion of Bishop Brent, of the Philippines, the government of the United States took the initiative in bringing about the appointment of an international commission to investigate matters connected with the use of and traffic in opium. The commission, composed of delegates from China, Japan, Great Britain, France, Germany, Holland, Turkey, and the United States, met at Shanghai on February 1, 1909, and was in session until February 26, under the presidency of Bishop Brent. Its study of the subject appears to have been made difficult and definite conclusions prevented by the lack of trustworthy Chinese statistics of the production of opium in the empire itself, and of other important facts. The results of four weeks of investigation and discussion were embodied in nine resolutions, the first of which recognized the sincerity of the endeavor of the Chinese government to eradicate the great evil from its dominion. Of the further resolutions, one urged upon all governments the importance of drastic measures to control the manufacture, sale, and distribution of morphia and other noxious derivatives of opium; another recommended scientific investigation of so-called opium remedies; a third said all countries should adopt reasonable measures to pre-

vent the shipment of opium or its derivatives to any country which prohibits their entry. By the terms of the remaining resolutions the delegates were urged to influence as far as possible their own governments to take steps for the gradual suppression of opium-smoking in their own territories respectively; to further examine into their systems for the regulation of the traffic, in the light of the experience of other countries; to enter into negotiations with China to insure the adoption of effective and prompt measures to prohibit opium traffic in those concessions and settlements. Finally, the conference recommended that each government apply its pharmacy laws to its subjects in consular districts, concessions, and settlements in China. In some quarters the outcome of the meeting was sharply criticised as being empty of any practical fruit, and England was accused of having rendered it so, under the influence of the Indian opium trade. But the State Department at Washington gave expression to a very different view. There it was pointed out that the Commission had been one of inquiry, only; that its instructions had been "to study the opium problem and report as to the best and most feasible means of solving it," and that this programme was executed "to the entire satisfaction of the Governments concerned."

1909 (February).—United States.—Act to prohibit the importation and smoking of opium in the United States.—A stringent act prohibitory of the importation and use of opium for any other than medicinal purposes passed the Senate of the United States on February 2, 1909, having already been adopted by the other House. Smoking opium is positively forbidden; no one may bring it into the country without facing a fine of from fifty to five thousand dollars and imprisonment for two years; the mere possession of opium, a preparation of, or derivative therefrom, is to be deemed sufficient evidence to authorize conviction. For medicinal purposes, opium may be brought in under regulations prescribed by the secretary of the treasury.

1910-1922.—Growth of opium problem in the United States.—Dr. Alexander Lambert stated before Congress in 1922 that twelve to seventy-two times as much opium is consumed in the United States as in any other white country. In New York State alone there are 50,000 addicts. The world produces 500 times its opium requirements. Three and one-half tons is its actual medical need; 1,500 tons are produced and consumed.

ALSO IN: E. N. La Motte, *America and the opium trade* (Atlantic Monthly, June, 1922).—*Traffic in narcotic drugs* (Report of Special Narcotic Committee, United States Treasury Department).

1911.—Ten-year agreement between Great Britain and China.—At the expiration of the Indo-Chinese agreement of 1908, Great Britain and China, in May, 1911, arranged for its renewal for a period of ten years.

1911-1919.—Second international opium conference at The Hague.—International opium convention made part of Treaty of Versailles.—"On December 10, 1911, an international opium conference met at The Hague, again as in 1909 on the initiative of the United States. China, France, Germany, Great Britain, The Netherlands, Italy, Japan, Persia, Portugal, Siam, and the United States were represented. On January 23, 1912, the International Opium Convention was signed. . . . China caused its incorporation in the treaty of peace with Germany in 1919. Article 295 of the treaty of Versailles provides that a ratification

of the peace treaty shall be tantamount to a ratification of the opium convention. [The United States had already ratified the convention in 1914.]"—*China Year Book*, 1921-1922, pp. 797, 793, 802.

ALSO IN: H. Wright, *International opium conference* (American Journal of International Law, pp. 865-889).

1916-1918.—End of legal import trade in China.—Destruction of stocks on hand.—"In accordance with the Anglo-Chinese agreement of 1911 the legitimate foreign opium trade in China and the legitimate Chinese cultivation of opium came to an end on December 31, 1917. . . . In the meantime the troubled condition of the country led to a marked recrudescence of opium growing throughout a number of provinces. On June 11, 1918 an official from the Ministry of Finance signed an agreement with the Opium Combine at Shanghai to purchase the balance (of opium on hand). . . . It soon became known, however, that the intention of those concerned in the deal was to resell . . . to a Shanghai syndicate [at a large profit]. The syndicate it was stated was to advance the Peking Government \$5,000,000 for the right to dispose of the opium in Kiangsu and Kiangsi. . . . This proposed deal evoked protests from the British and American governments. . . . The controversy dragged on until in accordance with a decision of the Peking Government the whole stock was publicly burnt."—*China Year Book*, 1922, pp. 677, 678.

1918.—Japanese morphia traffic.—During 1918 the opium traffic, which was now legally at an end, was reintroduced in a deadlier guise from a different quarter. Morphia manufactured from Persian opium in well-equipped laboratories in Japan and Formosa was smuggled into China in 1918 in large quantities, conservatively estimated at eighteen tons. The chief agency in the distribution of morphia was the Japanese post-office, which permitted no inspection of parcels in its post offices in China. The island of Formosa, favored by geographical propinquity, did a flourishing trade in morphia, opium and other contraband, under Japanese protection. The profits of Japan from the morphia trade amounted to \$8,400,000 in 1913 and increased enormously during the World War. In 1918, 165,078 ounces of morphia were imported into Japan. During the period from 1915-1920, the yearly average rose to 478,629 ounces, an increase of 2,406 per cent over that of the decade 1898-1907.—Based on T. F. F. Millard, *Democracy and the eastern question*, ch. 8, and *China Year Book*, 1921-1922, p. 795.

1919-1922.—Efforts of China to stop opium production.—American and British-made morphia brought in by Japanese smugglers.—"The central administration has attempted to put a stop to poppy cultivation but the actual conditions seem to have been determined by the attitude of the local military and civil authorities. . . . The trade in opium derivatives is in inverse ratio to the cultivation of the poppy. That is to say: where the people secure narcotics from locally grown poppy, there is little, if any, demand for these drugs from outside sources; but where the restrictions prevent local cultivation, people are supplied with opium derivatives through illicit channels. . . . Practically no morphia is manufactured in China; . . . all that comes in is manufactured in the United States and Great Britain, from which countries it is exported to Japan, whence it finds its way into China. . . . In Japan the use of opium and cocaine derivatives is strictly confined by law to purely medical purposes. . . .

During 1920, 872,000 ounces in excess of legitimate consumption were imported into Japan."—*China Year Book*, 1921-1922, pp. 790, 794-795.

1921-1923.—**Work of League of Nations opium committee.—Coöperation with the United States.**—"Under the auspices of the League of Nations arose the greatest movement ever started to solve the problem of dangerous drugs. . . . In the Treaty of Versailles an article was included in the League of Nations Pact whereby the League was entrusted with exclusive control over the trade in opium and other dangerous drugs. The signatory Powers of the Treaty which had not yet signed or ratified the above-mentioned convention pledged themselves under Article 295, among other things, to promulgate the necessary laws within twelve months after the Versailles Treaty came into force. At the very first League of Nations Assembly [February 1921] the Council was requested to nominate an advisory committee on the opium question. In the second session it was decided to extend the activities of the committee to the chemical derivatives of these drugs. . . . If when the poppy is in bloom one could travel by aeroplane from the Mediterranean to the Pacific, one would see below one an expanse of white fields stretching from Thrace to Asia Minor; the great Persian plateau, too, is rich in poppies. Proceeding further East, one would find in India about 200,000 acres of poppy fields. The peasants do not plant the poppy any more in China, but it is found in Formosa and in Korea and Manchuria. In January of this year the fourth session of the Opium Committee took place in Geneva. All the members of the committee, including the German delegate, were in agreement. For the first time the United States was officially represented. This fact is all the more valuable in that the United States is among the chief manufacturers and exporters of morphia and cocaine. About one million pounds of coca leaves are imported into America annually. . . . Switzerland, where the illicit trading in morphia and cocaine is immense, did not ask to be represented. Persia sent written word to the Committee that she approved of the licensing system for imports and exports, and Turkey stated that she would sign the Opium Convention as soon as she was represented on the League. The main difficulty consisted in finding a way to ascertain the quantities of opium, morphia and cocaine necessary for medicinal purposes. . . . The success of the campaign will depend almost entirely on the amount of co-operation among the various Governments. Much resistance will have to be broken down, and the Governments appear to be ignoring the fact of the existence of powerful syndicates interested in the preparation of these narcotics. The suppression of smuggling is another great difficulty. . . . In England a new law permits the searching of the houses of suspected persons and provides for a fine up to £1,000 and for penal servitude not exceeding ten years. . . . The United States have introduced legislation whereby import is restricted and all export prohibited. Germany possesses very stringent protective legislation, which should, however, be perfected as regards export concessions. It is humiliating to have to acknowledge that in Switzerland, where the use of cocaine is attaining dangerous proportions, effective legislation is particularly lacking. . . . It is useless any longer to conceal the fact that it possesses important cocaine and morphia factories."—*The League of Nations and the drug traffic (Economic Review, May 11, 1923, p. 411)*.—The fifth session of the opium advisory committee was held at Geneva in May, 1923. The sittings were open to

the public and a strong American delegation was present. The representatives of the United States submitted proposals to recognize the use of opium products for other than medicinal purposes as an abuse, and to prevent such abuse by limiting the production of raw opium in such a manner as to leave no surplus available for non-medicinal and non-scientific purposes. These statements were accepted by the advisory committee "as embodying the general principles by which the governments should be guided in dealing with the question of the abuse of dangerous drugs, and on which, in fact, the International Convention of 1912 is based. . . . [The committee reviewed its own efforts to accomplish the same ends during the past two years in] taking all possible steps to secure the adhesion of all countries to the Convention; (2) investigating the question of the world's needs of the manufactured drugs for medical and scientific uses, with a view to the eventual limitation of the production of these drugs; (3) recommending the system of import certificates, arranging the exchange between states of information in regard to the illicit traffic in the drugs, and proposing other measures for securing international co-operation in suppressing that traffic; (4) inviting the Powers with territories in the Far East to review their requirements of opium, and submitting proposals for an investigation by the Chinese Government of the conditions in China, with a view to the more effective application of Chapter II. of the Convention and the solution of the problem of the use of prepared opium in the Far East; (5) collecting and publishing information as to the measures taken to give effect to the Convention and the position generally in all countries in regard to the traffic, with a view to securing the enforcement of the Convention. . . . [In addition,] the Committee studied in considerable detail the status of its regular work. A mass of statistics and other data prepared by the Secretariat from reports sent in by the Governments in answer to various questionnaires was gone through and consideration given to the status of the system of import and export certificates, annual reports, the statistics for the amounts of drugs needed for medicinal and scientific purposes, the imposition of more severe penalties for violation of the drug regulations, and the status of the ratification of the 1912 Convention. In connection with the latter, Mrs. Hamilton Wright [assessor to the Committee] informed the Committee that the Turkish delegation at Lausanne authorized her to state that Turkey would ratify the Convention shortly.—*Social and humanitarian questions, fifth session of the opium committee (Monthly Summary of the League of Nations, June 15, 1923, pp. 109-110)*.

ALSO IN: E. N. La Motte, *Opium monopoly*.—G. S. Bajpai, *India and the opium trade (Atlantic Monthly, June 1922, pp. 740-743)*.—S. Merwin, *Drugging a nation*.—W. T. Dunn, *Opium traffic in its international aspects*.—B. Hassan, *Drink and drug evil in India*.

OPIMUM WAR. See CHINA: 1839-1842; OPIUM PROBLEM: 1840.

OPORTO, city in Portugal, about three miles from the mouth of the Douro river. The population in 1920 was 203,199. See PORTUGAL: Early history.

1820.—**Revolution.** See PORTUGAL: 1820-1824.

1832.—**Siege by Dom Miguel.** See PORTUGAL: 1824-1889.

1919.—**Riots.** See PORTUGAL: 1919.

OPPELN, Fall of (1642). See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

OPPENHEIM, town of Hesse, Germany. See CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.

OPPIAN (fl. 2nd century), Greek poet. See GREEK LITERATURE: Greco-Roman period: Lucian, etc.

OPPIAN LAW.—A law passed at Rome during the second Punic War (3d century B.C.), forbidding any woman to wear a gay-colored dress, or more than half an ounce of gold ornament, and prohibiting the use of a car drawn by horses within a mile of any city or town. It was repealed 194 B.C.—Based on H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 4, ch. 3.—See also **ROME**: Republic: B.C. 184-149.

ALSO IN: R. F. Horton, *History of the Romans*, ch. 16.

OPPIDUM.—Among the Gauls and the Britons a town, or a fortified place, was called an oppidum. As Cæsar explained the term, speaking of the oppidum of Cassivellaunus, in Britain, it signified a "stockade or enclosed space in the midst of a forest, where they took refuge with their flocks and herds in case of an invasion."—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, v. 2, ch. 19, note E.

ALSO IN: Cæsar, *Galic War*, bk. 5, ch. 21.

OPRITCHNINA, or **Oprichina**, system of confiscation in Russia. See **RUSSIA**: 16th century: Economic revolution.

OPSONINS. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Modern: 19th century: Opsonins.

OPTIMATES.—"New names came into fashion [in Rome], but it is difficult to say when they were first used. We may probably refer the origin of them to the time of the Gracchi [133-121 B.C.]. One party was designated by the name of Optimates, 'the class of the best.' The name shows that it must have been invented by the 'best,' for the people would certainly not have given it to them. We may easily guess who were the Optimates. They were the rich and powerful, who ruled by intimidation, intrigue, and bribery, who bought the votes of the people and sold their interests. . . . Opposed to the Optimates were the Populares."—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 1, ch. 20.—See also **ROME**: Republic: B.C. 159-133.

OQUENDO, Antonio de, Spanish admiral. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1625-1647.

ORACLES.—"Wherever the worship of Apollo had fixed its roots, there were sibyls and prophets; for Apollo is nowhere conceivable without the beneficent light of prophecy streaming out from his abode. The happy situation and moral significance of leading colleges of priests procured a peculiar authority for individual oracles. Among these are the Lycian Patara, the Thymbræan oracle near Troja (to which belongs Cassandra, the most famed of Apollo's prophetesses), the Gryneum on Lesbos, the Clarian oracle near Colophon, and finally the most important of all the oracles of Asia Minor, the Didymæum near Miletus, where the family of the Branchidæ held the prophetic office as a hereditary honorary right. Delos connects the Apolline stations on the two opposite sides of the water: here, too, was a primitive oracle, where Anius, the son of Apollo, was celebrated as the founder of a priestly family of soothsayers. . . . The sanctuaries of Ismenian Apollo in Thebes were founded, the Ptoïum on the hill which separates the Hylian plain of the sea from the Copæic, and in Phocis the oracle of Abæ. The reason why the fame of all these celebrated seats of Apollo was obscured by that of Delphi lies in a series of exceptional and extraordinary circumstances by which this place was qualified to become a centre, not only of the lands in its immediate neighbourhood, like the other oracles, but of the whole nation. . . .

With all the more important sanctuaries there was connected a comprehensive financial administration, it being the duty of the priests, by shrewd management, by sharing in profitable undertakings, by advantageous leases, by lending money, to increase the annual revenues. . . . There were no places of greater security, and they were, therefore, used by States as well as by private persons as places of deposit for their valuable documents, such as wills, compacts, or ready money. By this means the sanctuary entered into business relations with all parts of the Greek world, which brought it gain and influence. The oracles became money-institutions, which took the place of public banks. . . . It was by their acquiring, in addition to the authority of religious holiness, and the superior weight of mental culture, that power which was attainable by means of personal relations of the most comprehensive sort, as well as through great pecuniary means and national credit, that it was possible for the oracle-priests to gain so comprehensive an influence upon all Grecian affairs. . . . With the extension of colonies the priests' knowledge of the world increased, and with this the commanding eminence of the oracle-god. . . . The oracles were in every respect not only the provident eye, not only the religious conscience, of the Greek nation, but they were also its memory."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 2, ch. 4.—"The sites selected for these oracles were generally marked by some physical property, which fitted them to be the scenes of such miraculous manifestations. They were in a volcanic region, where gas escaping from a fissure in the earth might be inhaled, and the consequent exhilaration or ecstasy, partly real and partly imaginary, was a divine inspiration. At the Pythian oracle in Delphi there was thought to be such an exhalation. Others have supposed that the priests possessed the secret of manufacturing an exhilarating gas. . . . In each of the oracular temples of Apollo, the officiating functionary was a woman, probably chosen on account of her nervous temperament;—at first young, but, a love affair having happened, it was decided that no one under fifty should be eligible to the office. The priestess sat upon a tripod, placed over the chasm in the centre of the temple."—C. C. Felton, *Greece, ancient and modern*, ch. 2, lect. 9.

ORAN, city in Algeria, on the Gulf of Oran, 261 miles southwest of Algiers.

1509.—Conquest by Cardinal Ximenes. See **BARBARY STATES**: 1505-1510.

1563.—Siege and repulse of Moors. See **BARBARY STATES**: 1563-1565.

1833.—French war of subjugation with Abdel-Kader. See **BARBARY STATES**: 1830-1846.

ORANGE, Fort. See **ALBANY**, NEW YORK.

ORANGE, House of. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1813.

ORANGE, Principality of.—"The little, but wealthy and delicious, tract of land, of which Orange is the capital [see **ARAUSIO**] being about four miles in length and as many in breadth, lies in the Comté Venaissin, bordering upon that of Avignon, within a small distance of the Rhone; and made no inconsiderable part of that ancient and famous Kingdom of Arles which was established by Boso towards the end of the 9th century [see **BURGUNDY**: 888-1032; 1032]. . . . In the beginning of the 9th century, historians tell us of one William, surnamed Cornet, of uncertain extraction, sovereign of this State, and highly esteemed by the great Emperor Charlemagne, whose vassal he then was. Upon failure of the male descendants of this prince in the person of Rambald IV., who died in the 13th century, his lands devolved to Tiburga, great aunt to the said Rambald, who

brought them in marriage to Bertrand II. of the illustrious house of Baux. These were common ancestors to Raymond V., father to Mary, with whom John IV. of Chalon contracted an alliance in 1386; and it was from them that descended in a direct male line the brave Philibert of Chalon, who, after many signal services rendered the Emperor Charles V., . . . had the misfortune to be slain, leaving behind him no issue, . . . while he had the command of the siege before Florence. Philibert had one only sister, named Claudia, whose education was at the French court, [where, in 1515, she married Henry, of Nassau, whereby the principality passed to that house which was made most illustrious, in the next generation, by William the Silent, Prince of Orange. The Dutch stadtholders retained the title of Princes of Orange until William III. Louis XIV seized the principality in 1672, but it was restored to the House of Nassau by the Peace of Ryswick (see FRANCE: 1697). On the death of William III it was declared to be forfeited to the French crown, and was bestowed on the Prince of Conti; but the king of Prussia, who claimed it, was permitted, under the Treaty of Utrecht, to bear the title, without possession of the domain (see UTRECHT: 1712-1714).]"—J. Breval, *History of the House of Nassau*.—See also NASSAU.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *Orange* (*Historical essays*, v. 4).

ORANGE BOOK, Russian diplomatic correspondence dealing with the World War. See **WORLD WAR**: Diplomatic background: 3.

ORANGE FREE STATE: **Geography**.—**Area**.—**Population**.—The Orange Free State Province is a pastoral and agricultural region, 50,389 square miles in area, lying north of the Orange and south of the Vaal rivers. It is bounded on the north by the Transvaal, east by Natal, southeast by Basutoland, and south and west by the Cape province. Its population in 1921 was 628,827. Of these 188,556 were white and 440,271 were colored. It is a member of the legislative Union of South Africa, formed May 31, 1910.

1824-1836.—**Settled by Boers**.—In 1824 Dutch farmers from Cape Colony settled in the region and in 1836 the great trek from Cape Colony brought many new settlers, who in the same year drew up a rudimentary republican form of government.—See also **BOER**.

1854.—**Independence recognized**.—By the convention of Bloemfontein the state was recognized as an independent republic. See also **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1806-1881.

1895.—**Proposed federal union with the Transvaal**. See **AFRICA**: Modern European occupation: Chronology: 1895.

1897.—**Treaty with the South African republic**. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1897 (April).

1899-1900.—**War with Great Britain**. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1899 (September-October); (October-November).

1900 (March).—**Overtures of peace to England**.—**Proclamation by British commander**. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1900 (March).

1900 (May).—**Protest against annexation to the British dominions**. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1900 (May): Proclamation, etc.

1901 (January).—**Peace movement**.—**Proclamation of Steyn and De Wet**. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1901 (January).

1902.—**Peace preliminaries**.—**Treaty with England concluded**. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1901-1902.

1902-1920.—**British colony**.—**Formation of national union**.—**Termination of intercolonial council**.—**Language question**.—**Union of col-**

onies.—The burghers under Christian de Wet and others kept the field for nearly two years after the British proclamation of annexation; but British sovereignty was acknowledged finally by articles of peace signed May 31, 1902. A civil administration of the colony had been established in 1901. A nominated legislative council was set up in 1902, and some ex-burghers became unofficial members. In 1903 the railroads and the constabulary of the two colonies (The Transvaal and Orange River Colony) came under an intercolonial control, and movements were made to repair the ravages of the war, the repatriation of prisoners and occupants of concentration camps, etc. The educational system was reorganized, and land-settlements were begun in an attempt to increase the British part of the population. As they recovered from the war the Boers thought of recovering their political ascendancy. At a congress of ex-burghers at Brandfort, December, 1904, a resolution demanding self-government for the colony was passed, followed in July 1905 by a conference at Bloemfontein resolving to form a national union, which, formally organized in May 1906, became the *Oranje Unie*. The Transvaal Boers had formed a similar organization in January 1905, *Het Volk*. The object of these organizations and of the Africander Bond were to advance the Boer ideals in state and society, and all had similar constitutions. Some ex-burghers had sincerely accepted the new order, and these formed an opposing organization and gave it the title of the Constitutional party; but it was only in Bloemfontein that it had any strong following. But now the whole political situation of the Boer colonies was altered by the incoming of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's Liberal government in London, December 1905. The late Conservative government had intended to lead the Boers to self-government through an intermediate representative form, which the Campbell-Bannerman party decided to omit. In April 1906 it sent a committee to South Africa to inquire and report. It recommended and secured the adoption of a form of government which, though not just what they had asked, was seen by the Boers to insure power to their majority. This was promulgated July 1, 1907; and an election for the legislature was held in the following November, returning twenty-nine members of the *Oranje Unie*, five Constitutionalists (four of them being four-fifths of the total representation of Bloemfontein), and four Independents. To form the first ministry following the election the governor called on Mr. Abraham Fischer, leader and chairman of the *Oranje Unie*, an able Boer statesman in pre-war time, vice-president of the volksraad in 1893, member of the executive council of the state in 1896, a counsellor of both Presidents Steyn and Kruger, formulator of the ultimatum sent to the British on the eve of the war, and ambassador to Europe in the Boer cause while the war was raging. The first meeting of the new legislature was on Dec. 18, 1907. It was then announced that both the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony had notified the termination of the intercolonial council, each meaning to acquire individual control of its own constabulary and railways. After sitting two days the legislature was prorogued until May 1908, when a bill to foster the Dutch language was the chief measure enacted. Strife resulted from the administration of this act, for it required every child to accept instruction in every subject partly in Dutch, often against the protests of English-speaking parents, and sometimes even of Dutch burghers. A fruitless conference on the matter was held at Bloemfontein in November 1909, and finally

the English-speaking population undertook the establishment of their own separate schools. In May, 1908, there was an interstate conference, including representatives of Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal, and Orange, among whose important acts was the sending of a resolution to the several parliaments recommending closer union among the South-African states and the appointment of delegates to a national convention to draft a constitution. The union of the four colonies by imperial act was promulgated May 31, 1910; Orange River Colony having entered the union under the title of the Orange Free State Province. (See also SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1908-1909.) In 1912 the issue of bilingual instruction was compromised by the adoption of a proposal of the Union Parliament that up to Standard IV instruction in the schools should be given in the pupil's "home language." In 1920 Afrikaans or colloquial Dutch was made equivalent to Netherlands Dutch as a medium of instruction and has been widely used. The Dutch Nationalists were strongly intrenched in the state during the World War. It was the principal fighting area in the rebellion of General De Wet in 1914. General Herzog, who became leader of the Dutch Nationalists on the death of ex-president Steyn in 1916, carried the Free State in the elections of 1915 and 1920.

1921.—Movement for an independent union of South Africa.—General Herzog again carried the Free State in the election of 1921, when he declared for the secession of the Union from the British Empire. His party won sixteen out of the seventeen constituencies into which the province was divided.

1921.—Electoral system. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

ALSO IN: G. M'C. Theal, *South Africa*, ch. 30, 33.—G. W. Eybers, *Select constitutional documents illustrating South African history, 1795-1910*, pp. lx-lxvii, 260-348.—E. H. Walton, *Inner history of the national convention of South Africa*.—H. Gunn, *Language question in the Orange River Colony, 1902-1910*.

ORANGE RIVER COLONY, South Africa. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Climatic conditions.

1902-1903.—Repatriation of Boers. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1902-1903.

1909.—Represented at Imperial Defense conference. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: British Imperial Defense conference.

1910.—Enters Union of South Africa. See ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920.

ORANGE SOCIETY. See IRELAND: 1795-1796.

ORANGEMEN, league of Protestant peasants of Ulster. See ULSTER: 1791-1797; IRELAND: 1793-1798; 1795-1796.

ORANG-MALAYU, original Malays. See MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE.

ORANJIE UNIE, Formation of. See ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920.

ORARIANS, inclusive term for all Eskimos. See ESKIMO, OR ESKIMAUAN, FAMILY.

ORATIONES, Roman imperial, propositions submitted to the senate. See CORPUS JURIS CIVILIS.

ORATORY, Congregation of the.—"Philip of Neri, a young Florentine of good birth [1515-1595; canonised 1622] . . . in 1548 instituted at Rome the Society of the Holy Trinity, to minister to the wants of the pilgrims at Rome. But the operations of his mission gradually extended till they embraced the spiritual welfare of the Roman population at large, and the reformation of the Roman clergy in particular. No figure is more serene and more sym-

pathetic to us in the history of the Catholic reaction than that of this latter-day 'apostle of Rome.' From his association, which followed the rule of St. Augustine, sprang in 1575 the Congregation of the Oratory at Rome, famous as the seminary of much that is most admirable in the labours of the Catholic clergy."—A. W. Ward, *Counter-Reformation*, p. 30.—The congregation continued to spread throughout Europe, up to 1800. Suppressed under Napoleon I, it recovered and after a second suppression was revived in 1869. Cardinal Newman founded an English branch in 1847.

ALSO IN: H. L. S. Lear, *Priestly life in France*.

ORATORY OF DIVINE LOVE. See CHRISTIANITY: 16th century: Counter-Reformation.

ORBEGOSO, Don Luís José (1795-1847), Peruvian general and statesman. See PERU: 1826-1876.

ORBITELLO, Siege of (1646). See ITALY: 1646-1654.

ORCHA, Battle of. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).

ORCHAN, Turkish Sultan, 1325-1359.

ORCHARDSON, Sir William Quiller (1835-1910), Scottish painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

ORCHIAN, FANNIAN, DIDIAN LAWS.—"In the year 181 B.C. [Rome] a law (the Lex Orchia) was designed to restrain extravagance in private banquets, and to limit the number of guests. This law proved ineffectual, and as early as 161 B.C. a far stricter law was introduced by the consul C. Fannius (the Lex Fannia) which prescribed how much might be spent on festive banquets and common family meals. . . . The law, moreover, prohibited certain kinds of food and drink. By a law in the year 143 B.C. (the Lex Didia) this regulation was extended over the whole of Italy."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, v. 4, bk. 6, ch. 12.

ORCHOMENOS, Battle of (85 B.C.). See MITHRADATIC WARS.

ORCHOMENUS, city in Bœotia. See BÆOTIA; GREECE: Map of ancient Greece; MINYI.

ORCYNIA. See HERCYNIAN FOREST.

ORDAINERS, legislative body. See ENGLAND: 1310-1311.

ORDEAL, a method of determining the guilt or innocence of an accused person by a casting of lots, or a trial of strength or endurance often of such a nature that only something which might be believed to be an interposition of heaven could save the prisoner. "During the full fervor of the belief that the Divine interposition could at all times be had for the asking, almost any form of procedure, conducted under priestly observances, could assume the position and influence of an ordeal. As early as 592, we find Gregory the Great alluding to a simple purgatorial oath, taken by a Bishop on the relics of St. Peter, in terms which convey evidently the idea that the accused, if guilty, had exposed himself to imminent danger, and that by performing the ceremony unharmed he had sufficiently proved his innocence. But such unsubstantial refinements were not sufficient for the vulgar, who craved the evidence of their senses, and desired material proof to rebut material accusations. In ordinary practice, therefore, the principal modes by which the will of Heaven was ascertained were the ordeal of fire, whether administered directly, or through the agency of boiling water or red-hot iron; that of cold water; of bread or cheese; of the Eucharist; of the cross; the lot; and the touching of the body of the victim in cases of murder. Some of these, it will be

seen, required a miraculous interposition to save the accused; others to condemn; some depended altogether on volition, others on the purest chance; while others, again, derived their power from the influence exerted on the mind of the patient. They were all accompanied with solemn religious observances. . . . The ordeal of boiling water ('æneum,' 'judicium aquæ ferventis,' 'cacabus,' 'caldaria') is probably the oldest form in which the application of fire was judicially administered in Europe as a mode of proof. . . . A caldron of water was brought to the boiling point, and the accused was obliged with his naked hand to find a small stone or ring thrown into it; sometimes the latter portion was omitted, and the hand was simply inserted, in trivial cases to the wrist, in crimes of magnitude to the elbow, the former being termed the single, the latter the triple ordeal. . . . The cold-water ordeal ('judicium aquæ frigida') differed from most of its congeners in requiring a miracle to convict the accused, as in the natural order of things he escaped. . . . The basis of this ordeal was the superstitious belief that the pure element would not receive into its bosom any one stained with the crime of a false oath."—H. C. Lea, *Superstition and force*, ch. 3.—See also CRIMINAL LAW: 1108-1190.

ORDER OF MARIA THERESA, Austria. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals: a.

ORDER OF PREACHERS. See INQUISITION: 1203-1525.

ORDER OF ST. GEORGE, Russia. See ST. GEORGE, ORDER OF.

ORDER OF ST. JOHN. See HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1118-1310.

ORDER OF THE BATH. See BATH, ORDER OF THE.

ORDER OF THE GOLDEN FLEECE. See GOLDEN FLEECE, KNIGHTS OF THE ORDER OF THE.

ORDER OF THE SONS OF LIBERTY, or American Knights. See U.S.A.: 1864 (October): Report on secret disloyal associations, etc.

ORDER OF THE SWORD. See LIVONIA: 12th-13th centuries.

ORDERS, Monastic. See AUSTIN CANONS; BENEDICTINE ORDERS; CAPUCHINS; CARMELITE FRIARS; CARTHUSIAN ORDER; CISTERCIAN ORDER; CLAIRVAUX; CLUGNY; MENDICANT ORDERS; RECOLLECTS; SERVITES; THEATINES; TRAPPISTS.

ORDERS IN COUNCIL: Blockade by British. See BLOCKADE: Meaning, etc.; CONTINENTAL SYSTEM; FRANCE: 1806-1810; U.S.A.: 1804-1809.

ORDERS OF ARCHITECTURE: Definition.—The order is "the unit of classic architecture, comprising the column and its entablature, and called Tuscan, Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, or Composite, according to its details. The column consists of base, shaft and capital. The entablature comprises the Architrave, or lintel, which rests upon the columns and is cut in one, two, or three flat bands, its top marked by a projecting moulding; the Frieze, a high band either plain or decorated; and the projecting cornice, supported by its Bed-moulding and sometimes by brackets, and ending in a Cymatium or Crown-moulding. The Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders are both Greek and Roman, though the Corinthian was fully developed only under Roman influence. The Greek Doric is heavy and massive. It has no base, a channelled shaft, and a capital with a heavy square abacus supported by an oval moulding called the Echinus. Its frieze is decorated with flat channelled blocks called Triglyphs . . . between which are square panels called Metopes, often charged with sculpture.

. . . The Roman Doric is lighter. The columns have a base; the architrave is lower and the frieze higher. The Ionic has a fluted column, and a capital with large scrolls or Volutes at the corners and an echinus under them, a frieze plain or charged with continuous sculpture, and a cornice usually with dentils. The Corinthian has a fluted column, a high capital surrounded by two ranges of acanthus leaves with small volutes at the corners, a frieze like the Ionic, and a cornice enriched with dentils, brackets called Modillions, and carved mouldings. The Tuscan and Composite are Roman only. The first is a simplified Doric, without channels or triglyphs; the second a somewhat simplified Corinthian, its heavier capital carrying larger volutes and an echinus like the Ionic."—W. P. P. Longfellow, *Cyclopædia of works of architecture*, p. xxviii.—See also ARCHITECTURE, CLASSIC.

ALSO IN: R. Sturgis, *Dictionary of architecture and building*, v. 3, pp. 28-29.

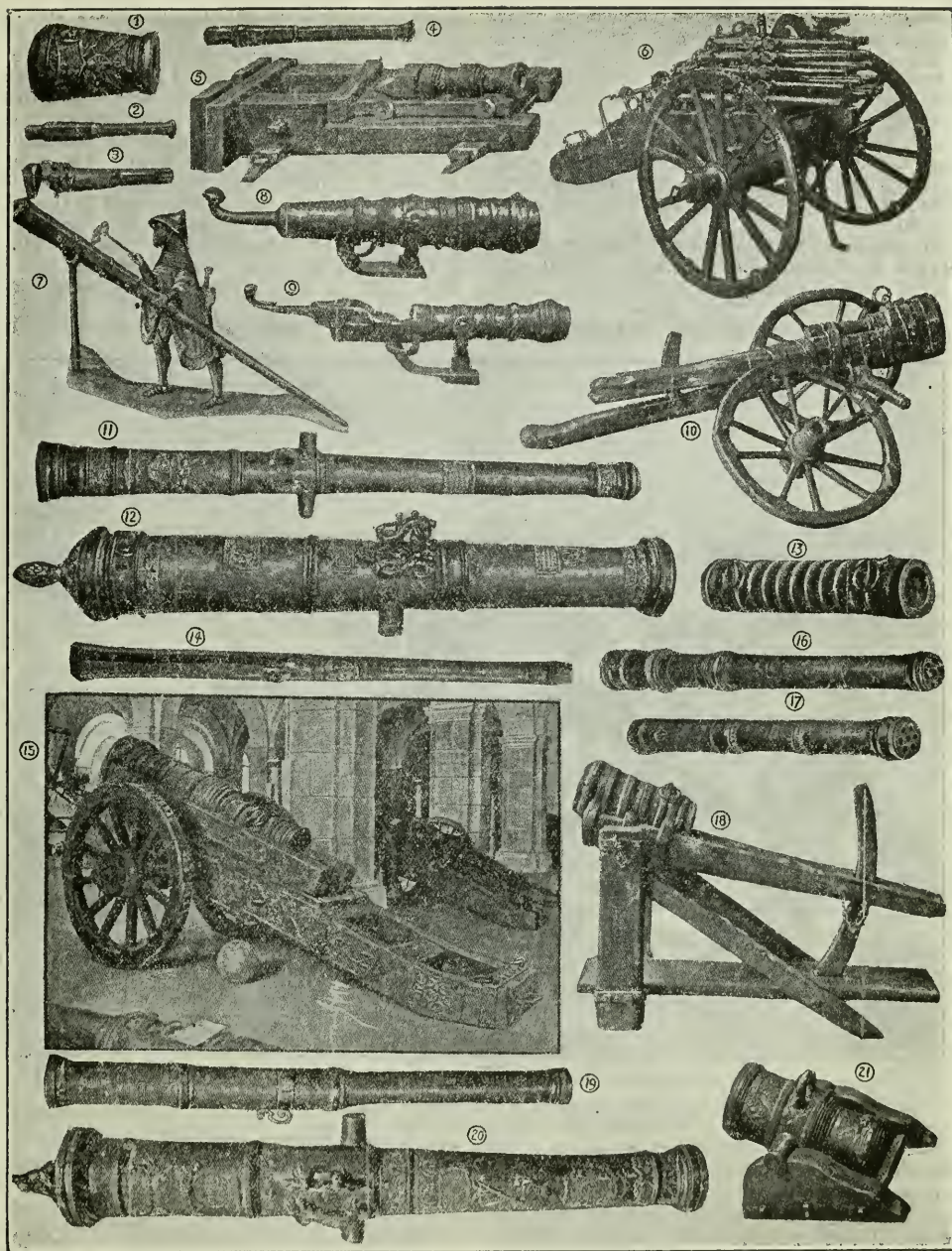
ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD. See KNIGHTHOOD.

ORDINANCE OF 1787. See MINNESOTA: 1856-1862; NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1787; U.S.A.: Historical geography.

ORDINANCES OF SECESSION. See U.S.A.: 1860 (November-December); 1861 (January-February).

ORDINANCES OF 1311. See ENGLAND: 1310-1311.

ORDNANCE: 14th-18th centuries.—Invention of gunpowder.—Early development of guns and ammunition.—"The Chinese had for a long time known how to make powder, but they did not use it except for fireworks. [See CHEMISTRY: Explosives: Gunpowder and early use of explosives.] The alchemists of the thirteenth century had known of a mixture of carbon, sulphur, and saltpetre, but this powder fused instead of exploding. The Arabs in purifying the saltpetre succeeded in producing a real gunpowder, and used it for throwing projectiles through a tube. [See LIQUID FIRE.] The Christians imitated them; in 1325 Florence had metal cannon and iron balls cast. The invention was adopted throughout Europe, but it was perfected slowly. . . . Artillery did not become really formidable until the sixteenth century, and the portable firearms did not become dangerous until the seventeenth century."—C. Seignobos, *History of medieval and modern civilization*, pp. 235-236.—"Grape' and 'canister' were introduced [in the following century]. . . . [See WARSHIPS: 15th-16th centuries]. Grape consisted of a number of tarred lead balls, held together in a net. Canister consisted of a number of small shot in a tin can, the shots being dispersed by the breaking of the can on discharge. Grape now consists of cast iron balls arranged in three tiers by means of circular plates, the whole secured by a pin which passes through the centre. The number of shot in each tier varies from three to five. . . . [It] is very destructive up to three hundred yards and effective up to six hundred yards. Canister shot as we know it at present, is made up of a number of iron balls, placed in a tin cylinder with a wooden bottom the size of the piece of ordnance for which it is intended. Towards the close of the eighteenth century, short cast-iron guns called 'carronades' were introduced by Gascoigne of the Cannon Iron Works, Scotland. They threw heavy shots at low velocity with great battery effect. They were for a long time in use in the British navy. . . . The entire battery of the *Victory*, Nelson's famous flag-ship at the battle of Trafalgar, amounting to a total of 102 guns, was composed of 'carronades'



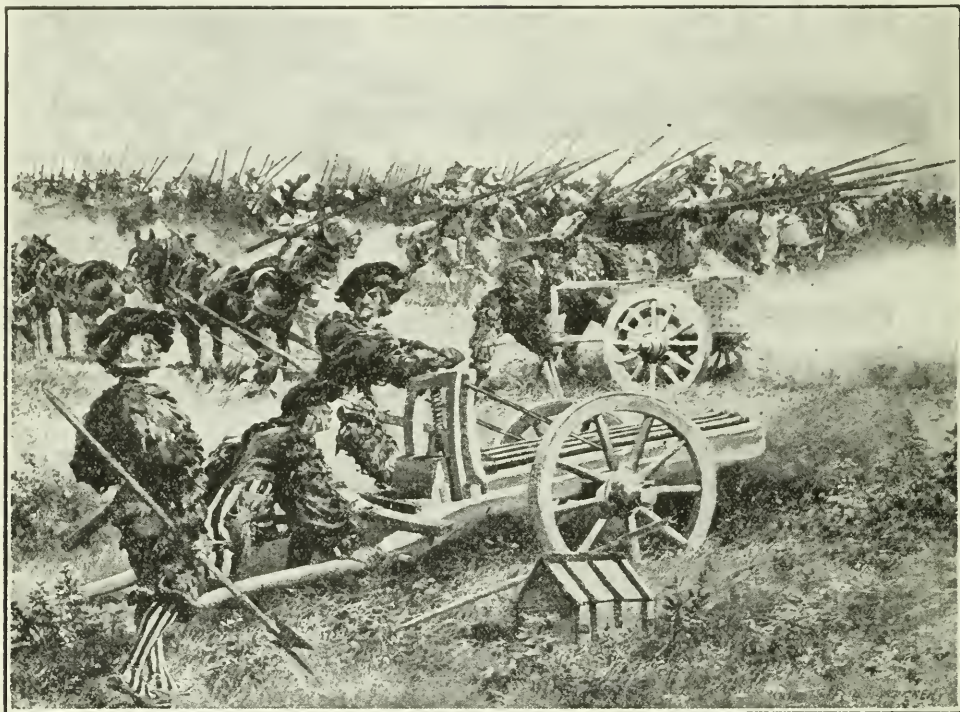
ORDNANCE OF THE 15TH, 16TH AND 17TH CENTURIES

1. Earliest form of bronze mortar. 2. Bronze hand-gun, 1380-1400. 3. Barrel of hand-gun with tail-screw, 1460-1480. 4. Bronze hand-gun, 1400-1420. 5. Stone gun, 1460-1470, mounted. 6. Forerunner of the machine-gun, the "death-organ," 1600-1610, with 20 barrels arranged in five movable tiers. 7. Artilleryman firing gun, 1400. 8. Wrought-iron muzzle-loader, grape-shot, 1450-1500. 9. Wrought-iron breech-loader, Italian, 1480-1500. 10. Burgundian stone-cannon, 1450-1476, artillery of Charles the Bold, lost in the battle of Nancy, 1477. 11. Brandenburg 4-pounder bronze "field-serpent," 1526. 12. Danzig bronze 18-pounder, 1617. 13. Italian bombard, 1405, throwing 7-pound stone shot. 14. Smooth wrought-iron 24-pound breech-loader called the "wild man," 1586; belonged to Duke Julius of Brunswick. 15. "Lazy maid," wrought-iron cannon, throwing a 70-pound stone shot; one of the oldest Saxon guns, from the 14th century. 16 and 17. Revolver guns with 7 barrels, 17th century. 18. Gun throwing a stone bullet of 6 pounds, 1450-1500. 19. So-called leather cannon, made of a copper barrel wrapped in several layers of string and leather, used by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, 1626; scrapped because of overheating. 20. Prussian 24-pounder bronze gun, cast in Berlin, 1708; 8 feet long, throwing an iron shot weighing 23 pounds. 21. Brandenburg bronze mortar for stone shot of 17 pounds, 1707.

varying in size from thirty-two to sixty-eight pounders. They were mounted on wooden truck carriages and were given elevation by handspikes applied under the breech. . . . They were trained by handspikes with the aid of side-tackle and their recoil was limited by a stout rope, called the breeching, the ends of which were secured to the sides of the ship. The slow match was used for firing, the flint lock not being applied to naval guns until 1780."—P. Severing, *Marvels of modern science*, pp. 172-174.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 16.

19th century.—Field artillery.—Dahlgren gun.—Rapid fire guns.—Introduction of rifling.—Cost of manufacture and life of the gun.—French "Model 96."—"From earliest times, artillery has been classed as light and heavy, and

with the bayonet. At the beginning of the Napoleonic wars, the guns of the artillery were quite generally scattered along the infantry line, Napoleon himself being the first to employ them in masses. Waterloo furnishes a very good example of the use of artillery at the time. The British artillery was in a long line along the crest of a ridge, with the infantry drawn up in small squares a little distance behind the crest. The gunners worked their pieces until the French cavalry were almost upon them, then sought safety in the infantry squares opened to receive them. The wave of attack past, they returned to the guns. . . . [In the Civil War in the United States] the mass idea was little used at first. The batteries were usually scattered along the line, and fired independently at whatever suitable targets appeared in their



FIELD ARTILLERY IN THE TIME OF EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN

The precursors of the modern machine gun
(After the painting by Anton Hoffman)

essentially the uses of each have remained the same—the former to attack unsheltered, the latter to attack sheltered, personnel, animals, and material. The old muzzle loader was a practically indestructible tube of iron or bronze mounted on an equally simple and strong carriage. The ammunition was quite in keeping with it. Round shot and grape or canister constituted the projectiles of the field gun. Their use was equally simple. When the enemy was still some hundreds of yards distant, well within what are now termed effective rifle ranges, the gun was loaded with a round shot, leveled, and fired in his direction. . . . When the enemy came within 300 yards, grape or canister was used. The frame of the former or the case of the latter broke up on discharge, and the balls acted as do those from a shotgun. It was now a question of loading and firing as rapidly as possible into the smoke, but at the best only a few shots were possible before the charging infantry arrived

front. The Germans never forgot the lessons of the Napoleonic wars, and, against Austria in 1866 and France in 1870, employed their artillery in masses."—E. D. Scott, *Evolution of field artillery*, p. 116.—"In 1856 Admiral Dahlgren of the United States Navy designed the *Dahlgren* gun with shape proportioned to the 'curve of pressure,' which is to say that the gun was heavy at the breech and light at the muzzle. This gun was well adapted to naval use at the time. From this, onward, guns of high pressure were manufactured until the pressure grew to such proportions that it exceeded the resisting power, represented by the tensile strength of cast iron. . . . General Rodman, Chief of Ordnance of the United States Army, . . . suggested the casting of guns hollow and the cooling of them from the inside outwardly by circulating a stream of cold water in a bore while the outside surface was kept at a high temperature. This method placed the metal inside in a state of com-

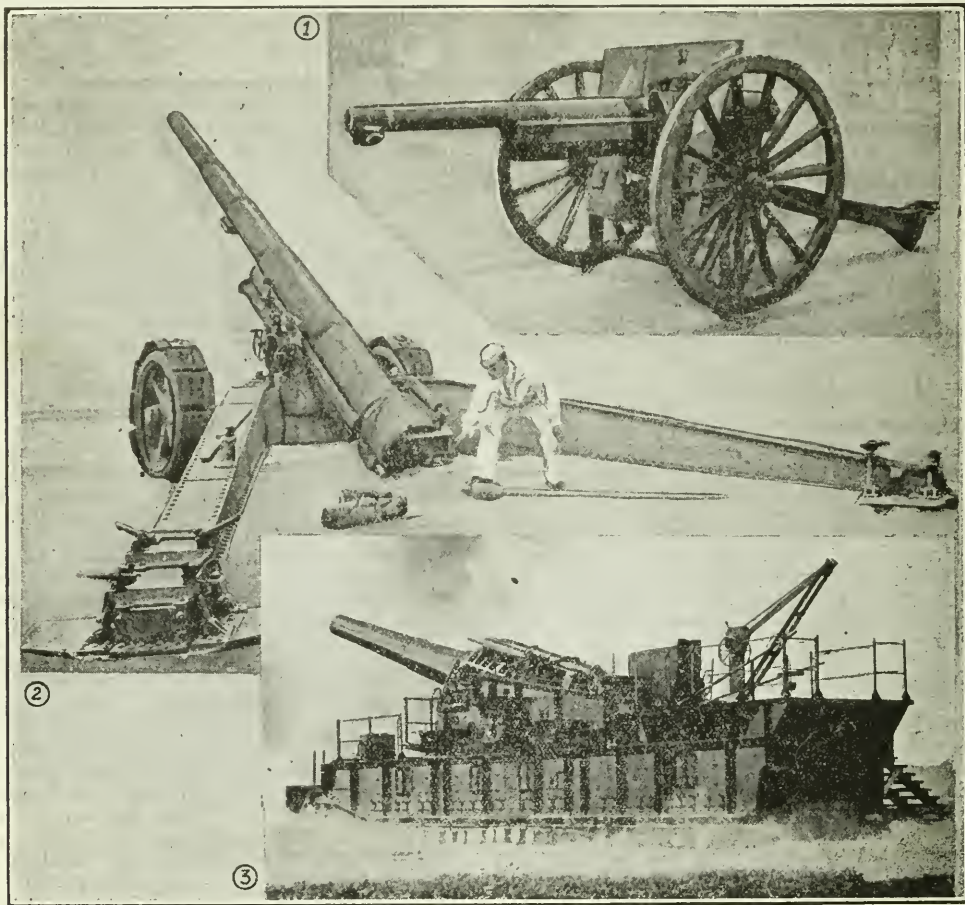
pression and that on the outside in a state of tension. . . . This system was universally employed and gave the best results obtainable from cast iron for many years and was only superseded by that of 'built up' guns, when iron and steel were made available by improved processes of production. . . . The various forms of modern ordnance are classified and named according to size and weight, kind of projectiles used and their velocities; angle of elevation at which they are fired; use; and mode of operation. The guns known as breechloading rifles are from three inches to fourteen inches in calibre, that is, across the bore, and in length from twelve to over sixty feet. They weigh from one ton to fifty tons. They fire solid shot or shells weighing up to eleven hundred pounds at high velocities, from twenty-three to twenty-five hundred feet per second. They can penetrate steel armor to a depth of fifteen to twenty inches at 2,000 yards distance. Rapid fire guns are those in which the operation of opening and closing the breech is performed by a single motion of a lever actuated by the hand, and in which the explosive used is closed in a metallic case. These guns are made in various forms and are operated by several different systems of breech mechanism generally named after their respective inventors. The Vickers-Maxim and the Nordenfeldt are the best known in America. A new type of the Vickers-Maxim was introduced in 1897 in which a quick working breech mechanism automatically ejects the primer and draws up the loading tray into position as the breech is opened. This type was quickly adopted by the United States Navy and materially increased the speed of fire in all calibres."—P. Severing, *Marvels of modern science*, pp. 174-176.—"With the muzzle loader the ranges were so short that the gunner could see his target with the naked eye; consequently, open sights, similar to those on the pistol or rifle, were used. The ranges possible with the new pieces were such that this was no longer true, and optical sights made their appearance. These had not yet come into use in the United States at the time of the Spanish War, but were more or less common in European armies. At about that time it became known that the French had a gun called the 'Model 96,' made on a wholly new system. The points of the new system were, briefly, that the gun when fired slid to the rear on its carriage, compressing a set of springs which, when the force of recoil was expended, returned it to its firing position. By combining a hydraulic system with the springs, the shock of firing was so completely neutralized that the carriage remained in position, and a number of shots could be fired without relaying (aiming) the gun. This increased the possible rapidity of fire and also its accuracy. It was the first adaptation to field guns of a system for controlling recoil that had recently come into use with the heavy guns of position in fortresses and seacoast works. Moreover, the weight was well within the requirements of mobility. A simple yet ingenious system of optical and leveling instruments enabled the gun to be laid on (aimed at) any target, though unseen to the gunner. The possibilities of the new gun were beyond anything formerly imagined. Military Europe received the information with incredulity, quickly followed by alarm, and then came a frantic effort to produce something just as good. The United States followed suit in 1904, and by 1906 the then existing batteries had been equipped with guns of the new system. All gun makers have followed the French system, all have made improvements on it, but up to the beginning of the European War

the French gun, as improved, was better than the best of any other nation. The remarkable performance of this gun had an unfortunate effect on the French military. It lulled them into the belief that their gun was all-sufficient. Other nations, knowing that the field of battle would present problems that no gun of light metal could solve, and that the light piece could never replace the heavy piece in its particular rôle, went quietly ahead adapting the new system to the heavy artillery. Model after model appeared until in 1912 it was believed the limit had been reached when the Skoda 12-inch howitzer appeared at the Austrian manœuvres. But a further surprise was in store when the German 17-inch howitzer appeared in Belgium in 1914."—E. D. Scott, *Evolution of field artillery*, pp. 117-118.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 42; WARSHIPS: 1861-1892.

20th century.—World War.—Importance of heavy artillery.—Indirect fire.—Observation by airplane.—Artillery in trench warfare.—Anti-aircraft artillery.—Barrage fire.—Transport.—Railroad artillery.—Machine guns.—"Not all the French were obsessed with the all-sufficiency of their adored '75's.' But the advocates of heavier metal were given little consideration, and it was only in 1913 that the organization of five regiments of heavy artillery was authorized. They were not completely organized or equipped when the war began a year later. What happened is history. The heaviest fortifications fell one after another before the heavy artillery. The French gun everywhere demonstrated its superiority to others of its class in field fighting, but also its relative uselessness against even such field earthworks as infantry could construct overnight. Then came the rush to remedy the deficiency. The coasts were in no danger from the German fleets, and their fortifications were stripped of every heavy gun for which a carriage could be improvised, and these were hurried to the front. Factories were established, guns and carriages were designed and built—ever the cry was for heavy artillery and more heavy artillery, to match, and eventually to overmatch, that of Germany. The great race for munitions was on, the race that meant winning or losing, the war, and the dominant feature of it all was artillery, and mostly heavy artillery. Not until the heavy artillery of the Allies matched that of the Germans did their prospects for a successful issue brighten. Under the new order of things, positions for the guns were classified roughly as open (wholly exposed to hostile view), partly open (partly concealed by a crest or other cover, the gunner still able to see the target through his sight), and covered (wholly concealed from hostile view). . . . In 1914 the covered position came into universal use. It must not be supposed that the artillery assumes one long straight line. The necessity for concealment, for control, for ability to concentrate its fire, and other considerations make the line anything but straight. Batteries are often placed behind others, and the heavy batteries are scattered about. Generally speaking, the front half of the artillery area contains the light artillery, the rear half the heavy. . . . The long range of the modern gun enabled its fire to be delivered on parts of the battlefield far removed from its immediate front, and this led to the development of the principle that artillery is considered concentrated when so disposed that its fire can be concentrated. By dispersing the batteries the best position could be utilized, the difficulties of the hostile artillery increased, the safety and therefore usefulness of one's own artillery increased.

This, however, demanded a more elaborate system of communication than was formerly considered necessary. In the trench warfare of Europe, it soon became evident that the separation of the commander from his battery was necessarily the rule, that one person could at best see little of the field in which targets might appear and which the battery might reach with its fire, and consequently the more observers the more valuable the battery. It became the custom to put in as many observers and telephones as there were personnel and material available. Artillery communication

ing from the direction of one of these positions indicates it is occupied, and the location is at once swept by fire. It is sometimes possible to locate quite accurately the direction to a hostile battery by the sound of its guns. Such direction known, the probable position of the battery may be determined from maps, or from knowledge of the ground. If the direction be determined from two points of the line well apart, the hostile battery position may be determined with some accuracy from the sound alone. Shot furrows in the ground give close approximations for direction, and if one



MODERN TYPES OF ARTILLERY

1. French 75-mm, quick firing gun.
2. French 155-mm. G. P. F., with split trail. (Designed by Colonel Filloux.)
3. United States 16-in. gun, on railway mounting.

systems today much resemble those of cities, switchboards and all. Since so much depends on the wires remaining intact during a bombardment, they are run along the sides of communication trenches or buried, and those in the front lines, at least, are laid in several strands, well separated. . . . Reaching the hostile artillery in a covered position presents a difficult problem. Before aerial observation became so common many methods were used in seeking a solution, and most of these are in use to-day. When practicable the ground over which an enemy will be obliged to operate is carefully mapped and every possible artillery position and route thereto carefully noted. Fire com-

or two time fuses can be picked up their settings may determine the range. Scouts and observers to the front and flanks endeavor to get information for the artillery. . . . But with the best of information, only approximate ranges and directions can be determined, and the fire of the artillery can be delivered only on a certain area known to contain a target. It may or may not be effective. This condition still obtains, for the use of light overhead cover or screens aids in concealment against aerial observation. . . . As nothing short of a direct hit will put the gun out of commission, its factor of safety may be considered as high. . . . The airplane observer had little diffi-

culty in locating them. The airplane was, and is, used to a great extent in artillery observation. In the earlier stages of the [World] war [see *WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IV. Aviation: a, 3*] the great value of the airplane for artillery observation naturally led to every effort being made by the opposing forces to defeat its purpose. Not only was overhead concealment developed to an unimagined degree, but it became the regular practise to detail airplanes as escorts to those containing artillery observers, to protect them against hostile airplanes, and special artillery units were organized whose sole function was to fire on hostile aircraft. . . . An interesting feature of artillery fire is the 'curtain' or 'barrage' fire. This means simply keeping up such a terrific fire on a certain area that an enemy cannot or will not cross it. When an infantry attack is launched, a barrage on the ground beyond the enemy's front line prevents his reinforcements coming up while the attacking infantry are having it out with the defenders of the trench. If the attack carries beyond the first line, the artillery of the defense promptly interposes a barrage to prevent its reaching the second line. If the attack on the first line fails, the defending artillery puts a barrage behind the attacker's line, to prevent reinforcements coming up to it, and to enable the victorious defenders to counter-attack and destroy the enemy in his own trenches. . . . The vehicles were formerly horse-drawn . . . [but] prior to the European War some attempts had been made to utilize the gas engine for the hauling of artillery. A notable case was that of an English militia battery which equipped each of its guns and caissons with a four-cylinder automobile. In July, 1914, the battery made a run of 120 miles in six hours, went into action in a rough field, did some firing, and then changed to another position a mile from the first. . . . Four days would have been unusually good time for horsed artillery to have accomplished as much as this motor battery did in six hours. This performance might have led to a wide development of such transport but for the sudden outbreak of the war. It was the first evidence that mechanical transport might be as successfully applied to light artillery as to heavy. Its value for heavy artillery had long been recognized. Soon after the Boer War the British adapted the caterpillar to the traction of their one heavy gun, the sixty-pounder. . . . The load behind the tractor was about five tons, and, curiously enough, the complaint was made that the tractor was too slow—could make only five miles an hour, [although] that was certainly better than any horse transport could do. . . . Field artillery has always been a more or less 'specialized' arm, and a highly important one, but in no previous war did its relative importance to other arms appear so great. Nor will this relative importance diminish. It alone can overcome the field works of the enemy, and the use of field works of scientific construction is certain in any war of the future. Always a costly arm, it is more so now than ever, due to the complicated engines it uses. For an army of a million men the cost [of equipment alone] is more than \$120,000,000; that of ammunition, more than \$240,000,000."—E. D. Scott, *Evolution of field artillery*, pp. 118-124.—"Mounting heavy artillery on railway cars was not an idea born of the war with Germany. The idea was originally American, the first authenticated record of such employment being by the Union forces at the Siege of Richmond in 1863, when a 13-inch cast-iron mortar was mounted on a reinforced flat car. In 1913 the commanding officer of the defenses of the Potomac

recommended that artillery of various caliber be mounted on railroad platforms, with ammunition, range-finding and repair cars, making up complete units, so that this armament could be quickly transported at any time to the place where most needed. It was then apparent that guns in fixed positions, of whatever caliber, violate the cardinal military principle of mobility. Of late railway artillery has come to be as varied in its design as field artillery, each type of railway mount having certain tactical uses, the three types of cannon used being mortars, howitzers and guns. The general types of railway mount adopted are those which give the gun all-around fire (360 degree traverse), provide limited traverse for the gun, and allow no lateral movement for the gun on the carriage, but are used on curved track, or epis, to give the weapons traverse aim."—E. S. Farrow, *American guns in the war with Germany*, pp. 118-189.—"An American, Dr. Richard J. Gatling, . . . invented the first rapid-fire gun—a gun with a cluster of barrels that would discharge a stream of bullets at the turning of a crank handle. That was in 1861, several years before the French mitrailleuse [invented by Reffye in 1866] made its appearance. [This gun was used to some extent in the American Civil War and the Franco-German War.] Then, twenty years later, came the single-barreled machine-gun, in which each cartridge was loaded and fired by the recoil of the previous cartridge, at the rate of ten shots per second. This was invented by Hiram Maxim, an American, who later became a British subject. [The Maxim gun was used extensively by the British in the Boer War.] We have a third notable American contribution in the air-cooled gun of I. N. Lewis, a retired captain of the United States army, which is so light that it can be handled by a single man, and may even be fired from the shoulder like a regular service rifle, although it takes a strong man to do this, for it weighs twenty-six and one half pounds. The automatic machine-gun and the automobile engine have many points of close resemblance. The cylinder has its counterpart in the gun barrel, the piston in the bullet. . . . In the Maxim gun the barrel is surrounded by a water jacket that holds about two gallons of water. It takes only six hundred rounds to bring this water to a boil. . . . The Colt machine-gun, another American design . . . depends upon air cooling, or radiation of the heat directly into the surrounding atmosphere. . . . The Hotchkiss gun has radiating fins on the barrel something like the fins of the motor-cycle or air-cooled automobile engine. The Lewis gun still further approximates the air-cooled automobile engine by employing a counterpart of the cooling-fan to draw a current of cool air over the radiating fins. . . . Unlike other machine guns, the Lewis fires cartridges from a fan-shaped magazine instead of from a cartridge-belt. The magazine holds about fifty cartridges."—A. R. Bond, *On the frontiers of science* (Century, January, 1916).—"America's greatest feat in machine-gun production was the development of the Browning weapons. These guns, . . . were of three types: the heavy Browning water-cooled gun, weighing 37 pounds, for the use of our troops in the field; the light Browning automatic rifle, weighing 15.5 pounds, and in appearance similar to the ordinary service rifle, also for the use of our soldiers fighting on the ground; and, finally, the Browning synchronized air-craft gun of the rigid type, which was the Browning heavy machine gun made lighter by the elimination of its water-jacket, speeded up to double the rate of fire, and provided with the additional attachment of the synchronized firing

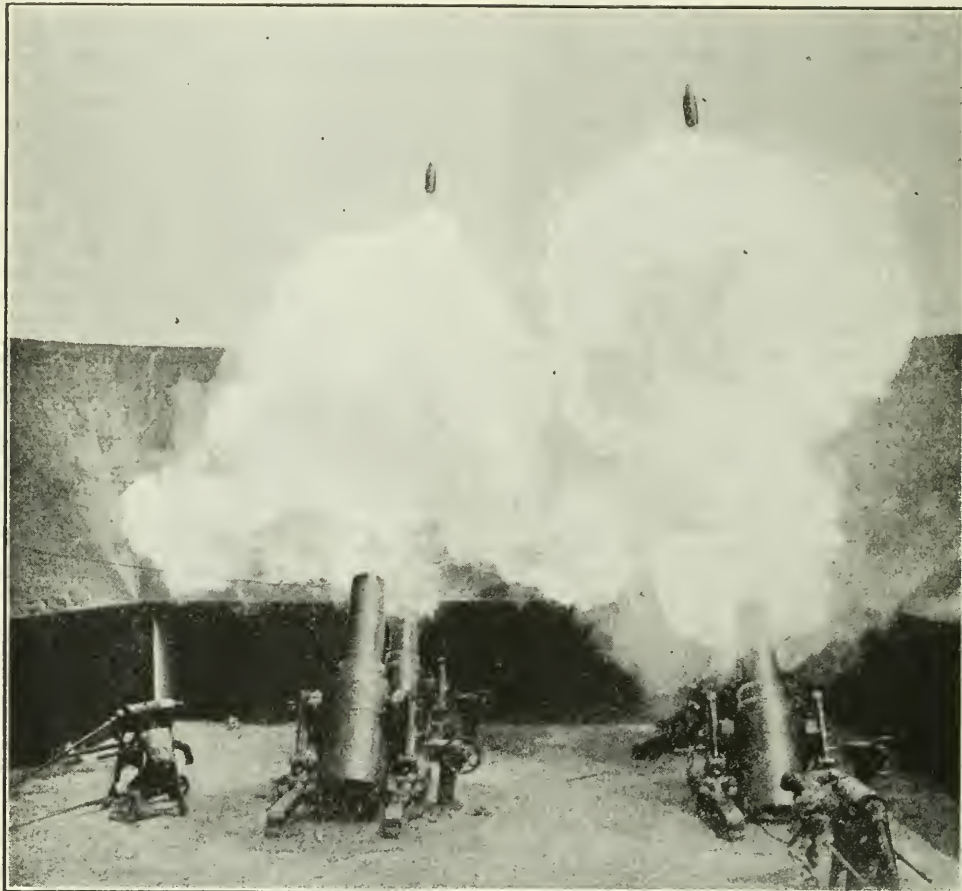
mechanism."—B. Crowell, *America's munitions, 1917-1918*, p. 171.—See also ENGLAND: 1915: Ministry of Munitions; Munitions fabrication; RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: Origin of small arms; World War; SUBMARINES: 1912-1918; WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 5; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IV. Aviation: a, 3; VI. Military and naval equipment: c.

1922.—Artillery development since the war.—According to Major General C. C. Williams, Chief of ordnance of the United States Army, his department has produced a series of service guns which in range, power, mobility and light weight

ORDOVICES, one of the tribes of ancient Wales. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

ÖREBRO LÄN, Society of. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Sweden.

OREGON: Description.—Area.—Resources.—Population.—Oregon, one of northern states on the Pacific, has an area of 96,699 square miles, making it the ninth state in the Union in size. On the north it is bounded by the state of Washington, east by Idaho, south by Nevada and California, and west by the Pacific ocean. Despite the lack of rainfall east of the Cascade Mountains, which is in some degree overcome by irrigation enterprises,



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SIXTEEN INCH COAST-DEFENSE MORTARS, UNITED STATES

surpass the best artillery in use at the end of the war.

ALSO IN: C. C. Williams, *Post-war artillery development* (*Scientific American*, November, 1922, pp. 318-319).—*Technical developments in ordnance department* (*American Machinist*, Dec. 22, 1922, p. 1022a).—H. A. Bethell, *Modern guns and gunnery*.—*Twenty years of aviation* (*World's Work*, Mar., 1923).—*American ordnance production in the Great War* (*Engineer*, Aug. 19, Sept. 2, and Sept. 9, 1921, pp. 196-197, 232-233, 268-269).

ORDOÑO I, king of Leon and the Asturias, or Oviedo, 850-866.

Ordoño II, king of Leon and the Asturias, or Oviedo, 914-923.

Ordoño III, king of Leon and the Asturias, or Oviedo, 950-955.

Oregon has abundant crops, and contains one-sixth of the standing timber of the United States. Important crops are wheat, hay, potatoes, sugar-beet and hops. Fruit, fishery, and live-stock industries all contribute to the manufacturing activities of the state. The Columbia, Willamette, and Snake rivers and the Pacific ocean furnish excellent water facilities. Since the opening of the Dalles and Celilo canal in 1915, ocean-going vessels have been able to navigate the Columbia river as far as Portland. In 1921 transportation facilities included also 3305 miles of steam and 694 miles of electric railway. Oregon ranked thirty-fourth in population in 1920, with 783,389 inhabitants.—See also U.S.A.: Historical geography; Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See CHINOOKAN FAM-

ILY; KALAPORIAN FAMILY; KITUNALIAN FAMILY; MODOCS.

Origin of name.—"Recent research establishes the fact that the name Oregon is a corruption or variation by Jonathan Carver of the name Ouragon or Ourigan, which was communicated to him by Major Robert Rogers, English commandant of the frontier military and trading post at Mackinac, Michigan, during the years 1766-67 of Captain Carver's journey to the upper valley of the Mississippi river and to Lake Superior."—T. C. Elliott, *Origin of the name Oregon* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, June, 1922).—Major Rogers had learned by 1792 that the Missouri must be ascended to its source before reaching the Ouragon. "Captain Carver was undoubtedly an author having little of integrity or shame, but as his book of travels . . . [published in 1788], contained the first printed use of the word Oregon, and moreover as it had a wide circulation and reached many countries, it is to Carver rather than to Rogers that the general use of the name by cartographers and others must be traced."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, p. 29.

Early exploration.—"Early discoveries and explorations . . . seem to have begun, so far as the Northwest Coast is concerned, with those of Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo, who . . . in 1542-3 . . . observed land at 44° north latitude. The next European to venture into those parts was Sir Francis Drake, who, in the course of his long semi-piratical expedition beginning in 1577, touched the Northwest Coast at 43° N.L. (according to some accounts 48°) and claimed the land for his sovereign under the name of New Albion. Following these pioneers were many others, Spanish, Russian, English, French and American."—L. B. Shippee, *Federal relations of Oregon* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, June, 1918).—"The English Government sent Captain James Cook to the Pacific upon a series of famous voyages of discovery, in the years 1775-1780; and when his reports were made public it became known that not only was this bleak coast rich in sea otter, but that the skin brought a very high price in the China market. . . . By 1792 there were twenty-nine vessels from seven different countries engaged in this trade, . . . [which] was prosecuted with varying success for nearly forty years. In 1792, . . . [Captain George Vancouver, who had been sent to continue the work of Cook], met the Ship Columbia, Gray, Master, of Boston, in the Strait of Juan de Fuca, and learned that the mouth of the long-sought 'River of the West' lay between bold headlands, in latitude forty-six degrees. Captain Gray's discovery later gave the United States one of her titles to the Oregon region. The river, which was to take its name from Captain Gray's vessel was chartered by Vancouver on this expedition. He also charted the whole coast far northward, although, curiously enough he missed the entrance of the only other large river in the whole extent of fifteen degrees of latitude. This river was later [1807] explored by Simon Fraser, whose name it bears."—J. C. Bell, Jr., *Discovery and exploitation, Opening a highway to the Pacific, 1838-1846* (*Columbia University studies in history, economics and public law*, v. 96, no. 1, pp. 15, 16, 17).

1741-1836.—Russian claims.—Explorations in Northern Pacific.—Russian-American Fur Company.—Protests of the United States against Russian operations in Oregon country.—Treaty limiting claims of Russia and the United States.—Compromise between Russia and Great Britain.—In 1741, Vitus Bering, a Dane sailing for

the Russian Czar, discovered the Aleutian Isles and the strait that bears his name. When "at length [the voyagers] sought a return to Kamtchatka, [they met with] head winds, sickness, and many casualties, [and] took to winter quarters on a small island eighty miles off that coast, where the vessel was afterward wrecked. Here the gallant and daring man made his grave with thirty of his men, and history has affixed his name to the island, as if a monument; and indeed it is but a pile of granite. The survivors of the unfortunate expedition carried home with them choice furs, and made large profits on their sale. This led to individual enterprises in those hard seas, and in 1766 to the organization of companies for the Russian fur trade. . . . Two years before the century closed the Russian-American Fur Company was formed, with exclusive rights of trapping and trading for twenty years between latitude fifty-five and Bering Strait. The Company soon occupied the American coast for a thousand miles, up and down, and also the Aleutian archipelago, with their chief traders, sailors, and native helpers. . . . In 1812 the Russians obtained permission of the Spanish governor of California to found a trading post at Bodega Bay, a little north of San Francisco. Their ostensible object and real permission were to lay in beef there, from the wild cattle, for their northern posts and traders. In two or three years they had so multiplied and fortified themselves, that the authorities of California remonstrated, and finally ordered them to leave, when the Russians coolly replied that they had concluded to remain. They did so, and in 1820 established another fortified trading house about forty miles farther north. In the following year, the Russian government claimed, by public decree, all the northwest coast and islands north of latitude fifty-one, and down the Asiatic coast as low as forty-five degrees and fifty minutes, and forbade all foreigners to come within one hundred miles of the coasts, except in cases of extremity. To this bold claim . . . John Quincy Adams [then secretary of State], objected most strenuously, . . . and he denied, most emphatically, that Russia had any just claim on that coast south of the fifty-fifth degree . . . [while] Great Britain made similar protestations. . . . After much correspondence it was agreed between Russia and the United States, in 1824, that the United States should make no new claims north of 54° 40', and the Russians none south of it. Russia also made a similar agreement with Great Britain the next year, and the two were to be binding for ten years, but with the privilege of continued navigation and trade where they had been previously enjoyed. When the ten years expired Russia served notice on the United States and Great Britain of the discontinuance of their navigation and trade north of the agreed line of 54° 40'. A compromise was effected between Russia and Great Britain by a lease from Russia to the Hudson Bay Company of the coast and margin from 54° 40' to Cape Spenser, near 58°—that narrow strip of Alaska which now lies between British Columbia and the Pacific. With the United States matters were finally adjusted to mutual satisfaction. [In 1836] the English accused the Russians of infringing treaty obligations by making and holding settlements south of 54° 40', and asked Mexico to expel them. Mexico was willing but not able, and therefore asked for the kindly offices of the United States in the matter. At . . . [the request of the United States] Russia withdrew from California, and relinquished all claims and ambitions south of 54° 40'. Russia, therefore, was

counted out from among the competitors for Oregon."—W. Barrows, *Oregon*, pp. 23-26.

ALSO IN: C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, pp. 400-467.—J. C. Bell, Jr., *Discovery and exploitation, Opening a highway to the Pacific, 1838-1846* (Columbia University studies in history, economics and public law, v. 96, no. 1, ch. 1, 2).

1749-1859.—Oregon claims of Hudson's Bay Company.—Rivalry with Northwest Company.—Absorption of rival fur company.—Subsequent vast commercial and political power of Hudson's Bay Company.—Benevolent rule of Dr. McLoughlin.—Relations with Indians, settlers, and missionaries.—Puget Sound Agricultural Company.—Great Britain based her claims to the Oregon country on the discoveries of her navigators and the explorations and settlements made by two powerful fur companies. In 1670 the Hudson's Bay Company received a charter from Charles II granting it exclusive trade privileges and broad legislative, judicial and governing powers throughout the entire Hudson's Bay region, an extent of more than one million square miles. The company made no attempt to assert its powers, however, until 1784, when daring Montreal fur traders of the Northwest Company began to compete with them. "In 1780 Alexander Mackenzie of the Northwest Company, one of the ablest and boldest men in the history of discovery, floated down the river which bears his name to the Arctic Ocean. Two years after his return he set out to cross the continent through the low Peace River Pass, and in 1793 arrived upon the Pacific, in latitude 50° 20" [having for a distance descended the stream which Fraser, another Nor'wester, explored and named in 1807. His journeys proved conclusively] . . . the non-existence of the long-sought practicable Northwest Passage between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. . . . [From 1815 until 1821 settlements established by the two rival companies on the Red River of the North, near the present sites of Winnipeg and Pembina, were the scene of constant strife, which ended only when Parliament compelled them to amalgamate in 1821, keeping the name of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1824 Dr. John McLoughlin, Chief Factor of the company, was placed in charge at Fort Vancouver. Under his guidance] "Fort Vancouver soon grew into a post second only to that of York Factory, on Hudson's Bay . . . and Governor Simpson reported in 1824 that the Company had thirteen posts west of the Mountains, and that furs were procured both from the natives and from expeditions which travelled on horseback along the Willamette, Snake, and other rivers, trapping and trading, south to the very borders of California. The trade yielded between £30,000 and £40,000 annually, and was yet in its infancy."—J. C. Bell, Jr., *Discovery and exploitation, Opening a highway to the Pacific, 1838-1846* (Columbia University studies in history, economics and public law, v. 96, no. 1, pp. 19, 52-53). —"The company never had in its service a more efficient man than Dr. John McLoughlin. To the discipline, at once severe and just, which Dr. McLoughlin maintained in his district, was due the safety and prosperity of the company he served, and the servants of that company generally; as well as, at a later date, of the immigration which followed the hunter and trapper into the wilds of Oregon."—F. F. Victor, *River of the West*, p. 28. —"There were no Indian wars in the Oregon Country during all the time Dr. McLoughlin was in charge at Fort Vancouver from 1824 to 1846. All the Indian wars in the Oregon Country occurred after he resigned from the Hudson's Bay Company.

The first of these wars began with the Whitman massacre in 1847. . . . The policy of the Hudson's Bay Company was to crush out all rivals in trade. . . . [As it] bought its goods in large quantities in England, shipped by sea, and paid no import duties, it could sell at a profit at comparatively low prices. In addition, its goods were of extra good quality, usually much better than those of the American traders. It also desired to prevent the settling of the Oregon Country. The latter purpose was for two reasons: to preserve the fur trade; and to prevent the Oregon Country from being settled by Americans to the prejudice of Great Britain's claim to the Oregon Country."—F. V. Holman, *Dr. John McLoughlin, the Father of Oregon*, pp. 27, 32-33. —"In 1838 the Puget Sound Agricultural Company was formed with headquarters at Nisqually (1842) to separate the agricultural and stock raising business of the company, as it became extensive, from the fur trade, which was that for which the Hudson's Bay Company had its exclusive license. The capital stock was £200,000, of which only £20,000 was ever paid up."—W. I. Marshall, *Acquisition of Oregon*, v. 1, p. 339. —"The Hudson's Bay Company and its subsidiaries engaged the attention from time to time through the years, of eight presidents of the United States. . . . In 1889 on the decision of a joint commission of the United States and Great Britain, the United States paid \$650,000 to extinguish the private property rights that were enjoyed by the Hudson's Bay Company and Puget Sound Agricultural Company in 1848, when the Oregon Country became subject to the absolute sovereignty of the United States."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, p. 279.

ALSO IN: W. Barrows, *Oregon*, pp. 36-38.—T. Falconer, *Oregon Territory: Statement of British claims*.

1790-1805.—Status of territorial claims in Oregon at the end of eighteenth century.—Conflict of Spanish and British claims.—Nootka convention.—American claim through Louisiana Purchase.—"At the close of the eighteenth century, Oregon was universally recognized as the territory lying along the North Pacific Ocean from the forty-second parallel of latitude to that of fifty-four degrees and forty minutes, and reaching inward to the Rocky Mountains. At that time it was claimed by Spain both by discovery and first settlement. In the year 1790, Great Britain advanced claims upon it. A diplomatic discussion arose between the two Powers, which ended temporarily in an agreement called the Nootka Convention, by which no territorial or sovereign rights or powers were recognized by Spain to Great Britain, but only certain easements, so to speak, in and upon this territory, such as the right to navigate the waters and to fish in them, to trade with the natives, and to make such temporary settlements as might be necessary for the reasonable enjoyment of these rights. In the year 1796, war was waged between Spain and Great Britain, and, according to the British principles of that day, every agreement between the two Powers was abrogated in consequence thereof; so that Spain, while retaining her sovereignty over Oregon, was now relieved of the encumbrance of the British rights. This was the status of Oregon when Spain ceded Louisiana to France in 1800, and when France ceded the same territory to the United States in 1803 (see LOUISIANA: 1798-1803); and the matter of first concern to the United States was the question whether Louisiana contained Oregon or any part of it. It is probable that President Jefferson thought it did, since the Lewis and Clark expedition, sent out

by him to examine the new purchase, crossed the Rockies, discovered the sources of the Columbia River, followed this stream to the Pacific, and made report thereof to the President. But if he did, he was certainly mistaken. It is true that Louisiana had no western boundary positively fixed by any agreement between the Powers, but the general principles of international law, to which recourse must always be had in the absence of specific agreements, made the water shed of the Mississippi the western boundary, and the Treaty of Utrecht, of 1713, to which France and Great Britain were parties, made the forty-ninth parallel of latitude the northern boundary, westward from the Lake of the Woods."—J. W. Burgess, *Middle period*, pp. 311-313.—See also IDAHO: 1804-1811.

ALSO IN: W. I. Marshall, *Acquisition of Oregon*, v. 1, pp. 34, 39-52.—R. Greenhow, *History of Oregon and California*, Appendix G.—S. V. Johnson, *Short history of Oregon*, ch. 8, 9.

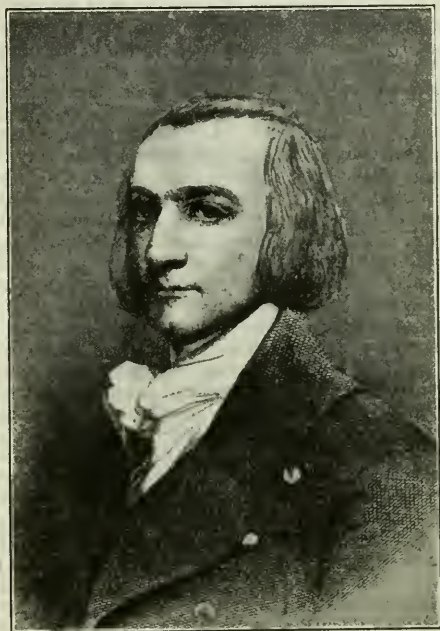
1805.—Lewis and Clark expedition. See U. S. A.: 1804-1805.

1808-1826.—Beginnings of American enterprise in Oregon.—American Fur Company.—Founding of Astoria.—Transference of Astoria and American fur interests to England.—Restoration of Astoria.—"Ten year" treaty with Great Britain.—"The return of Lewis and Clark [1806] stimulated individual enterprise in occupying the new American purchase and magnificent fur lands. The struggles of competitors were sharp and serious at times, but were finally compromised in the organization of the American Fur Company, in 1808, with headquarters at St. Louis. They started trading-posts on the sources of the Mississippi and Missouri, and some on the other side of the mountains. [Fort Henry, a post established on the Snake river in 1810 was one of the earliest white settlements in Idaho.]"—W. Barrows, *Oregon*, p. 58.—"The first trading establishment to be attempted at the mouth of the Columbia was the beginning of a log house by Captain Winship of Boston, in 1810. A rise of the river flooded him out, and he did not return, fearing he would be unable to compete with the Astor enterprise. John Jacob Astor, fur merchant, was for many years the successful rival of the Canadians in the Great Lakes country. In 1811, he initiated a large and well conceived plan to exploit the Columbia River country by means of a principal post on tide water, with smaller tributary posts in the interior. It was the establishment of Astoria which brought David Thompson of the Northwest Company down the river, and which, in spite of its admirable conception and the power with which it was sustained, became a commercial failure and later a diplomatic wrangling-point. . . . Refusal of the government to back a commercial enterprise, poor location, loss of the supply ship, and inexperienced personnel, were the causes of failure of Astor's enterprise. When the superintendent heard, in 1813, of war between the United States and Great Britain, he sold the post and all goods of trade to a representative of the Northwest Company, and remained with many of his men on the Columbia, in the employ of that company. Shortly thereafter, an English sloop-of-war put in to the river and captured Astoria as an enemy post, with an appropriate carouse. In 1818 it was returned to the possession of the United States [in accordance with the terms of Ghent, 1814, which left the Oregon question still unsolved]."—J. C. Bell, Jr., *Discovery and exploitation, Opening a highway to the Pacific, 1838-1846* (Columbia University studies in history, economics and public law,

v. 96, no. 1, whole no. 217, pp. 23-24).—In 1818 a convention was entered into between Great Britain and the United States by which the Oregon country was to be held in joint occupancy by the two nations, for a period which terminated in 1826. This convention was renewed in 1827.

ALSO IN: W. H. Gray, *History of Oregon, 1792-1849*.—W. Irving, *Astoria, anecdotes of an enterprise beyond the Rocky Mountains*.—C. L. Skinner, *Adventurers of Oregon*, ch. 4, 5, 6.—R. G. Thwaites, *Early western travels*, v. 7.—H. M. Chittenden, *American fur trade of the far West*.

1818-1846.—Continued disputes with Great Britain over Oregon Territory.—Beginning of effective settlement by Americans.—Political agitation concerning boundary line.—Compromise on the forty-ninth parallel.—After 1824 the



JOHN JACOB ASTOR
(1763-1848)

region in dispute between England and the United States was only the region north and west of the Columbia river, an extent of 58,000 square miles. "The British had trading posts at the mouth of the Columbia, which they emphatically asserted to be theirs; we, on the other hand, claimed an absolutely clear title up to the 49th parallel, a couple of hundred miles north of the mouth of the Columbia, and asserted that for all the balance of the territory up to the Russian possessions our title was at any rate better than that of the British. In 1818 a treaty had been made providing for the joint occupation of the territory by the two powers, as neither was willing to give up its claim to the whole, or at the time at all understood the value of the possession, then entirely unpeopled. This treaty of joint occupancy had remained in force ever since. Under it the British had built great trading stations, and used the whole country in the interests of certain fur companies."—T. Roosevelt, *Life of Thomas Benton*, p. 282.—"The early American traders were crowded out as a result of the more

liberal terms offered to Indians and trappers by the Hudson's Bay Company. Independents were furnished with goods at lower prices, and received better offers for their furs. Prior to 1834 as many as eleven different American organizations had tried to gain a foothold in the Oregon territory, but all were forced by ruinous competition either to ply their trade in regions farther south or to quit the fur trade altogether and seek a livelihood elsewhere."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, p. 262.—The policy of the Hudson's Bay Company, "was really hostile to English and national interests,—it was to cultivate wilderness and not civilization, trading huts and not settlements, half-breeds and not English families."—S. V. Johnson, *Short history of Oregon*, p. 162.—Therein lay the difference between the British and American methods of colonization in Oregon. Even before 1840 the Americans had begun to establish actual settlers along the banks of the rivers, some Methodist missionaries being the first to come in. The Rev. Jason Lee and his associates arrived in 1834 and at Dr. McLoughlin's suggestion settled in the Willamette valley. Two years later the American Board of Foreign Missions sent Marcus Whitman, a physician, and N. H. Spalding, a missionary, with their wives, to establish missions "among the Indians of the great interior valley of the Columbia"—Whitman with the Cayuse on the Walla Walla River, and Spalding with the Nez Perce on the Lapwai. . . . They found that the Indians soon settled about them and copied their agricultural methods."—J. C. Bell, Jr., *Discovery and exploitation, Opening a highway to the Pacific, 1838-1846* (Columbia University studies in history, economics and public law, v. 96, no. 1, whole no. 217, p. 77).—The activity of the missionaries augmented an already widespread and enthusiastic interest in the region. The English and American press teemed with publications on the subject of Oregon. American diplomacy from 1814-1846 insisted on the line of forty-nine degrees with unswerving tenacity. In 1826 President Adams even went so far as to declare that the line of forty-nine degrees to the coast, was "our ultimatum." To all that diplomatic and congressional action could do was now added the stimulus of an agrarian crisis in the Mississippi valley. Banking and transportation difficulties in 1837 and 1839 combined with superabundant crops to cause the bottom to fall out of the market. By 1842 conditions were extremely trying. Floods and sickness now followed, and in great distress the farmers sought new markets. The territory on the Pacific coast offered what the fertile Mississippi valley lacked—the advantages of position. All these factors entered into the great emigration movement which was to fill Oregon with American settlers and make the boundary question acute. In 1843 a huge caravan of about 875 Americans made the journey from the frontiers of Missouri.—Based on W. I. Marshall, *Acquisition of Oregon*, v. 1, ch. 6.—In 1845 3000 more "settlers of the same sort in their turn crossed the vast plains, wound their way among the Rocky Mountains, through the pass explored by Fremont, . . . and descended the western slope of the great water-shed to join their fellows by the banks of the Columbia. When American settlers were once in actual possession of the disputed territory, it became evident that the period of Great Britain's undisputed sway was over. . . . Tyler's administration did not wish to embroil itself with England; so it refused any aid to the settlers, and declined to give them grants of land, as under the joint occupancy treaty that would have

given England offense and cause for complaint. But . . . [Senator Thomas H. Benton of Missouri] and the other Westerners were perfectly willing to offend England, if by so doing they could help America to obtain Oregon, and were too rash and headstrong to count the cost of their actions. Accordingly, a bill was introduced providing for the settlement of Oregon, and giving each settler 640 acres, and additional land if he had a family. . . . It passed the Senate by a close vote, but failed in the House. . . . The unsuccessful attempts made by Benton and his supporters, to persuade the Senate to pass a resolution, requiring that notice of the termination of the joint occupancy treaty should forthwith be given, were certainly ill-advised. However, even Benton was not willing to go to the length to which certain Western men went, who insisted upon all or nothing. . . . He sympathized with the effort made by Calhoun while secretary of state to get the British to accept the line of 49° as the frontier; but the British government then rejected his proposition. In 1844 the Democrats made their campaign upon the issue of 'fifty-four forty or fight'; and Polk, when elected, felt obliged to insist upon this campaign boundary. To this, however, Great Britain naturally would not consent; it was, indeed, idle to expect her to do so, unless things should be kept as they were until a fairly large American population had grown up along the Pacific coast, and had thus put her in a position where she could hardly do anything else. Polk's administration was neither capable nor warlike, however well disposed to bluster; and the secretary of state, the timid, shifty, and selfish politician, Buchanan, naturally fond of facing both ways, was the last man to wish to force a quarrel on a high-spirited and determined antagonist like England. Accordingly, he made up his mind to back down and try for the line of 49°, as proposed by Calhoun, when in Tyler's cabinet; and the English, for all their affected indifference, had been so much impressed by the warlike demonstrations in the United States, that they in turn were delighted; . . . accordingly they withdrew their former pretensions to the Columbia River and accepted [June 15, 1846] the offered compromise."—T. Roosevelt, *Life of Thomas H. Benton*, pp. 283-288.

ALSO IN: J. Ball, *Across the continent seventy years ago* (Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society, v. 3, pp. 82-106).—T. H. Benton, *Thirty years' view*, v. 2, ch. 143, 156-159.—*Treaties and conventions between United States and other countries*, p. 438.—J. W. Burgess, *Middle period*, pp. 313-316.—K. Coman, *Economic beginnings of the far West*, v. 2, ch. 1.—H. J. Kelly, *History of the settlement of Oregon*.—S. Parker, *Journal of an exploring tour beyond the Rocky mountains*.—J. Schafer, *History of the Pacific Northwest*, ch. 10 and 12.—L. B. Shippee, *Federal relations of Oregon* (Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society, 1918).—J. W. Bashford, *Oregon missions*.

1840-1842.—Dr. Whitman's ride to save his mission.—Whitman controversy.—The result of the first few years of missionary endeavor were encouraging. But with the advent in 1838 of two zealous Roman Catholic priests, Father Francis N. Blanchet and Father Modest Deners, there arose a bitter contest for the spiritual control of the Indians which lasted for several years. The roving habits of the tribes and the decrease in the school attendance added to the trials of the missionaries and in 1842 the Board of Missions ordered that the stations among the Cayuses and Nez Percés be closed.—Based on S. V. Johnson, *Short history of Oregon*, pp. 206-211.—When this order was received Doc-

tor Whitman resolved to start at once for the East and, if possible, to save the situation. "He left Waiilatpu, October 3, 1842, on a journey that at that season would have daunted even a seasoned mountain man. . . . After a trip to New York and Washington, he proceeded to Boston, where he was received without cordiality by the American Board, who were inclined to censure him for having left his station without permission. [Nevertheless, the Board reversed its decision, and Dr. Whitman returned, joining the emigrant party of 1843 at Fort Hall, 600 miles from the Whitman mission.] . . . The true motive of Doctor Whitman's winter ride was long the subject of controversy, but the evidence is now regarded as complete that he undertook it to save the mission, and not, as has been assumed by some, for political reasons associated with extensions of the authority of the United States over the Oregon Country. He was successful in his purpose. . . . No circumstance in Oregon history has given rise to so much controversy or has been the subject of so much attention by historical writers as the Whitman controversy, but it has practically been set at rest by the publication of 'Marshall's Acquisition of Oregon,' in which the whole subject is minutely examined and the arguments of advocates of the theory that 'Whitman saved Oregon' are refuted, and the arguments of opponents of that theory are corrected and reinforced. . . . (See . . . Leslie W. Scott, in *The History of the Oregon Country*, Vol. I, pp. 223-238, 302-306.)"—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, pp. 357-358.—Almost as important as Marshall's exhaustive study was Professor Bourne's article on the legend of Marcus Whitman, which proves that "Oregon was in no danger of being lost to the United States. The real danger was that the government would be pushed by the Oregon advocates in the West into an aggressive policy which might result in war with England. When the Linn Bill passed the Senate, February 3 [1843], by a vote of 24 to 22, providing for the extension of the laws of the United States over the whole of the Oregon territory, the erection of courts and the granting of lands to settlers, there was not the slightest danger of the Senate ratifying a treaty to alienate the territory. The appearance of a solitary missionary in Washington advocating what a majority of the Senate had already voted, and what state legislatures were demanding in resolutions was veritably a drop in the bucket, and of equal significance."—E. G. Bourne, *Legend of Marcus Whitman* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1901).

ALSO IN: J. W. Bashford, *Oregon missions*, ch. 14, 15.

1843-1848.—Problems of government.—Provisional government.—With the influx of settlers in 1843, the necessity for some kind of political organization arose. "Some were in favor of complete independence, while others wanted a provisional government that should last until that of the United States should be extended over the country. . . . The decision favored a provisional government, and a committee of nine was appointed to draft a plan to be submitted to the people at a meeting to be held at Champooick on the fifth of July, 1843. This committee is of great importance in the history of civil government in Oregon, because of the responsibility which rested upon it, and because of the excellence of its work. . . . In the drawing up of their organ of government they very wisely adopted the ordinance of 1787, making such changes as the peculiar local conditions rendered necessary. There was, first, a bill of rights. . . . There was also provision for the necessary

organs of government, a legislative branch, to consist of nine members, elected annually; an executive branch, to consist of a committee of three; and a judicial department, to consist of supreme and associate judges, a probate judge, and justice of the peace. . . . When the plan drawn up had been reported to the people, its provisions were readily passed."—J. R. Robertson, *Genesis of political authority and of a commonwealth government in Oregon* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, Mar., 1900).—"The scheme of government by executive committee was displeasing to the newcomers, many of whom preferred a governor as the chief executive officer of a state. So, too, the slavery issue was alive, and the guarantee of the Organic Act of 1843, with its inclusion of the provision of the Ordinance of 1787, was unsatisfactory to many."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, p. 389.—These new difficulties were settled in 1845. The organic law was amended and a compact for mutual protection was made with the Hudson's Bay Company. Slavery was prohibited forever. A house of representatives replaced the legislative committee and the executive committee was supplanted by a governor elected by the people. In 1848 Oregon became an organized territory.

ALSO IN: H. S. Lyman, *History of Oregon*, v. 3, ch. 8-9.—J. H. Brown, *Political history of Oregon: Provisional government*.

1846-1855.—Establishing of territorial government.—Period of bitter political strife.—Attitude on the Kansas-Nebraska Bill.—"On June 15, 1846, the treaty with Great Britain was signed which secured to the United States the territory of Oregon lying south of the forty-ninth parallel of latitude. [It was not, however, until August 14, 1848, that the bill providing for the organization of Oregon as a territory became law, although the population after the arrivals of 1845 was estimated at 6000. The territory at that time covered about 292,000 square miles, comprising the present states of Oregon, Washington and Idaho, with about 28,000 square miles of Montana and about 13,000 square miles of Wyoming. This unexpected delay was caused by the opposition of the pro-slavery leaders in Congress to the anti-slavery clause in the Oregon provisional government.] . . . March 3, 1849, the territorial government was put into operation by a Democratic governor (General Joseph Lane) appointed by President Polk. . . . [Before long, however, the Whigs, who had obtained control of the national government in 1848, aroused bitter opposition in Oregon by removing well-liked Democratic officials and replacing them with Whigs from other states. Thereupon the Democrats went to work in earnest to perfect a party organization for the territory. A few men popularly called 'The Salem Clique' were soon recognized as leaders, and this group, dominated by the commanding personality of Asahel Bush, the editor of the *Statesman*,] gave to Oregon an arrogant and narrowly partisan rule. Rebellion in the ranks was not tolerated, and erring members were ruthlessly read out of the party. These domineering Democratic leaders also soon found it difficult to submit to the superior power of the national government. . . . The territorial delegate in Congress was requested to suggest that it would be well if the people of Oregon were granted the power of electing all their territorial officers. The suggestion, needless to say, was unheeded. In the meantime a violent and bitter struggle was in progress in the territory between the Whig Officials and the Democratic Legislature. The tension between the two parties soon became almost unbearable. Two

possible remedies appear to have suggested themselves to the Democratic leaders—statehood and independence. A movement for statehood was actually set on foot in 1851, and also in that year appeared the first accusation that the leaders of the Oregon Democracy designed at no distant day to throw off their allegiance to the United States government and attempt to set up an independent republic. If the danger existed, as seems probable, it passed away with the success of the Democrats in the presidential election of 1852. In 1854 'the most momentous measure that passed Congress from the day the Senators and Representatives first met until outbreak of the Civil War' was introduced in that body—the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. The storm raised by the passage of the bill was never to die away until slavery itself should be crushed. . . . The doctrine of Popular Sovereignty [therein] enunciated . . . was one that from its very nature appealed to the people of Oregon, with their virile Western confidence in the ability of the people of a locality to manage their own affairs, and yet in the beginning there seems to have been little unanimity of opinion with regard to the bill. Despite the dominance of the Democratic Party there were in Oregon great numbers of thinking people who opposed the further extension of slave territory, and viewed with alarm the aggressive attitude of the Southern Democrats who were dictating the policies of the national Democratic Party. In 1855 the first convention of Free-Soilers was held in Oregon, and the movement inaugurated which led to the formation of the Republican Party of Oregon. There appeared, too, a visible defection in the Democratic ranks, though this was due to local rather than to national disputes."—D. Hull, *Pacific coast republic (Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society, Sept., 1916)*.

ALSO IN: C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon, ch. 32*.
1847-1848.—Whitman massacre.—Causes and results.—Effect of California gold discovery on conditions in Oregon.—"On the afternoon of November 29, 1847, Dr. Whitman and eleven others were massacred at his home by Cayuse Indians."—H. S. Lyman, *History of Oregon, v. 4, p. 43*.—"Fifty-three women and children were held captive, the women and girls being subjected to indescribable indignities, until they were ransomed by Peter Skene Ogden, factor of the Hudson's Bay Company at Fort Vancouver, who was notified of the massacre by the trader at Fort Walla Walla and who employed the artifices of frontier diplomacy and knowledge of Indian character supported by the traditional influence of the Hudson's Bay institution. The causes of the massacre were various. It is an interesting theory that one of these was the age-old practice of the Indians to exact the penalty of death of their 'medicine men' who did not succeed in effecting a cure. Measles and dysentery had been epidemic and there were sinister whisperings among the natives that disease had been introduced by the doctor as a means of exterminating them and acquiring their lands. Then, too, the meaning of the constantly increasing stream of immigration had not escaped the Indians, . . . who saw in the incoming tide of settlers only the doom of their race."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon, p. 362*.—As a result of the massacre, the missions were abandoned, and a war with the Cayuse Indians was precipitated, which continued intermittently until the spring of 1850. It was the first of Oregon's Indian wars. Meantime, in July, 1848, news reached Oregon that gold had been discovered in California. "After the first flush of excitement, in which about two-thirds

of the able-bodied men of the territory left hurriedly for the new El Dorado, thereby depleting the population to an extent which even the Indian war had not done, those who remained at home found opportunity to organize agricultural and industrial production on a new and better basis. By the spring of 1849 a large inflow of gold had created a circulating medium which gave life to commerce; markets had been established which promised a certain and profitable outlet for all that farmers and lumbermen could produce; flour mills and sawmills flourished whenever they could obtain hands to operate them. Whereas there had been a distinct feeling of depression throughout the region as the result of the over-population by the migrations culminating in 1847, this now gave way to the spirit of the optimism that high wages and advancing prices create. Debts were paid throughout the territory; new manufacturing enterprises were started; towns sprang up; the river was filled with vessels awaiting cargoes of supplies for the mines."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon, p. 505*.

ALSO IN: W. I. Marshall, *Acquisition of Oregon, pp. 199-269*.

1855-1856.—First broaching of plan to establish a Pacific republic.—Democratic support of the plan.—Whig opposition.—"Exposure" of the "plot."—Effect of the presidential election on plan.—"In July, 1855, an editorial headed 'Our Future,' appeared in the Standard (Democratic) suggesting the idea of the formation of an independent nation west of the Rockies as being in harmony with the designs of an all-wise Providence, by whom this natural boundary had been laid down. . . . In September of the same year the Statesman had some further information to give concerning the Revolutionary scheme. A letter from an anonymous correspondent in San Francisco, reprinted from an exchange, set forth details of the plan: . . . 'A new Republic is to be formed, consisting at first of ten states, three to be formed within the present limits of the State of California, three in Oregon Territory, two in Washington Territory, and two from western portions of Utah and New Mexico. The basis is to be a confederated government similar to yours on the Atlantic Side. The great Pacific Railroad is to be abandoned, and every obstacle thrown in the way of its construction, while the argument at the hustings is to be made to the people that the government at Washington has refused the road to the people of the Pacific. The question of slavery is to be adjured and disclaimed until the plan is so far executed that there can be no retraction, after which the southern four or five states will adopt slavery. . . . The President, Senate, Representatives, and Cabinet Ministry are all to be chosen by direct vote of the people. The naturalization laws are to be fixed on a severe basis. The act of independence is to be simultaneous with a well-planned and decisive seizure of the United States Reserves, with whatever of movables or livestock they may contain. The Sandwich Islands are to be guaranteed their independence and the United States are to be appealed to in a tone of friendly good-bye. . . . It is to be shown that we send our gold away, and receive no government protection in return, and that as we now virtually govern ourselves we might as well have the credit of it abroad. The conspirators will be startled when they see this letter in your columns, and will begin to heave the lead to find out their soundings.' If such a plan as this outlined by the unknown correspondent

existed, . . . the election of Buchanan was probably more responsible for the failure of the leaders to consummate the plan for a Pacific Coast Republic at this particular time, than was the untimely exposure of the plot by the press."—D. Hull, *Pacific coast republic* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, Sept., 1916).

1856-1859.—Statehood and the slavery question.—Slavery question in Oregon.—Slavery in Oregon as issue in Federal congress.—Delay in Statehood Bill due to slavery question.—Granting of statehood.—Discrimination against "color" in state constitution.—The civil war in Kansas caused a rapid growth in Republican strength in Oregon. Furthermore statehood, which had been opposed from 1854-1856 as a Democratic scheme to obtain more offices, was carried in 1857 by a majority of 5938. Immediately the slavery issue arose and assumed dangerous proportions, but when the constitution was submitted to the people in 1857, the questions of slavery and of the admission of free negroes into the state were presented as separate issues, with the result that the constitution was adopted by a decisive majority. Only one-fourth of the voters supported slavery but free negroes were refused admission into the state. No sooner was this crisis safely past than the Dred Scott decision came to create dissension in the Democratic ranks. "The regular Democratic convention, meeting in March 1858 endorsed both the Kansas-Nebraska doctrine and the Dred Scott decision, in spite of the fact that Douglas, the author of the doctrine of popular sovereignty, had broken with the administration over the Dred Scott decision. The platform warmly endorsed Buchanan, however, so it may be understood that Douglas was to be abandoned. The National Democrats, in a separate convention, though endorsing President Buchanan, held to the rights of the people of the territories to frame and adopt their constitutions and all local laws for their own government. . . . In the meantime, the statehood bill had passed the Senate by a vote of practically two to one but was held up in the House of Representatives. When Congress adjourned without having acted on the measure, Senator Lane was accused of trying to put Oregon into the position of a state outside the Union. Viewing his actions in this light, very significant is the message sent by Governor Curry of Oregon, Lane's close friend, to the territorial legislature which assembled in December, 1858. After deploring the fact that Oregon had not been admitted as a state, he went on to show that the whole territorial system of the United States was unconstitutional. He said: 'It is wrong in principle. There is no provision of the Constitution which confers the right to acquire territory to be retained as territory, and governed by Congress with absolute authority. . . . In my judgment Congress has no constitutional authority to establish governments anywhere upon the public domain or to create and ordain any species of constitution or organic law for the government of any civil community anywhere within the boundary of the United States.' Such ideas enunciated at this critical time could not but arouse distrust. . . . The Statehood Bill was passed by the House, February 12, 1859, and on February 14 it became law. The bill had been regarded in Congress as a party issue, and the debate over it had been long and acrimonious. The Republicans opposed the admission of Oregon ostensibly because the territory lacked the necessary population, but really because, while Kansas with a greater population had been refused admission unless she would ac-

cept a pro-slavery constitution, Oregon with less population was to be admitted with a constitution prohibiting the entrance of free negroes into the state. They justly considered the distinction unfair. Then even more influential was the fact that a closely contested presidential election was at hand, and Oregon with her democratic delegation might cast the decisive vote. . . . The Statehood Bill would most certainly have failed of passage had it not been that fifteen republicans, inspired by Eli Thayer of Massachusetts, revolted against the party dictum and supported the admission of Oregon. As it was, the new state was admitted by a majority of 114 to 108."—D. Hull, *Pacific coast republic* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, Sept., 1916).

ALSO IN: H. S. Lyman, *History of Oregon*, v. 4.—G. H. Williams, *Political history of Oregon from 1853 to 1856* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, v. 2, pp. 1-35).

1859-1860.—Part played in nomination of Lincoln.—Oregon was admitted as a state in 1859, just in time to help nominate Lincoln. At the Republican convention of 1860, Horace Greeley, editor of the *New York Tribune*, acting as proxy for Leander Holmes, one of the six delegates from Oregon, "first favored the nomination of Bates, but subsequently exercised his great influence in directing the tide toward Lincoln on the memorable preliminary third ballot, when the choice of Lincoln was made practically certain by the casting of four of Oregon's five votes for him. . . . It is plain that the outcome of the convention was largely determined by Oregon, whose votes on the preliminary ballot gave Lincoln within one and one-half votes of the number required for a choice. On each of the first two ballots Oregon cast five votes for Bates; on the third preliminary ballot four were for Lincoln and one for Seward; and on the third formal ballot the five votes were for Lincoln, who was then nominated."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, p. 638.

ALSO IN: L. M. Scott, *Oregon's nomination of Lincoln* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, 1916, pp. 201-214).

1859-1861.—Triumph of Union cause.—Growing strength of republicans.—Recurrence of Pacific republic plan.—Growing sentiment against secession.—"As dissensions among the Democrats increased the Republicans were growing stronger, and straining every effort to form a party organization strong enough to defeat the Democrats at the polls. . . . The elections of 1859 were pregnant with meaning. The machine Democrats were successful, but their candidate for Congressman was elected by a bare majority of 16 votes, and their majorities everywhere were dangerously cut down. Undoubtedly many of the Douglas Democrats had cast their votes for Republican candidates. This was a grim presage of the end. . . . [At the national Democratic convention held at Charleston, April 23, 1860, the northern Democrats succeeded in having a Douglas platform adopted and the southerners withdrew. Thereupon Lane who had not attended the convention, telegraphed the Oregon delegation to withdraw also. The two factions held separate conventions at Baltimore and at Richmond in June.] At the Seceder's convention which met in Baltimore, Breckinridge was nominated for President and Lane for Vice-President. . . . The news of Lane's instructions to the Oregon delegation and the report of the doings of the Seceder's convention aroused a storm of indignation among the Douglas Democrats of Oregon. . . . Again was revived the rumor

of a projected Pacific Republic. The *Statesman* of July 17, 1860, under the head of 'The Lane and Gwin Conspiracy' said: 'It is openly charged by Washington correspondents that Gwin (Senator from California) and Lane have entered into a conspiracy with Southern Congressmen to break up the Democratic organization as a preliminary step to breaking up the Union, out of which three republics are to be formed.' . . . In December, 1860, fairly complete details of the plan were given. The Pacific Republic was to be an aristocracy after the model of the ancient republic of Venice, all the power being vested in an hereditary nobility, the chief executive being elected on a very limited suffrage. Slaves were to be procured by inviting coolies, South Sea Islanders, and negroes to immigrate to California, and then reducing them to slavery. Gwin, it appeared, favored a separate republic on the Pacific Coast because he feared that the aggressive policy of the southern leaders would be likely to involve the other states in continual difficulties. While the details of the plan might excite suspicion as the elaborations of a journalistic imagination, the truth of the main outline appears to have been fairly well substantiated. In commenting on the plan Bush of the *Statesman* said in part: 'Now we rejoice in the pride of our strength—the strength of a great and powerful nation. Sundered from our parent states our pitiable weakness would render us a by-word and a reproach among neighboring nations. With Mexico upon one side, British Columbia on the other, a defenseless sea-coast in front, and a horde of hostile savages and marauding Mormons in the rear, and unable to protect ourselves on any side, we could only preserve our existence by forming an alliance with some powerful government which could afford us protection at the price of our liberty.' . . . On the sixth of November, 1860, the presidential vote was cast, and by the ninth it was known not only that Lincoln was elected, but that the Republicans had carried Oregon. There followed shortly after the news of the secession of South Carolina, and early in 1861 of five other states. At first, in Oregon as in many other northern states was heard the cry, 'Let the erring sisters depart in peace,' but later a more war-like tone developed among Republicans and Douglas Democrats. The Radical Democratic press, however, warmly supported the seceders. Lane of course openly stood with the Secessionists. . . . As the War went on, the various disunion papers edited in Oregon, one by one laid themselves open to prosecution and were suppressed. While in parts of the state men at first went to the elections armed, least the pro-slavery party should attempt to re-enact the scenes of the Kansas-Nebraska strife, as they threatened to do, the sense of danger gradually passed away, and a sense of security returned."—D. Hull, *Pacific coast republic* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, Sept., 1916).

1861-1878.—Rôle in the Civil War.—Indian Wars.—"Oregon's principal share in the Civil war consisted in protecting the frontier against marauding Indians and the interior from rebel sympathizers, while the troops of other states were engaged in more conspicuous and apparently more glorious, but no more essential or arduous, service on the actual field of combat."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, p. 658.—In 1863 the Pacific republic movement again caused uneasiness, this time through the activities of a secret organization called the Knights of the Golden Circle. These secessionist sympathizers became menacing in 1864

between the dates of the Wilderness campaign and Sherman's march to the sea, the darkest hour of the Union cause. The greatest danger however came from the Indians of southern and eastern Oregon, who harassed the settlers continually. In order to insure adequate protection for the settlers, reservations were provided for the Indians, but they refused to go to them. They were subdued only after three wars had been fought. These were the Shoshone War (1866-1868), the Modoc War (1864-1873), and Joseph's War (1877). This war against the lower Nez Percés Indians under their famous chieftain Joseph was the last of the Indian wars of the Pacific coast.

ALSO IN: S. V. Johnson, *Short history of Oregon*, p. 304.—H. H. Bancroft, *Oregon*, v. 2, ch. 22.

1870-1887.—Railroad building.—"In 1870 there were one hundred and fifty-nine miles of railroad in the state. Very soon thereafter the California and Oregon Railway operated a line northward from San Francisco, while the Oregon and California Railway extended its road from Portland southerly almost to the California line [and connected the two termini by] a regular stage line over the Siskiyou mountains, . . . thus accomplishing through passenger traffic. When the last spike was driven on the Northern Pacific Railway in 1883, Oregon had direct trans-continental rail connection with the East. This was speedily followed by the completion of a second direct line, the Union Pacific Railway, in 1884; and in 1887 rail connection between San Francisco and Portland was completed. Today the Pacific Northwest is served by five trans-continental railways."—S. V. Johnson, *Short history of Oregon*, pp. 308-309.

ALSO IN: C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, ch. 37. 1872.—Final settlement of boundary question.—The last chapter of the Oregon boundary dispute was not written until Oct. 21, 1872, when the San Juan water boundary controversy was settled by arbitration (see SAN JUAN or NORTH-WESTERN WATER BOUNDARY). George Bancroft, United States minister to Germany at that time, wrote of it that, "after an unrelenting strife of ninety years, the award of His Majesty, the Emperor of Germany, closes the long and unintermitted and often very dangerous series of disputes on the extent of their respective territories, and so for the first time in their history opens to the two countries the unobstructed way to agreement, good understanding, and peace."—C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, p. 496.

ALSO IN: A. Fish, *Last phase of the Oregon boundary question* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, v. 22).

1873.—Modoc War. See U.S.A.: 1866-1876.

1876-1898.—"Free silver" and national policies.—Tariff and Mongolian immigration.—Party platforms on the question of silver.—Subsidence of "free silver" enthusiasm.—Imminence of war with Spain.—From 1876-1898 the state platforms of the republican party advocated a protective tariff and a uniform currency founded on a gold basis. The democrats called for a tariff for revenue only, restriction of Mongolian immigration, repeal of the Resumption Act and of the National Bank Act, and direct issue of currency by the government. Both parties in 1876 demanded a return to specie payments and favored governmental assistance in railroad expansion. In 1884 the two parties followed the national platforms respectively, and both favored forfeiture of all unearned land grants. "In 1886 Binger Hermann was re-elected to congress over N. H.

Butler on a republican platform saying, among other things, 'We believe that the coin of the country should be gold and silver, and that our paper currency should be maintained and convertible thereto at par, and we favor such legislation as shall in the future maintain the use of both metals as a circulating medium, and we favor international arbitration with a view to determine and establish a uniform ratio between gold and silver.' The democratic state platform was silent on the money question, and otherwise both platforms followed the usual national lines. . . . [In 1888] the republican platform dealt largely in criticism of the tariff policy of the national democratic administration, favored protection, opposed Chinese immigration and found fault generally with President Cleveland's administration. The democratic platform, on the contrary, indorsed Cleveland and his policy, and in other matters demanded forfeiture of railroad grants and opposed Mongolian immigration. . . . [In 1890] the republican state platform favored the enactment of the Australian ballot [adopted the following year], a protective tariff, the forfeiture of the railroad land grant from Wallula to Portland, the restriction of Chinese immigration, internal improvement, an eight-hour law, and denounced trusts. . . . [It declared in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of silver. The democratic state platform likewise declared for free coinage of silver.] In 1892 the republican platform followed the usual lines, and on money matters indorsed the Sherman act. . . . It favored a boat railway at the Dalles and the election of senators by direct vote of the people, the construction of ample defense of our coast and the building of an efficient navy. The democratic platform endorsed the national platform of 1884-1888, and the administration of Cleveland, condemned the billion-dollar congress, denounced the McKinley tariff and demanded tariff reform. . . . [In 1894 the republican platform] adopted the statement of the national republican platform of 1882 favoring bimetalism and the parity of the two metals, and all dollars, paper or coin. It also favored the Nicaragua Canal and restricted foreign immigration. The democratic state platform resolved for income tax, the Nicaragua Canal, liberal pensions, election of senators by the people, and opposed Chinese and pauper immigration, the federal election law, and all measures discriminating against silver. It demanded free coinage 'to supply the demands of business,' and that all money be made a full legal tender."—W. C. George, *Political history of Oregon from 1876 to 1898* (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, June, 1902).—In 1897, when Senator Mitchell's second term expired, a conflict of opinion arose between the state and national republican organizations on the currency issue. The state platform declared for bimetalism, whereas the national platform demanded the gold standard. In consequence of this disagreement, the state was represented by only one senator, Mr. McBride, until the election of Joseph Simon, of Portland, which took place at a special session of the Legislature in October, 1898.—Based on C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, p. 830-831.—In 1898 the question of the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of sixteen to one was the practical issue, and the Democrats and the People's party men (except the middle-of-the-roads—i.e., the populists) along with free silver Republicans, united on a state ticket. The fusion ticket was defeated, however, by the anti-free silver Republicans.

1898-1899.—Part played in the Spanish-American War.—The event which overshadowed all others in the administration of Governor Lord was the Spanish-American War followed by the Philippine insurrection. On the first call to arms, April 25, 1898, the state was allotted only one regiment and the entire National Guard was therefore consolidated into one regiment, called the Second Oregon. It was chosen immediately as one of the commands to constitute the first army of occupation of the Philippines. The entire Oregon regiment aided in putting down a Filipino uprising in Manila in February, 1899, and received an official compliment for highly meritorious service. From this date the Oregonians were constantly engaged. Their total casualties were sixty-seven dead and eighty-seven wounded. Seven received medals of honor for distinguished service.—Based on C. H. Carey, *History of Oregon*, pp. 823-833.

1902-1915.—Social legislation.—"Oregon system."—Initiative and referendum.—Direct primaries.—Labor laws.—"In governmental changes Oregon is the leader. Her priority in large governmental adaptation has given rise to the term, the Oregon system. And by the Oregon system is meant such a body of laws as the initiative and referendum, the direct primary, the direct election of senators, the recall, the corrupt practices act and the presidential preference primary. Associated with these are woman suffrage, home rule for cities and a constitutional amendment making it possible to adopt proportional representation."—W. F. Ogburn, *Social legislation on the Pacific coast* (*Popular Science Monthly*, Mar., 1915).—"Since the adoption of the initiative and referendum constitutional amendment in 1902, a total of ninety-eight proposed constitutional amendments and one hundred and fifteen measures have been passed upon by the people. . . . Forty-three of the ninety-eight constitutional amendments were approved by the electors of the state and fifty-five were rejected. . . . Only forty-six of the one hundred and fifteen measures were approved by the voters, the other sixty-nine being rejected. . . . The most frequent resort to the initiative was that of the advocates of single tax. Aside from three local attempts to introduce this radical change in taxation in as many counties, all of which were unsuccessful, the voters of the state have been called upon at five general elections between 1908 and 1920 to pass upon single tax as a state-wide issue in one form or another. . . . Equal suffrage was submitted at four successive biennial elections before women finally [1912] received the constitutional right to vote in this state. . . . This method of legislation has been used upon various other important measures submitted to the people in the same manner, including local option and prohibition, direct primary [1904], extending initiative and referendum to all local, special, and municipal laws, recall of public officials [adopted 1908], corrupt practices act, permitting three-fourths jury verdict in civil cases, establishing state normal school, providing for popular expression of choice for President and Vice President, requiring voters to be citizens of the United States, empowering the governor to veto single items or emergency clauses, fixing a maximum limit on state and county bonded indebtedness, enacting soldiers' bonus and educational aid bills, and providing for women jurors. . . . The initiative has . . . frequently been used as a means of adopting city ordinances, and of amending city charters, particularly at Portland."—C. H. Carey, *History of Ore-*

gon, pp. 846, 849-851.—Of recent labor legislation for women, the minimum wage laws have aroused the greatest interest. "In 1913, the Oregon Legislature passed a minimum-wage law. . . . [In accordance with its provisions, an industrial welfare commission was established in 1913 which fixed a minimum weekly wage for experienced women workers in manufacturing and laundry establishments at \$8.64 and in mercantile and other occupations at \$0.25.]"—W. F. Ogburn, *Social legislation on the Pacific coast* (*Popular Science Monthly*, Mar., 1915).

ALSO IN: W. F. Ogburn, *Direct legislation in Oregon* (*Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association*, June, 1914).—A. H. Eaton, *Oregon system*.—J. Shafer, *History of the Pacific Northwest*, pp. 303 ff.

1905.—Lewis and Clark exposition in Portland. See PORTLAND, OREGON: 1905.

1908-1914.—Single tax movement.—Its fate in successive elections.—"When, in 1909, the Joseph Fels Fund to promote the single tax movement in the United States was established, the most promising opportunity confronting its managers was in the state of Oregon. In the election of 1908 a state-wide single tax measure has received thirty-four and one-half percent of the vote upon it, while in Multnomah County, which contains the city of Portland, it had failed of passage by only a few hundred votes. . . . The [campaign made by] the Joseph Fels Fund Commission in Oregon constitutes the most elaborately planned effort which single taxers have made. On January 28th, 1908, the single taxers filed with the Secretary of the State of Oregon an initiative petition proposing a constitutional amendment to be voted upon at the election in June. The proposed amendment was . . . peculiar in that it did not, like most of the single tax proposals, provide in general terms for the exemption of personal property and improvements. The list of objects to be exempted from taxation discriminated in a manner hardly consistent with the single tax philosophy in not providing for the exemption of intangible personality and of the improvements and fixtures of business other than manufactures. The single taxers in this campaign placed considerable emphasis upon the desirability of attracting manufactures to Oregon through tax exemption. . . . Working under the name of 'the Oregon Tax Reform Association,' [they] waged a straight single tax campaign. The result of the ballot was the defeat of the measure, 32,066 to 60,871. But in Multnomah County the single tax was defeated by only 483 votes. . . . In 1908 the single taxers had advocated their measure as 'a step in the direction of the single tax.' But in 1910 their tactics were less direct. The argument in the voters' pamphlet made no reference to the single tax, and was submitted, not by a single tax organization, but by the Oregon State Federation of Labor and the Central Labor Council of Portland and vicinity. . . . [The real end of the measure was understood to be the adoption of the single tax, piecemeal, by the several counties, and the vote on the amendment was close—44,171 for it, and 42,127 against. In 1912 the single tax was the leading state issue.] . . . Taking advantage of the local option amendment of 1910 [they] submitted measures exempting personal property and improvements from taxation in three counties—Clackamas, Coos, and Multnomah, the latter containing the city of Portland. They also submitted a state-wide measure, commonly known as the 'Graduated Single Tax and Exemption Amendment.' . . . [which departed] from

the accepted single tax theory in admitting progressive taxation. The scale was elaborately worked out. The amendment provided for a graduated tax, in addition to taxes levied at the ordinary rate, on individual or corporation holdings of land or franchises within each county of value in excess of \$10,000. The rate rose from \$2.50 per \$1,000 on holdings valued at from \$10,000 to \$20,000 till it reached \$30 per \$1,000 on holdings valued at more than \$100,000, a maximum rate of three per cent, which, added to the regular tax rate, would have confiscated practically the entire value of holdings to which it applied. Section (i) established the single tax 'limited' throughout the state, but permitted the taxation of personal property and improvements by counties which should thereafter specially vote to tax them. Section (g) was aimed at the State Tax Commission, which has vigorously fought the single taxers; it abolished the offices of the two appointive members. . . . The election returns showed that the 'Graduated Single Tax and Exemption Amendment' was lost [by a vote of] 31,534 to 82,015. . . . In 1914 the single taxers submitted two amendments. One proposed 'to exempt up to \$1,500 all kinds of personal property and land improvements of all kinds,' but not land. This amendment contained a clause directing the Secretary of State to re-submit the measure, if adopted in 1914, at the regular elections of 1916 and 1918, an unfavorable vote at either of these elections to repeal it. The other proposed a graduated sur-tax on owners of 'land and natural resources and interests therein' of value greater than \$25,000. Both amendments were defeated [by a vote of] more than two to one. . . . The Legislative Tax Committee continued its efforts to secure the classification of objects of taxation and the separation of sources of state and local revenue by submitting two amendments. Both were beaten by majorities as big as those rolled up against the single tax amendments."—N. Young, *Single tax movement in the United States*, pp. 168-171, 174-175, 180-181.

ALSO IN: C. V. Galloway, *Taxation developments in Oregon* (*Proceedings of the National Tax Association*, 1911, p. 245 ff.).—F. G. Young, *Single tax movement in Oregon* (*American Economic Review*, Sept., 1911, pp. 643-648).—A. H. Eaton, *Oregon system*, pp. 22, 32-37, 134 ff.—J. H. Gilbert, *Single tax movement in Oregon* (*Political Science Quarterly*, 1916, pp. 25-53).

1911-1917.—Social legislation.—Economic legislation.—Between 1911 and 1917 the efforts of Oregon toward social legislation were continued. In 1911 a law was passed making the white slave traffic a felony; and a parole board was created to have oversight of the administration of parole of prisoners. In 1913 an act of the legislature provided for an eight-hour day for laborers on public works. In 1915 capital punishment was abolished, but was restored after an experience of six years. In 1917 Parental schools were established to be used for children who were unruly in temper or were continuously absent from school. The economic problems of the state also inspired some remedial legislation. In 1911 a state-banking department was created. In 1915, the constitution was amended in order to provide for a system of rural credits, and to enable the governor to veto single items in appropriation bills. In 1915, also, the Supreme Court gave a ruling on the forfeiture of land held by the Oregon and California Railroad. The case arose from a decision of the District court which declared a large amount

of land forfeited because it had not been sold to bona fide settlers as the law required. The decision stopped further sales but refused to demand forfeiture.

1916.—Suffrage granted to women. See *SUFFRAGE, WOMAN*: United States: 1851-1920.

1916 (July).—Columbia River highway.—"On the 7th of this month [July, 1916], Multnomah County, Oregon, of which Portland is the chief city . . . [dedicated] to the public one of the most beautiful highways in the world—a paved boulevard forty-two miles long through the gorge of the Columbia River connecting with other roads east and west, which make altogether, a highway more than two hundred miles in length, from the eastern side of the Cascade Mountains to the Pacific Ocean."—*New Columbia highway (World's Work 1916, pp. 202-203)*.

1917.—Referendum and repeal of Sunday observance law. See *SUNDAY OBSERVANCES*: United States.

1918.—Part played in the World War.—The state furnished 30,116 soldiers or .8 per cent of the whole force. The Forty-first or "Sunset" Division of the United States army on its arrival at Camp Greene, North Carolina, originally consisted entirely of Oregon regiments and when enlarged and reconstructed late in 1917, remained largely Oregonian. The division participated in no battles as a unit, but was represented on every sector of the western front. Oregon won further distinction by its achievements in shipbuilding and aircraft production.

1920.—Workmen's compensation. See *SOCIAL INSURANCE*: Details for various countries: United States: 1920.

1920.—Census.—The population of Oregon increased from 672,765 in 1910 to 783,380 in 1920, inclusive of 4,590 Indians, 2,144 Negroes, 3,000 Chinese and 4,151 Japanese. "The proportion of the population of Oregon living in places of 2,500 or more increased from 32.2 per cent in 1900 to 45.6 per cent in 1910 and to 40.9 per cent in 1920."—*United States Census Bulletin, 1920*.—Almost one-third of the people live in the city of Portland, which had in 1920 a population of 258,288. Salem, the capital, has 17,697; Astoria, 14,027; and Eugene, 10,593.

1921-1923.—New legislation.—School law.—Operation of minimum wage law.—"In 1921 Oregon created a water power commission for the specific purpose of cooperating with the federal power commission . . . and authorized a joint legislative commission to investigate existing conditions of accounting in the state; the benefits to be derived from adopting a uniform accounting system; and the advisability of putting the state accounting system in the hands of an elected state auditor. . . . [In the same year] Oregon provided a commission on taxation and for investigation of methods of taxation to provide more equitable distribution and to afford adequate revenues to the state."—*American Political Science Review, Nov., 1922, pp. 649, 656*.—"By a vote of approximately 115,000 to 101,000 the people of Oregon on November 7th last [1922] passed an initiative amendment to the Oregon compulsory school law, whereby, after September 1, 1926, all children in the state of Oregon, between the ages of eight and sixteen, must attend the public schools for the period during which they are in session. Some minor exceptions are provided in case of physical disabilities, of distance from school, and of individual private instruction."—E. V. O'Hara (*Catholic World, Jan., 1923, p. 482*).—"This measure, which was interpreted as having for its purpose

the abolishment of private and parochial schools, was vigorously discussed during the campaign. More than two hundred Oregon lawyers are said to have joined in a written opinion that the bill is unconstitutional, and it is understood that the question will be carried to the Supreme Court of the United States."—*School and Society, Nov. 18, 1922, p. 575-576*.—In 1923 the minimum wage law had been in effect ten years. In 1919, when the cost of living had increased by seventy-two per cent, Oregon revised its earliest rulings and adopted a rate of \$13.20 a week, which still obtained in May, 1923. "The results of the wage law in Oregon were largely to prevent wage controversies in women's occupations by bringing employers and employees face to face at the conference table. It entirely falsified the expectations of its opponents that it would result in having men take women's places, in bringing down the better paid to the minimum, or in injuring business. It destroyed the advantage which unscrupulous employers, willing to cut wages below the subsistence level, had enjoyed over their more decent competitors. Finally, it gave women workers a solid footing in their wage bargaining, by fixing in the law and in the conscience of the State the principle that any industry is a parasite on society which offers its workers less than enough to maintain them in frugal and decent comfort."—E. V. O'Hara, *Oregon law (Catholic World, May, 1923, p. 210)*.

See also *LIBRARIES*: Modern: United States: County libraries.

OREGON, American battleship. Under Captain Charles E. Clark sailed from the Pacific coast, March 6, 1898, and reached Key West, May 26, in time to take a prominent part in the Spanish-American War. See *U.S.A.: 1898 (March)*.

OREGON COUNTRY. See *U.S.A.: 1853-1854*.

"OREGON SYSTEM." See *OREGON: 1902-1915*.

O'REILLY, Count Alexander (c.1722-1794). Irish soldier in Spanish service. Served as Spanish viceroy in Louisiana, 1769-1770. See *LOUISIANA: 1769*.

OREJONES, South American Indian tribe. See *PAMPAS TRIBES*.

ORELLANA, Francisco de (c.1490-c.1549), Spanish explorer. Discovered the course of the Amazon river, 1541. See *AMAZON RIVER: Discovery and naming; AMERICA: Map showing voyages of discovery*.

ORELLANA, José Maria, president of Guatemala, 1922. See *GUATEMALA: 1922; CENTRAL AMERICA: 1921 (December); 1922 (January-February)*.

ORESTES (d.476), Illyrian general and regent of Italy. See *ROME: Empire: 455-476*.

ORETO, Confederate privateer. See *ALABAMA CLAIMS: 1861-1862*.

ORFORD, Robert Walpole, 1st Earl of (1676-1745), English statesman. Entered Parliament, 1701; secretary of war, 1708; paymaster-general, 1714, 1720; leader of the Whig party, and prime minister, 1715-1717, 1721-1742. See *CABINET: English: Origin of term; ENGLAND: 1714-1721; 1727-1741; 1739-1741*.

ORGAN. See *INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Wind instruments; 18th century: Organ; 19th century: Organ*.

ORGANIC ACTS: Washington (1878). See *WASHINGTON, D.C.: 1873-1915*.

Oklahoma (1889). See *OKLAHOMA: 1889-1890*.

Hawaii (1910). See *HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: 1910: Changes made*.

ORGANIC CHEMISTRY. See **CHEMISTRY**: Organic.

ORGANIC EVOLUTION. See **EVOLUTION**.

ORGANIC STATUTES: France (1802). See **CONCORDAT**: 1801-1871; **FRANCE**: 1900-1904; 1904-1908.

Syria (1860). See **SYRIA**: 1908-1921.

ORGANISTS, German School of. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1620-1722.

ORGANIZED LABOR. See **LABOR ORGANIZATION**.

ORGANUM, method of singing. See **MUSIC**: Medieval: 900-1050; 11th-13th century.

ORIBE, Manuel (c. 1796-1857), Uruguayan general. See **URUGUAY**: 1821-1905.

ORIENTAL CHURCH. See **CHRISTIANITY**: 330-1054; **ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY**; **FILIOQUE CONTROVERSY**.

ORIENTAL COSTUME. See **COSTUME**: Egyptian, etc.

ORIFLAMME.—"The Oriflamme was originally the Banner of the Abbey of St. Denis, and was received by the Counts of the Vexin, as 'Avoués' of that Monastery, whenever they engaged in any military expedition. On the union of the Vexin with the Crown effected by Philip I., a similar connexion with the Abbey was supposed to be contracted by the Kings; and accordingly Louis the Fat received the Banner, with the customary solemnities, on his knees, bare-headed, and ungirt. The Banner was a square Gonfalon of flame-coloured silk, unblazoned, with the lower edge cut into three swallow-tails."—E. Smedley, *History of France*, pt. 1, ch. 3, footnote.—"The Oriflamme was a flame-red banner of silk; three-pointed on its lower side, and tipped with green. It was fastened to a gilt spear."—G. W. Kitchen, *History of France*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 5, footnote.—See also **FLAGS**: France.

ORIGEN (c. 185-c. 254), Alexandrian church father. See **CHRISTIANITY**: 100-300: Church in Alexandria; Syrian churches; **HISTORY**: 18; **GREEK LITERATURE**: Greco-Roman period: Lucian.

ORIK, or Ourique, Battle of (1140). See **POR-TUGAL**: 1095-1325.

ORINOCO STEAMSHIP COMPANY CASE.—"The parties to this case were the United States of America and the United States of Venezuela, and the issue was the revisability of an award previously [1904] rendered by an international commission. . . . By a protocol of February 17, 1903, the United States and Venezuela agreed to refer to a mixed commission for determination 'all claims owned by citizens of the United States of America.' . . . Among the claims submitted to the commission was that of the Orinoco Steamship Company, a New Jersey corporation, which had taken over all the rights and liabilities of the Orinoco Shipping and Trading Company, the shareholders of which had almost all been American citizens, though the company itself had been under nominal British registry. . . . [Ownership of the Oleachea contract of 1891 and the Grell contract of 1894 gave the company practically exclusive navigation and trade privileges on the Orinoco river. In 1900 the Orinoco Shipping and Trading Company] began to press the Venezuelan Government for payment of claims arising out of civil war and otherwise, with the result that on May 10 the government agreed to extend the Grell contract six years, and the company agreed, in full discharge of all indebtedness, to accept a payment of 100,000 bolivars down and a similar payment to be made at a later date. [The government broke its contract, and when in 1902 the company was reorganized as the Orinoco Steamship Company, hostility on the part of the

Venezuela government forced it to sell out at a great sacrifice. Failing a decision by the commission, the claim was referred to the umpire, Dr. Barge, of the Netherlands, who in 1904 awarded only \$28,224.93 of a claim amounting to over \$1,400,000. The United States protested and on October 25, 1910, the Permanent Court of Arbitration set aside the award of 1904 on the ground of failure to conform with the terms of the defining protocol.] . . . In all, the total amount awarded by the tribunal, inclusive of interest, was over \$64,000 in excess of the Barge award."—E. C. Stowell and H. F. Munro, *International cases*, v. 1, pp. 89, 90-91, 95.

ORISKANY, Battle of. See **U.S.A.**: 1777 (July-October).

ORISSA.—"The Palestine of India is found in Orissa. . . . Dr. William Wilson Hunter speaks of it as a province of about the same extent and population as the Scotland of his own day, and this defines the Holy Land of the Hindus strictly speaking. This territory is contained in Orissa, but Orissa, as descriptive of the whole area inhabited by the people who speak the Uriya language, is a larger country. The dimensions of the wider area embrace sixty thousand square miles, occupied by not less than eight millions of people, allocated for Government purposes (such at least was the case in the days of which we write) chiefly to Bengal, but also in part to Madras in the south, and to the Central Provinces in the west. Albeit the poorest of the provinces of India and, in some respects, the most backward, the fame of it has spread to the uttermost part of the country, and beyond to other lands. . . . 'Of all the regions of the earth,' says one of their number in explaining the various places of pilgrimage to his pupils, 'India is the noblest, and of all the countries of India, Utkala boasts the highest renown. From end to end it is one vast region of pilgrimage. Its happy inhabitants live secure of a reception into the world of spirits; and even those who visit and bathe in its sacred rivers obtain remission of their sins, though they may weigh like mountains. Who shall estimate the soul's gain from a sojourn in such a land? But what need for enlarging on the praises of a realm in which the gods themselves love to dwell?' This might be dismissed as the dream of a harmless old visionary, but . . . Hunter's testimony is not less striking. 'There is not a fiscal division of Orissa,' he declares, 'without its community of cenobites, scarcely a village without fertile abbey lands, and not a single ancient family which has not devoted its best acres to the gods. Hundreds of monasteries dot the province, and enjoy an aggregate rent-roll of £50,000 a year. Every town is filled with temples, and every hamlet has its shrine. This lavish devotion extends into the hill country. . . . Even foreigners feel that they are treading on hallowed ground, and the villagers still tell how the image-breaking Mussulmans retired abashed before the sanctity of Orissa.'"—R. L. Lacey, *Holy land of the Hindus*, pp. 1-3.

1905.—In partition of Bengal. See **INDIA**: 1905-1910.

1911.—United with Behar, Chota and Nagpur. See **INDIA**: 1911.

1921.—Government. See **INDIA**: 1921.

ORKNEY ISLANDS, a group of about seventy islands, north of the mainland of Scotland, with an area of 376.3 square miles and a population, in 1922, of 24,500. All of the islands, except two or three, have Norse names. They constitute a county of Scotland and are divided into eighteen parishes. Their county town is Kirkwall (Kirkju-

vagr), founded by Jarl Ragnvald. Their only other principal town is Stromness, which has a fine harbor. Together with the Shetland island the Orkneys send one representative to Parliament. At the death of John Jarl in 1231 the direct line of the Norse jarls became extinct, but the Orkneys continued to be a dependency of Norway until 1471, when they were ceded to Scotland by their last jarl, William Sinclair. When the Orkneys came under Scotch rule Scotchmen came over to the islands. A good many of them secured large estates and finally became a landed aristocracy, oppressing the original Norse settlers with heavy taxes. This engendered a hostile feeling between the Scotch and Norse elements, which augmented when the Scotch law was substituted for the old Norse law of St. Olav. Remains from the Norse period are still to be found in the islands. The Magnus cathedral (1137-1156) in Kirkwall is a magnificent structure, the finest building of the islands. The people of the Orkneys have retained their Norse character to the present time, and refuse to be called Scotch. The freeholders are still called "udallers" (i.e., oldesmaend). They are great sailors and fishermen. The Norse language disappeared during the eighteenth century and English took its place. However, many words and idioms have survived, and the memory of the Norse era is greatly loved.—See also NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries; Island empire, etc.; 10th-13th centuries.

ORLANDO, Vittorio Emanuele (1860-), Italian statesman. Professor of constitutional law at Palermo university; minister of the interior 1916-1917; prime minister, 1917-1919. See ADRIATIC QUESTION: Torre-Trumbitch Agreement; FIUME: 1919: Claims of Italians and Jugo-Slavs; Attitude of President Wilson, etc.; ITALY: 1917; 1918; PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1918: XI. End of the war: a, 1.

ORLEANISTS. See LEGITIMISTS.

ORLÉANS, Philip II, Duke of (1674-1723), regent of France. See FRANCE: 1715-1723; 1717-1719; 1717-1720; 1723-1774.

ORLÉANS, city of north central France, on the right bank of the Loire river, seventy-seven miles from Paris. Its population in 1921 was 69,048.

Origin and name.—"The Loire, flowing first northwards, then westwards, protects, by its broad sickle of waters, this portion of Gaul, and the Loire itself is commanded at its most northerly point by that city which, known in Caesar's day as Genabum, had taken the name Aurelianum from the great Emperor, the conqueror of Zenobia, and is now called Orléans."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 3.—See also GENABUM.

Early history. See GAUL: B. C. 58-51.

451.—Siege by Attila. See HUNS: 451.

511-752.—Merovingian capital. See FRANKS: 511-752.

1429.—Deliverance by Joan of Arc.—In the summer of 1428 the English, under the duke of Bedford, having maintained and extended the conquests of Henry V, were masters of nearly the whole of France north of the Loire. The city of Orléans, however, on the north bank of that river, was still held by the French, and its reduction was determined upon. The siege began in October, and after some months of vigorous operations there seemed to be no doubt that the hard-pressed city must succumb. It was then that Joan of Arc, known afterwards as the maid of Orléans, appeared, and by the confidence she inspired drove the English from the field. They raised the siege on

the 12th of May, 1429, and lost ground in France from that day.—Based on Monstrelet, *Chronicles*, bk. 2, ch. 52-60.—See also FRANCE: 1429-1431.

1870.—Taken by the Germans.—Recovered by the French.—Again lost.—Repeated battles. See FRANCE: 1870 (September-October); 1870-1871.

ORLEANS, Councils of (511, 549). See CHARITIES: France: 511-1553.

ORLÉANS, House of. See BOURBON, HOUSE OF; FRANCE: 1593-1598.

1447.—Origin of claims to duchy of Milan. See MILAN: 1447-1454.

ORLEANS, Territory of. See IOWA: 1673-1834; LOUISIANA: 1803-1804; 1805-1812; 1812.

ORLEANS UNIVERSITY, France. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1201-1679; 1231-1339.

ORMAZD (Ahuru-Mazda), chief divinity of the Zoroastrian religion. He is regarded as the principle of good and light, opposed to Ahriman (Angro-Mainyus) the spirit of evil and darkness, over whom he is to triumph in the end.—See also ZOROASTRIANS; PERSIA: B. C. 521-493.

ORMOND, James Butler, 1st Duke of (1610-1688), lord-lieutenant of Ireland. See DUBLIN: 1660-1703; IRELAND: 1646-1649.

ORMOND, Ormonde, Thomas, 10th Earl of (1532-1614), leader of the Irish Protestants. See IRELAND: 1559-1603.

ORMUZ, small island in the Persian gulf. It was the site of an important commercial city, and carried on a large trade with India. See INDIA: 1498-1580; 1600-1702.

ORNES, village east of the Meuse, seven miles northeast of Verdun, eastern France. In 1916, it was captured by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: b, 7.

OROPUS, Naval battle at.—The Athenians suffered a defeat at the hands of the Spartans in a sea fight at Oropus, 411 B. C., as a consequence of which they lost the island of Eubœa. It was one of the most disastrous in the later period of the Peloponnesian War.—Based on Thucydides, *History*, bk. 8, sect. 95.

OROSIUS, Paulus (fl. 415), Spanish historian and theologian. See HISTORY: 18.

OROSIUS, Plague of. See PLAGUE: 78-266.

ORPEN, William (1878-), English painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

ORRIACA, early name of Guadalajara, Spain. See GUADALAJARA, SPAIN.

ORSINI, or Ursini, Roman family. See ROME: Modern city: 1550-1650; 1600-1656; ITALY: 1499-1507.

ORSINI CONSPIRACY (1858). See ENGLAND: 1858-1859.

ORSOVA, town formerly belonging to Hungary but since 1919 to Rumania, near the Iron Gates of the Danube. In the fall of 1916 it was occupied for a short time by the Rumanians.

ORSTED, Hans Christian (1777-1851), Danish physicist. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1753-1874; 1820-1825.

ORTELSBURG, village in the Masurian lake region of East Prussia. Near Ortelburg, at the end of August, 1914, in what is called the Battle of Tannenburg, the Germans inflicted an overwhelming defeat upon the Russians.

ORTHES, Battle of (1814). See SPAIN: 1812-1814.

Truce of (1513). See NAVARRE: 1442-1521.

ORTHOGENESIS, Theory of. See EVOLUTION: Mutation theory of De Vries.

ORTOSPANA, ancient name of the city of Kabul. See KABUL.

ORTYGIA, island near Syracuse. See SYRACUSE: B.C. 734.

OSAGES, North American Indian tribe. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; PAWNEE FAMILY; SIOUAN FAMILY; OKLAHOMA: 1824-1837.

OSAKA, imperial city and important railway center in Japan, on the banks of the Yodo river in the island of Hondo. (See JAPAN: Map.) The census of 1920 gives its population as 1,252,083. It has been called the Venice of the East because of its 1,300 bridges that span the Yodo and the numerous canals. In 1495-1496 Rennio Shonin of the Shin-Shu sect built a temple on the site of the present castle. In 1583 Hideyoshi made Osaka his capital and erected a beautiful palace here, which was burned by Tokugawa retainers in the civil war of 1868. The same year the city was opened to foreign residents and foreign trade. In 1871 a government mint was established here under foreign superintendence. A large part of the city was destroyed by fire in August, 1909. At present the city is the headquarters of the Osaka military district.

Library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Japan.

OSBORN, Henry Fairfield (1857-), American paleontologist. See EVOLUTION: Historical development of the idea.

OSBORN, Sherard (1822-1875), English admiral and Arctic explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1852-1854.

OSBORN, Thomas. See LEEDS, THOMAS OSBORNE.

OSBORNE, Thomas Mott (1859-), American penologist. See PRISON REFORM: United States: Results of prison reform.

OSBORNE HOUSE, country residence of Queen Victoria on the Isle of Wight, where she died, January 22, 1901. The queen bought the house in 1840, and after her death King Edward presented it to the nation. A royal naval college was opened there in 1903.

OSBORNE JUDGMENT, decision rendered by the House of Lords in 1909 against the right of trade unions to pay salaries to members of Parliament. See ENGLAND: 1909 (July-December); LIBERAL PARTY: 1906-1918.

OSCAN.—"The Oscan or Opican race was at one time very widely spread over the south [of Italy]. The Auruncans of Lower Latium belonged to this race, as also the Ausonians, who once gave name to Central Italy, and probably also the Volscians and the Æquians. In Campania the Oscan language was preserved to a late period in Roman history, and inscriptions still remain which can be interpreted by those familiar with Latin."—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, introduction, sect. 2.—See also ITALY: Ancient.

OSCAR I (1799-1859), king of Sweden and Norway, 1844-1859.

Oscar II (1829-1907), king of Sweden and Norway, 1872-1907. See NORWAY: 1902-1905.

OSCILLOGRAPH. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1831-1921.

O'SHAUGHNESSY, Nelson (1876-), American diplomat. Chargé d'affaires in Mexico, 1913-1914. See U.S.A.: 1914 (April); Occupation of Vera Cruz.

OSI, ancient German tribe. See ARAVISCT; GOTHIN.

OSIREION, passageway in the temple of Seti, Egypt. See ABYDOS, EGYPT.

OSIRIS, Egyptian god. See MYTHOLOGY: Egyptian; ABYDOS, EGYPT.

OSISMI, an ancient people in the northwestern

part of Bretagne, in the department of Finistère, France. See VENETI OF WESTERN GAUL.

OSKER (fl.841), Norman pirate chief. See NORMANS: 841.

OSMAN, or Othman, I (c.1259-1326), Turkish sultan, 1288-1326. Founded the Ottoman, or Turkish, dynasty. See TURKEY: 1240-1346.

Osman, or Othman, II (1605-1622), Turkish sultan, 1616-1621.

Osman, or Othman, III (1696-1757), Turkish sultan, 1754-1757.

OSMAN DIGNA (c.1836-1900), follower of the Mahdi in the Sudan. See EGYPT: 1885-1896; 1897-1898; 1899-1900.

OSMAN PASHA (1832-1900), Turkish general. Famous for his defense of Plevna against the Russians and Rumanians, 1877.

OSMANLIS, descendants of the clan of Osman, Mohammedan subjects of the sultan, exclusive of the Arabs and Albanians. See ARMENIA: 1453-1878; HUNGARY: 1683-1699; TURKEY: Diverse peoples of the country; 1240-1326.

OSMEÑA, Sergio, speaker of the Philippine assembly; one of the leaders in the movement for self-government. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.

OSMOTIC PRESSURE. See CHEMISTRY: Physical laws of gases.

OSNABRÜCK, town in the Prussian province of Hanover, seventy miles west of the city of Hanover. In 1919 the population numbered 85,017.

1644-1648.—Negotiation of Peace of Westphalia. See AUSTRIA: 1618-1648; GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia; WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF (1648).

1648.—Treat between Germany and Sweden. See AUSTRIA: 1618-1648; GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia; WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF (1648).

1803.—Ceded to Hanover by Treaty of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

OSORIO, Manuel (1770-1830), Spanish general. Commanded the Spanish forces in Chile, 1814-1816. See CHILE: 1810-1818.

OSRHOËNE, or Osroëne, small principality or petty kingdom surrounding the city of Edessa, its capital, in northwestern Mesopotamia. It appears to have acquired its name and some little importance during the period of Parthian supremacy. It was a prince of Osrhoëne who betrayed the ill-fated army of Crassus to the Parthians at Carrhæ. In the reign of Carcalla Osrhoëne was made a Roman province. Edessa, the capital, claimed great antiquity, but is believed to have been really founded by Seleucus. During the first ten or eleven centuries of the Christian era Edessa was a city of superior importance in the eastern world, under dependent kings or princes of its own. It was especially noted for its schools of theology.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy*, ch. 11.

Also in: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 5, ch. 2.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 8, 47.—P. Smith, *History of the world*, v. 3 (American ed.), p. 151.

OSSA AND PELION, mountain ridges in Thessaly, Greece. See THESSALY.

OSSETE LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY: 23.

OSSIATIC CYCLE. See CELTS: Ancient Irish sagas.

OSTEND, seaport and fashionable resort of Belgium, on the North sea. As a commercial port it ranks after Antwerp. It is the headquarters of the Belgian fishing fleet and is noted for its traffic in hares. Its population in 1922 was 48,073. See NETHERLANDS: Map.

1602-1604.—Siege and capture by Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: 1594-1609.

1706.—Besieged and reduced by the Allies. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707.

1722-1731.—India Company chartered and abolished. See SPAIN: 1713-1725; 1726-1731.

1745.—Taken by the French. See BELGIUM: 1745.

1865-1910.—Fortress demolished.—Growth of town.—The last of the ramparts were razed in 1865, and a new town arose. At the end of the nineteenth century extensive improvements of the city and harbor facilities were inaugurated which made Ostend the second port of Belgium. In 1860 tonnage at the port amounted to 129,151. By 1900 it rose to 2,169,823, and by 1910 to 2,190,894.

1914-1919.—Effect of World War.—During nearly the whole of the World War, Ostend was held by the Germans, who erected sea defenses, constructed a submarine base and emplaced powerful guns. On May 10, 1918, the British in a daring raid sunk ships in the harbor entrance, partly blocking it. On October 17, 1918, the Belgian troops entered Ostend. During the next year, the latest for which statistics of the commerce of Ostend are available, only 1,005 ships, representing a tonnage of 390,960, cleared the port, which was still suffering from the effects of the blocking of the harbor.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: e; f; 1918: II. Western front: r, 2; m; VIII. Aviation; IX. Naval operations: a; BELGIUM: 1918.

OSTEND MANIFESTO (1854). See CUBA: 1845-1860.

OSTERLINGS, eastern cities. See HANSA TOWNS.

OSTERREICH. See AUSTRIA.

OSTIA.—Ostia, the ancient port of Rome, at the mouth of the Tiber, was regarded as a suburb of the city and had no independent existence. Its inhabitants were Roman citizens. In time, the maintaining of a harbor at Ostia was found to be impracticable, owing to deposits of silt from the Tiber, and artificial harbors were constructed by the emperors Claudius, Nero and Trajan, about two miles to the north of Ostia. They were known by the names Portus Augusti and Portus Trajani. In the twelfth century the port and channel of Ostia were partially restored, for a time, but only to be abandoned again. The ancient city is now represented by a small hamlet, about two miles from the seashore.—Based on R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna*, ch. 14.

OSTIACS, eastern branch of the Finnish race in the southern part of the Ural mountains. See HUNGARY: Origin of Hungarians.

OSTMEN. See NORMANS: 10th-13th centuries.

OSTRACH, Battle of (1799). See FRANCE: 1798-1799 August-April.

OSTRACISM.—"The state [Athens] required means of legally removing persons who, by an excess of influence and adherents, virtually put an end to the equality among the citizens established by law, and thus threatened the state with a revival of party-rule. For this purpose, in the days of Cleisthenes, and probably under his influence, the institution of ostracism, or judgment by potsherds, was established. By virtue of it the people were themselves to protect civic equality, and by a public vote remove from among them whoever seemed dangerous to them. For such a sentence, however, besides a public preliminary discussion, the unanimous vote of six thousand citizens was required. The honour and property of the exile remained untouched, and the banishment itself was only pronounced for a term of ten years."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 2.—"The primary

motive for its introduction at Athens [by Cleisthenes (see ATHENS: B.C. 508)], as subsequently at Syracuse, was the avoidance of tyranny. It was, therefore, meant to be employed when one man's influence became so great as to threaten the existence of the constitution; it was an effectual way of showing that there was an overwhelming majority against him, and a mode of frustrating his possible designs without having to resort to violence and bloodshed. But it also served the important secondary purpose of producing a national consciousness and sustaining an interest in the government, as the careful nature of the procedure adopted forced the people to continuous reflection on the political situation. The ecclesia had first to determine whether a resort to ostracism was advisable, and on this occasion the whole political situation would necessarily be discussed. If the resolution was in the affirmative, the people met again and voted by tribes, under the presidency of the nine Archons and the council, recording on tablets the names of the men whom they individually destined for exile. A bare majority was sufficient to effect it, but at this second stage six thousand votes had to be recorded in all. Considering the frailty of Greek constitutional governments, and the recent experience of Athens in the time of Cleisthenes, the institution was a useful one; but it was evidently open to abuse. Ostracism might be worked by a powerful party to banish a legitimate constitutional leader."—A. H. J. Greenidge, *Handbook of Greek constitutional history*, p. 161.—See also BOYCOTT: Origin; FATALISM.

ALSO IN: G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece*, pt. 3, ch. 3.

OSTROGOTHS. See GOTHS.

OSTROLENKA, Battles of (1831, 1915). See POLAND: 1830-1832; WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 7; g, 8; h, 1.

OSTROVNO, Battle of. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).

OSTRÓVSKI, Alexander Nikolaevich (1823-1886), Russian dramatist. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1855-1889.

OSTWALD, Wilhelm (1853-), German chemist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Chemistry: 1909.

OSWALD (605-642), king of Northumbria, 634-642.

OSWEGO, city on Lake Ontario in the state of New York. Its population in 1920 was 23,626. It is the terminus of the state barge canal and has one of the largest starch factories in the world. During the colonial period and especially during the French and Indian War, it was the most valued position of the English in North America.

1690-1696.—Frontenac's expeditions.—"From 1690 to 1696, Count de Frontenac, the vigorous Governor of Canada, founder of Kingston, making Oswego his base of operations, dispatched expeditions against the Iroquois to drive them from alliance with the English and into alliance with himself."—G. T. Clark, *New York State Historical Association Proceedings*, 1914, v. 13, p. 325.

1715-1726.—Fur traders.—Traffic with Indians.—Competition between English and French fur traders began some time between 1715 and 1720. In 1726, 300 English and Dutch fur traders gathered at Oswego and remained all summer carrying on a brisk traffic with the Indians.

1722.—Fort built by the English. See CANADA: 1700-1735.

1728-1839.—Erection of Fort Oswego.—The first Fort Oswego was erected on the left bank of the Oswego river by Governor Burnet. The French called it Fort Chouagen and later Fort Pepperel.

It was for a long time the only fort of the English on the northwestern frontier and guarded all their territory west of the settled line of the seacoast from Canada to Georgia. In 1755 the British enlarged Fort Oswego and built Fort Ontario on the west bank of the river. When Oswego fell before the Marquis de Montcalm in August 1756, the English regarded its loss as a national misfortune. The British restored and garrisoned Fort Ontario in 1759. Here in 1766 the great Ottawa chieftain, Pontiac, made his pledge of peace with Great Britain. In January, 1783, Washington, unaware that the Treaty of Paris had been signed, sent an unsuccessful expedition against Fort Ontario. During the War of 1812 the fort sustained its last siege. After a vigorous resistance Colonel Mitchell surrendered to Sir James Yeo, May 6, 1814. Oswego was incorporated as a village in 1828, when the Oswego canal was finished, and became a city in 1848.—Based on G. T. Clark, *New York State Historical Association Proceedings*, 1914, v. 13, pp. 326-330.

1755.—English position strengthened. See CANADA: 1755 (August-October).

1756.—Captured by the French. See CANADA: 1756-1757.

1783-1796.—Retained by the English after peace with the United States.—Final surrender. See U.S.A.: 1783-1796; 1794-1795.

OSWEGO CANAL. See BARGE CANAL.

OSWI, king of Northumbria, 655-670.

OTADENI, or Ottedeni, one of the tribes in Britain whose territory lay between the Roman wall and the Firth of Forth. Mr. Skene thinks they were the same people who are mentioned in the fourth century as the "Attacotti."—Based on W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, v. I.—See also BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

OTANI, Kikuzo (1855-), Japanese general. Commanded an Allied expeditionary force which landed at Vladivostok, August, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: c; e.

OTCHAGRAS, North American Indian tribe. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

OTCHAKOF, Siege of (1737). See RUSSIA: 1734-1740.

OTFORD, Battle of (1016), won by Edmund Ironsides over Cnut, or Canute, the Danish claimant of the English crown.

OTFRIED (c. 800-c. 870), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 750-1050.

OTHMAN. See OSMAN.

OTHMAN (c. 574-656), third of the caliphs recognized by the Sunnite Mohammedans. His misrule caused great disturbances, which culminated in his assassination. See CALIPHATE: 647-709; 661.

OTHO. See OTTO.

OTHO, Marcus Salvius (32-69), Roman emperor, 69. See ROME: Empire: 69.

OTHRYS, mountain ridge in Thessaly. See THESSALY.

OTIS, Elwell Stephen (1838-1909), American general. Military governor of the Philippines, 1898-1899. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1898 (August-December); 1898-1899 (December-January); 1899: Armed opposition; Beginnings of acceptance.

OTIS, James (1725-1783), American patriot and orator. Author of numerous pamphlets on political subjects. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1761; U.S.A.: 1761; 1765: Stamp Act congress.

OTOES, or Ottoes, North American Indian tribe. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; PAWNEE FAMILY; SIOUAN FAMILY.

OTOMIS.—"According to Aztec tradition, the Otomis were the earliest owners of the soil of Central Mexico. Their language was at the conquest one of the most widely distributed of any in this portion of the continent. Its central regions were the States of Queretaro and Guanajuato. . . . The Otomis are below the average stature, of dark color, the skull markedly dolichocephalic, the nose short and flattened, the eyes slightly oblique."—D. G. Brinton, *American race*, p. 135.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in Mexico and Central America: Aztec area.

OTRANTO, seaport and archepiscopal see of Apulia, Italy, in the province of Lecce. It was taken by the Turks in 1480 and assigned to Ferdinand of Aragon by the Treaty of Cambrai in 1508. See ITALY: 1447-1480; VENICE: 1508-1509.

OTTAGAMIES, North American Indian tribe. See SACS.

OTTAKAR I (d. 1230), king of Bohemia, 1192-1230.

Ottakar II (c. 1230-1278), king of Bohemia 1253-1278. See BOHEMIA: 9th-13th centuries.

OTTAWA, Canada, city in Carlton county, province of Ontario. It is the capital of the Dominion of Canada, and is built on the southern bank of the Ottawa river. For the most part the city lies on a group of low hills between Chaudiere Falls and Rideau Falls; but has stretched beyond this latter point. The outstanding architectural feature of the city is the group of Parliament buildings, which stand on a bluff, high above the river. In 1921 the population of Ottawa was 107,137.

Founding of city.—"In 1826 the village of Bytown, now Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion of Canada, was founded. The origin of this beautiful city was this: Colonel By, an officer of the Royal Engineers, came to survey the country with a view of making a canal to connect the tidal waters of the St. Lawrence with the great lakes of Canada. After various explorations, an inland route up the Ottawa to the Rideau affluent, and thence by a ship canal to Kingston on Lake Ontario, was chosen. Colonel By made his headquarters where the proposed canal was to descend, by eight locks, a steep declivity of 90 feet to the Ottawa River. 'The spot itself was wonderfully beautiful.' . . . It was the centre of a vast lumber-trade, and had expanded by 1858 to a large town."—W. P. Gresswell, *History of the Dominion of Canada*, p. 168.

1854-1865.—Incorporation as a city.—Capital of Canada.—First session of Parliament.—In 1854 the village of Bytown became the city of Ottawa, and four years later was chosen by Queen Victoria as the capital of Canada. The first session of parliament was opened in the new capital in 1865.

1900.—Great fire.—The city of Ottawa, capital of the Dominion of Canada, and the lumber manufacturing town of Hull, on the opposite side of the Ottawa river, were both devastated, on the 26th of April, by one of the most destructive fires of the century. It originated in the upsetting of a lamp in a dwelling in Hull. This was at half-past ten o'clock in the morning. A big gale blowing from the northeast made quick work of the inflammable houses in Hull, and by twelve o'clock the flames had reached the river-bank and leaped across to the Ottawa side. The fire then retraced its steps in Hull, and destroyed a group of factories. It "blazed a crescent-shaped path five miles long and a mile wide, destroying in its journey the public buildings and the residential part of Hull, the industrial area of the Chaudiere, and the suburbs of the Ottawa laboring classes at Mechanicsburg,

Rochesterville, and Hintonburg. Fully 15,000 people were rendered homeless, and \$15,000,000 worth of property was annihilated."—*Canadian Magazine*, July, 1900.

1912-1916.—Bi-lingual school question.—Bonne Entente with Quebec. See CANADA: 1912-1916.

1914.—Represented at defense conference. See CANADA: 1914 (October).

1916.—Parliament buildings destroyed by fire.—The houses of Parliament of which the corner stone was laid in 1860 by the Prince of Wales (Edward VII), were destroyed by fire in 1916; only the octagon-shaped library, with its contents, was saved. The archives building and royal mint escaped, due to the fact that they are situated on the opposite bank of the Rideau canal, which divides the city into two sections. The Houses have been rebuilt in Gothic style on the same lines as before, including the beautiful tower above the main entrance.

1919.—Represented at national industrial conference. See CANADA: 1919 (September).

OTTAWA AND HULL CITY PLAN. See CITY PLANNING: Canada.

OTTAWAS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; OJIBWAS; PONTIAC'S WAR.

OTTEDENI. See OTADENTI.

OTTERBURN, Battle of.—This famous battle was fought, August 19, 1388, between a small force of Scots, harrying the border, under Earl Douglas and a hastily assembled body of English led by Sir Henry Percy, the famous Hotspur. The English, making a night attack on the Scottish camp, not far from Newcastle, were terribly beaten, and Hotspur was taken prisoner; but Douglas fell mortally wounded. The battle was a renowned encounter of knightly warriors, and greatly interested the historians of the age. It is narrated in Froissart's chronicles (v. 3, ch. 126), and is believed to be the action sung of in the famous old ballad of Chevy Chase, or the "Hunting of the Cheviot."—Based on J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland*, v. 3, ch. 26.

OTTIMATI, political party in Florence. See FLORENCE: 1498-1500.

OTTO I, the Great (912-973), Holy Roman emperor, 962-973, and king of Germany, 936-973. Gave his support to Lombardy against Berengar, 951; defeated the Magyars, 955; crowned emperor at Rome, 962. See ADELAIDE; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Holy Roman and papal empires; GERMANY: 936-973; HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE: 962; HUNGARY: 934-955; ITALY: 961-1039; PAPACY: 6-11th centuries; ROME: Medieval city: 903-964.

Otto II (955-983), Holy Roman emperor, 973-983. Subdued revolt in Bavaria, 977; expelled the French from Lorraine, 978. See GERMANY: 973-1056.

Otto III (980-1002), Holy Roman emperor, 983-1002. See GERMANY: 973-1056.

Otto IV (c. 1182-1218), Holy Roman emperor, 1209-1215. Elected king of Germany, 1198; crowned emperor, 1209; quarreled with the pope, who put Frederick II forward as anti-emperor, 1212; defeated at battle of Bouvines, 1214. See FRANCE: 1214; ITALY: 1183-1250; BOUVINES, BATTLE OF.

Otto (1815-1867), king of Greece, 1833-1862. See GREECE: 1830-1862; ADRIANOPLE, TREATY OF.

Otto I (d. 1183), count of Wittelsbach, and duke of Bavaria, 1183. See BAVARIA: 1180-1356.

Otto I (c. 1130-1184), margrave of Brandenburg, 1170-1184. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

Otto II (d. 1205), margrave of Brandenburg, 1184-1205. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

Otto III (d. 1267), margrave of Brandenburg, 1220-1267. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

Otto IV (d. 1309), margrave of Brandenburg, 1281-1389. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

Otto, count of Nassau. See NASSAU.

OTTO OF FREISING (c. 1114-1158), German bishop and chronicler. See HISTORY: 22.

OTOKAR II (c. 1230-1278), king of Bohemia, 1253-1278. See BOHEMIA: 9th-13th centuries.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE. See TURKEY: 1240-1326, and after; SUBLIME PORTE.

OTUMBA, Battle of (1520). See MEXICO: 1520-1521.

OUAR KHOUNI, Avar tribe. See AVARS.

UDENARDE, town in east Flanders, Belgium, about thirty-three miles west of Brussels.

1659.—Taken by the French and returned to Spain. See FRANCE: 1659-1661.

1667.—Taken by the French. See BELGIUM: 1667.

1668.—Ceded to France. See NETHERLANDS: 1668.

1679.—Restored to Spain. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1706.—Surrendered to Marlborough and the allies. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707.

1708.—Marlborough's victory. See NETHERLANDS: 1708-1709.

1745-1748.—Taken by the French and restored. See BELGIUM: 1745; AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2.

1918.—Occupied by the Allies during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: m; q, 4; x, 3.

ODUH, or Oude.—The provinces of Oudh and Agra, before 1801 called the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, together constitute one of the fifteen administrations into which India is divided. The area of Oudh is 24,158 square miles; that of the United Provinces 107,000. (See INDIA: Map.) The two provinces together had in 1921 a population of over forty-five and one-half millions, of whom 12,170,308 inhabited Oudh. "Before the British settler had established himself on the peninsula of India, Oudh was a province of the Mogul Empire. When that empire was distracted and weakened [in 1738-1739] by the invasion of Nadir Shah [see INDIA: 1662-1748], . . . the Governor began to govern for himself."—J. W. Kaye, *History of the Sepoy War in India*, v. 1, ch. 3.—In 1764 the Nawab of Oudh was defeated at Buxar, but was permitted to retain his domain, enlarged by the province of Allahabad and Kora. In 1801 Lord Wellesley forced a treaty on the Nawab S'adat Ali, ceding in perpetuity to the British East India Company districts yielding £1,500,000 yearly. The province was thus reduced to virtually its present dimensions. In 1835 a lieutenant-governor was appointed for the North-Western Provinces, as the present province of Agra was then called. These were augmented by the addition of Delhi after the Mutiny of 1857 (see INDIA: 1857) and of the Saugor and Nerbudda territories after 1853. Oudh remained under its nawab, who in 1819 took the title of king. The country was badly governed, however, and in 1856 the British annexed it and made it a chief commissionership. This measure proved so unpopular that when the mutiny of 1857 broke out, the Oudh sepoys joined it, and the siege of Lucknow followed. In 1877 the lieutenant-governor of the North-Western Provinces was given the additional office of chief commissioner of Oudh. This arrangement was continued until 1901, when the provinces were given their present designation.

1351.—Declares independence. See INDIA: 1290-1398.

1763-1765.—English wars with the nabob. See INDIA: 1757-1772.

1773-1785.—Begums of Oudh and Warren Hastings. See INDIA: 1773-1785.

1830.—Wahhabi movement. See WAHHABIS. Also in: J. M. Ludlow, *British India*, pt. 2, lecture 15.—W. M. Torrens, *Empire in Asia: How we came by it*, ch. 26.

UDINOT, Charles Nicolas, Duke of Reggio (1767-1847). French marshal. Served in French revolutionary and Napoleonic campaigns; victor at Ostrolenka, 1806; served in Spanish campaign, 1823; governor of Invalides, 1847. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September); (October-December).

UDINOT, Charles Nicolas Victor, 2nd Duke of Reggio (1791-1863), French general. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

OUED RAS, Treaty of (1860). See MOROCCO: 647-1860.

OUIARS, or Ougours, tribe of Huns. See AVARS.

OULIANOV, Vladimir Illych. See LENIN.

OUR LADY OF MONTESA, Order of.—This was an order of knighthood founded by King James II, of Aragon, in 1317.—Based on S. A. Dunham, *History of Spain and Portugal*, v. 4, p. 238 (American ed.).

OURCQ, river flowing into the Marne, northern France. In the World War, during 1914 and 1918 there was considerable fighting in the vicinity. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: p; 1918: II. Western front: g, 1.

OURIQUE, Battle of (1140). See PORTUGAL: 1095-1325.

OUSEMAGUIN. See MASSASOIT.

OUTEN, Egyptian money. See MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Egypt and Babylonia.

OUTLAWRY. See CRIME AND CRIMINOLOGY: Social regulation.

OVANDO, Nicholas de (c. 1460-c. 1518), Spanish colonial administrator. See AMERICA: 1498-1505; SLAVERY: 1493-1542.

OVATION, Roman. See TRIUMPH AND OVATION.

OVERBECK, Johann Fredrich (1789-1869), German painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

OVERMAN BILL. See U.S.A.: 1918 (January-April).

OVID (43 B.C.-17 A.D.), Roman poet. See LATIN LITERATURE: B.C. 43-A.D. 14.

OVEDO, province of northern Spain, formerly the kingdom of Asturias. See ASTURIAS: 1833; SPAIN: 713-950.

OVILLERS, village about three miles northeast of Albert, northeastern France. It was taken by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: d, 6; d, 7.

OWEN, Robert (1771-1858), English social reformer. SOCIALISM: 1800-1824; 1805-1827; CO-OPERATION: England; EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: England: Spread of popular education.

OWEN-KEATING LAW (1916). See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1916-1922; U.S.A.: 1916-1917: Opposition to Owen-Keating child labor law.

OXENSTIERNA, or Oxenstjerna, Count Axel Gustafsson (1583-1654), Swedish statesman. Sent by Charles IX as ambassador to the court of Mecklenburg, 1606; became senator, 1609; regent, 1621; appointed chancellor, 1611; arranged the Peace of Stolbova with Russia, 1617; appointed governor-general of the conquered Polish districts

and concluded peace with them, 1629; placed at the head of the Evangelical League at the Congress of Heilbronn, 1633; directed the policy of the Protestants in Germany until the Peace of Westphalia, 1648.—See also GERMANY: 1632-1634; SWEDEN: 1644-1607; DELAWARE: 1638-1640.

OXFORD, city, municipal and parliamentary borough, on the Thames river, fifty-one miles from London; famous as the seat of a great university. Its population in 1921 was 57,052. "Oxford had already seen five centuries of borough life before a student appeared within its streets. Instead of its prosperity being derived from its connection with the University, that connection has probably been its commercial ruin. . . . The University found Oxford a busy, prosperous borough, and reduced it to a cluster of lodging houses."—J. R. Green, *Early history of Oxford* (*Studies in Oxford history*, pp. 1-24).—Tradition has it that Saint Frideswide founded a nunnery in the eighth century on the site of the present cathedral, and University college claims Alfred as its founder. Oxford is first authentically mentioned, however, in the English Chronicle of the year 912. It was then a town of rapidly growing importance on the frontier between Mercia and Wessex. It was burned three times by the Danes (979, 1002 and 1010) and was surrendered to Sweyn in 1013. The Norman conquest inflicted widespread destruction on the city, but it recovered rapidly and maintained a position of political and commercial importance throughout the thirteenth century. In 1142 Stephen besieged Queen Matilda here and forced her to flee. The Mad Parliament of 1258 met here. The latter part of the century saw in the founding of Merton, University and Balliol colleges the beginning of the great university of Oxford. Townsmen were hereafter subordinated to students, and the rivalry thus engendered culminated in the St. Scholastica riots, February 10 and 11, 1354/5. As a result the university received successive charters enhancing its privileges. It was at Oxford that Ridley and Latimer were martyred in 1555. Here Charles I made his headquarters during the Civil War. (See ENGLAND: 1642 [October-December].) From 1651 until 1657 Cromwell himself was chancellor of Oxford. Charles I held the last Oxford Parliament in 1681. During the reign of George I and George II, the university was Jacobite and the town Hanoverian. From 1785, when George III visited Oxford, until to-day, the history of the university has been the sole history of the town.

OXFORD, Provisions of, system or constitution of government secured in 1258 by the English barons, under the lead of Earl Simon de Montfort. The king, Henry III, "was again and again forced to swear to it, and to proclaim it throughout the country. The special grievances of the barons were met by a set of ordinances called the Provisions of Westminster, which were produced after some trouble in October 1259."—W. Stubbs, *Early Plantagenets*, p. 100.—The new constitution was nominally in force for nearly six years, repeatedly violated and repeatedly sworn to afresh by the king, civil war being constantly imminent. At length both sides agreed to submit the question of maintaining the Provisions of Oxford to the arbitration of Louis IX of France, and his decision, called the Mise of Amiens, annulled them completely. De Montfort's party thereupon repudiated the award and the civil war called the "Barons' War" ensued.—Based on C. H. Pearson, *History of England in the Early and Middle Ages*, v. 2, ch. 8.—See also COMMON LAW: 1258; ENGLAND: 1216-1272.

Also in: W. Stubbs, *Select charters*, pt. 6.

OXFORD, or TRACTARIAN, MOVEMENT, reform movement within the Anglican church initiated by certain intellectual and religious leaders at Oxford, and designed to bring the church into closer conformity with historic Catholicism. "Never was religion in England so uninteresting as it was in the earlier part of the 19th century. Never was a time when thought was so active, criticism so keen, taste so fastidious; and which so plainly demanded a religion intellectual, sympathetic, and attractive. This want the Tractarian, or Oxford movement, as it is called, attempted to supply. . . . But the Tractarians put before themselves an aim far higher than that. They attempted nothing less than to develop and place on a firm and imperishable basis what Laud and the Non-Jurors had tried tentatively to do; namely, to vindicate the Church of England from all complicity with foreign Protestantism, to establish her essential identity with the Church of the Apostles and Fathers through the mediæval Church, and to place her for the first time since the Reformation in her true position with regard to the Church in the East and the West. . . . Naturally the first work undertaken was the explanation of doctrine. The 'Tracts for the Times,' mainly written by Dr. Newman and Dr. Pusey, put before men what the writers believed to be the doctrine of the Church of England, with a boldness and precision of statement hitherto unexampled: The divine Authority of the Church. Her essential unity in all parts of the world. The effectiveness of regeneration in Holy Baptism. The reality of the presence of our Lord in Holy Communion. The sacrificial character of Holy Communion. The reality of the power to absolve sin committed by our Lord to the priesthood. Such were the doctrines maintained in the Tractarian writings. . . . They were, of course, directly opposed to the popular Protestantism of the day, as held by the Evangelical party. They were equally opposed to the Latitudinarianism of the Broad Church party, who—true descendants of Tillotson and Burnet—were under the leadership of men like Arnold and Stanley, endeavouring to unite all men against the wickedness of the time on the basis of a common Christian morality under the guardianship of the State, unhampered by distinctive creeds or definite doctrines. No two methods could be more opposite."—H. O. Wakeman, *History of religion in England*, ch. 11.—"The two tasks . . . which the Tractarians set themselves, were to establish first that the authority of the primitive Church resided in the Church of England, and second, that the doctrines of the English Church were really identical with those of pre-Tridentine Christianity. . . . The Tractarians' second object is chiefly recollected because it produced the Tract which brought their series to an abrupt conclusion [1841]. Tract XC. is an elaborate attempt to prove that the articles of the English Church are not inconsistent with the doctrines of mediæval Christianity; that they may be subscribed by those who aim at being Catholic in heart and doctrine. . . . Few books published in the present century have made so great a sensation as this famous Tract. . . . Bagot, Bishop of Oxford, Mr. Newman's own diocesan, asked the author to suppress it. The request placed the author in a singular dilemma. The

double object which he had set himself to accomplish became at once impossible. He had laboured to prove that authority resided in the English Church, and authority, in the person of his own diocesan, objected to his interpretation of the articles. For the moment Mr. Newman resolved on a compromise. He did not withdraw Tract XC., but he discontinued the series. . . . The discontinuance of the Tracts, however, did not alter the position of authority. The bishops, one after another, 'began to charge against' the author. Authority, the authority which Mr. Newman had laboured to establish, was shaking off the dust of its feet against him. The attacks of the bishops made Mr. Newman's continuance in the Church of England difficult. But, long before the attack was made, he had regarded his own position with dissatisfaction." It became intolerable to him when, in 1841, a Protestant bishop of Jerusalem was appointed, who exercised authority over both Lutherans and Anglicans. "A communion with Lutherans, Calvinists, and even Monophysites seemed to him an abominable thing, which tended to separate the English Church further and further from Rome. . . . From the hour that the see was established, his own lot was practically decided. For a few years longer he remained in the fold in which he had been reared, but he felt like a dying man. He gradually withdrew from his pastoral duties, and finally [in 1845] entered into communion with Rome. . . . A great movement never perishes for want of a leader. After the secession of Mr. Newman, the control of the movement fell into the hands of Dr. Pusey."—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815*, v. 4, ch. 21.—See also **BISHOP**: Since the Reformation; **CHURCH OF ENGLAND**: 19th century; **PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH**: 1836-1874; **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1833-1909.

ALSO IN: J. H. Newman, *History of my religious opinions (Apologia pro vita sua)*.—Idem, *Letters and correspondence to 1845*.—R. W. Church, *Oxford Movement*.—W. Palmer, *Narrative of events connected with the Tracts for the Times*.—T. Mozley, *Reminiscences*.—J. T. Coleridge, *Life of John Keble*.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**: 912-1257; **England**: Early Oxford; also **LIBRARIES**: Modern: **England**; etc.; **Bodleian library**; **WRANGLERS**.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS. See **PRINTING AND THE PRESS**; 1889-1900.

OXGANG. See **BOVATE**.

OXUS, ancient name of the Amu-Darik, principal river of Central Asia. See **BOKHARA**.

Battle of the. See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 33.

OYAMA, Iwao, Prince (1842-1916), Japanese general. Commander-in-chief of the armies in Manchuria during the Russo-Japanese War; won the battles of Liao-Yang and Mukden. See **JAPAN**: 1902-1905.

OYER AND TERMINER, Courts of. See **CRIMINAL LAW**: 1285.

OZIEROV, Ladislaus Alexandrovitch (1760-1816), Russian author. See **RUSSIAN LITERATURE**: 1800-1852.

OZOLIAN LOKRIANS, ancient Greeks who lived on the Corinthian gulf. See **ACARNANIA**.

P

PAARDEBERG, Battle of. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1900 (January-February).

PACA, William (1740-1799), American jurist. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See **U.S.A.**: 1776 (July): Text of declaration.

PACAMORE, South American Indian tribe. See **ANDESIANS**.

PACE, ancient unit of measurement. See **INVENTIONS**: Ancient and medieval: Measurements.

PACHA, Turkish title of honor. See **BEY**.

PACIFIC CABLES. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1855-1917.

PACIFIC COAST INDIANS. See **INDIANS**, **AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific coast area.

PACIFIC EMBARGO. See **EMBARGO**: Definition.

PACIFIC FLEET, United States: Operations during World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: IX. Naval operations: c.

PACIFIC GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY, British Columbia. See **RAILROADS**: 1920: British Columbia.

PACIFIC OCEAN: Geographical description.—Mobility of ocean bed.—“By ‘the Pacific’ is here meant that great sea, covering more than a third of the globe, which is almost surrounded by the west coast of America, by the east coast of Asia, and of the great islands of New Guinea, Australia, and New Zealand, and by the Antarctic continent from a point south of New Zealand to a point south of Cape Horn. . . . The islands, literally innumerable, . . . like the peaks and upper edges of ranges of a submerged land, rise above the sea-level, in groups, in lines, or singly, from the Australian and south-east Asiatic coast, on either side of the equatorial line, and extend two-thirds across to America. For these islands, though mostly too small, too rugged, or too little above the sea-level, to afford much opportunity for human life and activity, . . . are of great historical importance, because in the early days they were the main attraction of Europeans to the Pacific, and because in our days the great European Powers, having first divided the coastal regions, . . . are engaged in the partition of the islands, the ‘stepping-stones’ from coast to coast. . . . Almost all the islands of this great belt,—the South Sea islands . . . are volcanic rock-masses round the sea edge of which . . . coral has grown, forming . . . a fringing reef. In some cases the rock-core has sunk, lower and lower, and . . . the coral at the outer, or living edge of the fringing reef, has grown straight upward, tending always to keep its upper surface just below the level of the sea; and in this way a water-channel has gradually been formed between the central rock mass and the outer rim of coral.”—E. I. Thurn, *European influence in the Pacific* (*Geographical Journal*, Apr., 1915).—“The eastern half of the Pacific, to a distance of about 5,000 miles from the coast of America, is practically devoid of islands. . . . The vast majority of islands [that] figure in the history of European colonisation in the Pacific are within 2000 miles of the coasts of Australia and New Zealand. The more easterly of these, between the equator and 30 deg. S. Lat. and between 135 degree and 180 degree West Longitude constitute the Polynesian Archipelago, and are inhabited by the . . . race of whom the Maori of New Zealand, the

Hawaiians, the Tahitians, the Tongans, and the Samoans, are the best known. . . . In Fiji, the Polynesians blend with the more savage Melaneseans, whose zone extends westward through all the islands to the Australian coast, and northwards of the equator. The northern part of Melanesia is sometimes called Micronesia.”—G. H. Scholefield, *Pacific, its past and future*, pp. 1, 2.—In “the Pacific . . . there is a characteristic . . . that is . . . distinctive; it is its mobility of bed. . . . The mobility naturally varies. There are belts that are now subsiding and belts that are rising. One zone, stretching from the south-east of Japan south-eastwards over the equator down to within a couple of thousand miles of the South American coast has manifestly been subsiding during the existing geological era. . . . The region away to the southwest, extending from the Philippines to New Zealand in a southerly direction and from Celebes to Samoa in an easterly direction has evidently been rising for a long period. . . . The coral insect in this ocean raises its reef at the average rate of fifteen to eighteen inches in ten years. Taking this as the rate through recent geological times and taking the average depths for some distance around the groups of islets . . . in early neolithic times, certainly in paleolithic times, these groups were both broad and lofty. . . . In that state of the ocean the least oceanic of canoes might venture in the lee of the groups right down into the far center of the great watery expanse. And this would account for one of the most singular phenomena in human culture. These central groups are occupied by a people, the Polynesians. . . . It was undoubtedly a Caucasian race with predominant light hair that went down into Polynesia. . . . They were the only race in the history of the world that mastered the art of oceanic navigation in the ages of stone. . . . The Polynesians were the first and only true oceanic navigators before the invention of the mariner's compass. . . . It is often assumed that there was a Melanesian people first in Polynesia; but, though the Fijians and the Solomon Islanders make large canoes, they have never ventured far from the coasts of their own groups. . . . It was necessity that urged the Polynesians into oceanic voyaging and skill. The subsidence of their islands and the shrinking of the land on which they could live drove them far afield . . . a marked contrast to the Melanesians, who occupy archipelagoes comparatively close together and whose language is unintelligible and culture is totally different in villages a few miles apart.”—J. M. Brown, *Pacific ocean in the racial history of mankind* (*Journal of Race Development*, July, 1911).

People.—Main types.—“It is generally accepted that a Turanian speaking race originated somewhere on the borders of Europe and Asia, not far from the Caspian Sea. One branch made their way to Europe, . . . while the other branch, the Armenoide, moved south to Persia [and] across India, pushing before them the original black Dravidian Hamitic people out to Indonesia and eventually into the Pacific.”—T. R. St. Johnston, *Islanders of the Pacific*, p. 46.—These Dravidians or Melano-Indians, were of the oldest known race of India and are thought to have been closely connected with the negroids and Australian aborigines. They are supposed to have been related also to the Hamitic people of western Asia. The negroids were an undersized black aboriginal race who inhabited central and western Europe, the greater part of Asia,

west Africa and the islands of the East Indies. From them have sprung the Negritos, Papuan, or Melanesians, Malays, and Indonesians.—Based on W. A. Reed, *Negritos of Zambalos*, v. 2, pt. 1.—“There are at least three main types of people in the Pacific, and the first of these is the Negrito, now very rarely to be seen. He is a short, round-headed, frizzly-haired type, without marked eyebrow ridges, and not unduly black of skin. His nose is short and fairly straight, but broad at the nostrils and depressed at the root. He is of much the same type as the Andaman Islander, and is to be seen, though often blended with other races, in parts of the Pelew Islands, the Philippines, Papua, and as the so-called pygmies of the New Hebrides, described by Dr. Speisser. . . . The Negrito is dull and apathetic, and for this reason probably was easily exterminated by the succeeded races. The next main type is the ‘Melanesian,’ who is noted

that of a southern European. He is, even to our ideas, handsome, and he has the carriage and bearing of a race of chiefs, and the intelligence to maintain by diplomacy a mastery that he acquired by force of arms. In Fiji both Melanesian and Polynesian types are still quite distinct in the western and eastern sides respectively of the colony, . . . and the mental characteristics are equally defined.”—T. R. St. Johnston, *Islanders of the Pacific*, pp. 275-277.—See also HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Anthropology of the islands; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Origins of the American Indian; MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE; MATRIARCHATE.

Polynesian languages. See PHILOLOGY: 27.

B. C. 2500-A. D. 1500.—Early exodus to Pacific islands.—Migrations of Polynesians from India to Malay archipelago.—Spread of the race to Hawaiian islands.—“The Oceanic isles of the Pacific undoubtedly have been in remote times the



CANNIBALS OF THE NEW HEBRIDES

for his dark skin, overhanging eyebrow ridge, sunken orbits, longer nose, projecting lips, narrow and receding forehead, and generally dolichocephalic head. His face is somewhat angular, he has bushy, ‘upstanding’ hair, and can grow a good beard when he wishes. He is quick and furtive in his movements, sulky according to European ideas, but a good worker under supervision. His legs are thin and weedy, but he is wiry and not easily tired. The last of the three divisions is the Polynesian, who is brachycephalic, wavy-haired; . . . and without much hair on the face. He has high cheek-bones, which, with the hair, show the remote mongoloid ancestry, and when this is strengthened in the northern islands by more recent blendings from eastern Asia he frequently shows a just perceptible slanting of the eyelids. It is this latter blended type that is known as the ‘Micronesian.’ The lips of the Polynesian are thinner, the features more regular, and the chin better formed than in the case of the Melanesian. He is a viril, sturdy, well-formed type, and his skin is sometimes not much darker than

scene of some of the most remarkable migrations by water in the history of the world. . . . These widely separated islands have been peopled by three different peoples, the Melanesians, the Polynesians, and the Micronesians, forming two distinct divisions of mankind. . . . The Melanesians sometimes go by the name of Papuans, the Malay name for the inhabitants of New Guinea, [see NEW GUINEA] the principal home of the race, . . . and are regarded as the aborigines of Oceania. . . . The Polynesians . . . must have migrated to the Pacific Islands at much later periods than the Malays or Papuans and their sub-families. . . . They represent a branch of the Caucasian division of mankind, who at some very remote period, perhaps in the new Stone Age, migrated from the mainland of Asia. . . . Malay tribes, produced the fine Mahories of Samoa, the Sandwich Islands, and New Zealand.”—C. R. Enock, *Secret of the Pacific*, pp. 267-269.—“Great ships sailed the Pacific in the lost ages; native traditions tell of lengthy voyages of months duration, in three-masted ships with

many people, animals and household goods on board. . . . Captain Cook records a two-masted ship one hundred and eight feet long, used by the Hawaiians. . . . William Ellis found double canoes at Tahiti that were over seventy feet long. . . . There is a legend among the Indians of Vancouver, that the gods arrived there from the west in copper ships, many centuries ago. . . . The people who crossed and recrossed the Pacific in those early days were skilled navigators. . . . They had a keen instinct for astronomy, and read the stars. . . . There were wonderful sailing charts of the Marshall Islands (some of which are still extant). . . . The



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WITCH DOCTOR OF THE SOUTH SEA ISLANDS

Practically hidden by shell money contributed by his patients who are possessed of witches.

charts were skillfully made of reeds interlaced and bound together, in such a way that some of them showed the currents, and others the prevailing winds, while attached at the proper places, were small shells to mark the positions of the various islands. With these charts the Marshall islanders used to make long voyages . . . in big sailing canoes built to withstand the heaviest seas. Similar charts were known to the early Fijians. . . . That the Polynesians, especially the Tongans and Samoans made extraordinary lengthy voyages is shown by the . . . story of the journey of Ui-te-rangiora to the Antarctic seas. [Ui-te-rangiora lived about the seventh century A.D.] . . . The

first start of the movement probably took place about 2500 B.C., when the earliest invasion of north-west India by the Turanian-speaking people occurred, the impact making itself felt all along the line of the route across northern India and down the Ganges . . . and reached Java and the gates of the Pacific not later than the fifth century B.C."—T. R. St. Johnston, *Islanders of the Pacific*, pp. 40, 45, 279. The theory best meeting all facts is "the Polynesian race in pre-historic ages, dwelt in northern India, from thence they spread through farther India into the East Indian Archipelago, where they exterminated the black race, or drove them into the mountains; [and] that they were in their turn conquered, amalgamated with, or expelled by Mongoloid tribes from the mainland of Asia, then . . . they migrated into the Pacific, passing north of New Guinea, and between the New Hebrides and the Solomon Islands which were occupied by ferocious blacks. . . . The Maori branched off and went south into New Zealand, but the old time branch, the Manahume, is supposed to have gradually been absorbed with the other Polynesian as they scattered through the Pacific islands. The original inhabitants of Indonesia were the Papuans, and Melanesians. The result of the two invasions [Polynesian and Mongolian] was to leave the pre-Malay race, a mixture of Polynesian and Mongolian, called the Indonesians. Some of the Melanesians are still to be found in the interior of the larger islands of the Archipelago, but . . . there is no sufficient evidence of any Melanesian people having pre-occupied any part of the Pacific that is now inhabited by Polynesians. . . . In 300 B.C. there were several successive waves of emigrations from eastern India to the Archipelago [but] it is probable that the Polynesians left the Archipelago before this time. . . . There are but slight clues to the origin of the Malay or brown race, it is generally agreed that the ancestors of these people emigrated from northern India before it was invaded by the Aryan race."—W. D. Alexander, *Origin of the Polynesian race*, pp. 229-230.—"The earliest halting-place [of the Polynesians] was in Malaysia, where some of their kind still remain on the west coast of Sumatra, from which point they extended eastwardly . . . [settling as far north as the Hawaiian islands. Their eastern outpost was Easter island and their Australian area was Australia, New Zealand, Tasmania and the neighboring islands.] The history of the Hawaiians, or Sandwich Islanders, has been traced to the fifth century, and from this it is adduced that their departure from Malaysia or the Indian Archipelago may be put at the first or second century. Savaii, the largest of the Samoan Islands, is by tradition assigned as the Polynesian ancestral home in the East Pacific. . . . From this point the Polynesians, or the various branches of the race, must have made their way in all directions. . . . 1,400 miles to the north-west [from Savaii] takes us to Tahiti, of the French Society Islands. . . . We read that the natives of Tahiti buried their chiefs in the temples; their embalmed bodies, after being exposed, were interred in a crouching position. . . . 'Sacrificial offerings, including human sacrifices, formed a prominent part of Tahitian worship.' . . . A thousand miles or more to the north . . . of Tahiti lie the Marquesas. . . . The natives of the Marquesas are a pure Polynesian race, usually described as physically the finest of all South Sea Islanders. . . . Continuing our westward course for 1,800 miles from Tahiti, we reach the Tonga or Friendly Islands, slightly to the south of Samoa, and about 1,000 miles north of New Zealand . . . the largest of the group. . . .

Samoa, not very far to the north of Tongataba, was the principal home of the navigating Polynesian people, and Savaii, the largest island of the group. . . . They carried the name Savaii in various forms to Tahiti, Hawaii, the Marquesas, and New Zealand. . . . The Javanese Babads tell of an Indian prince who came to Java about 78 to 120 A.D., where he found a nomadic people. Chinese infiltration probably began long after 220 B.C. Arabian traders voyaged to the East Indian Archipelago long before the time of Mohammed. A mixture of Proto-Malaysians with Indonesians, whom we may call Proto-Polynesians, drifted into the West Pacific, and gave to the black, woolly-haired natives their language and some elements of higher culture, the resultant mixed people being the Melanesians. Later migrations fared farther into the Pacific, and the Samoan Islands appear to have been their first centre of dispersal within the Pacific; later Tahiti and Raratonga were starting-points for fresh discoveries. . . . The Malaysians themselves, the dominant race of the Malay Peninsula and of the Malay Archipelago, are of mysterious origin. . . . [A] generally accepted theory is that the Malayan race is distinct and came from the South, until it was stayed by the Mongolian race living on the mainland of Southern Asia."—C. R. Enock, *Secret of the Pacific*, pp. 269-270, 275-276, 279-280, 293-294, 296.—See also HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Discovery and early history.

1513-1764.—First European explorers.—Portuguese.—Spanish.—Dutch.—Drake and English buccaneers.—"Early in the sixteenth century . . . nothing was known in Europe of the Pacific ocean. The Portuguese, with their Dutch rivals in their wake, had crept eastward round the world, and had reached 'the Spice islands,' only just short of the Pacific area; and the Spaniards, travelling westward, had reached the east coast of America. What lay between the Portuguese-Dutch and the Spanish outposts no man knew. The story of the unveiling of the Pacific began on September 25, 1513, when from the peak in Darien Balboa first caught sight of what he called the Great South sea, and took formal possession of it, and all which appertained to it, for his master, the King of Spain. [See AMERICA: 1513-1517.] Seven years later, in 1520, another Spaniard, Magellan, found and sailed through a waterway into the South sea—or, as he called it, the Pacific ocean—and then crossed to the extreme western edge of that sea, where he found 'the Isles of Lazarus,' the Philippines, and there lost his life in a fight with the natives. Magellan had thus gone westward round the world all but to . . . Moluccas, which had by that time been reached by the Dutch from the east. Balboa's and Magellan's adventures were but incidents in the founding by Spain of the great empire which, during the three subsequent centuries, it held on the Pacific coast of America and, across the ocean in the Philippines. Following more or less in the track of Magellan, Mendana in 1567 discovered the Solomon islands and Quiros in 1606 discovered the northernmost of the New Hebridean islands [see NEW HEBRIDES], which he thought to be part of the supposed 'great southern continent.' . . . While Spanish influence was thus making itself felt on the American coast of the Pacific [and] in the Philippines . . . other Europeans were endeavouring . . . to look into this ocean [also]. . . . The Dutch East India Company, early in the seventeenth century, was established as far east as Java, and held from the States of the Netherlands a monopoly of Dutch trade with all countries between the Straits of Magellan and the Cape of Good Hope. . . . Le

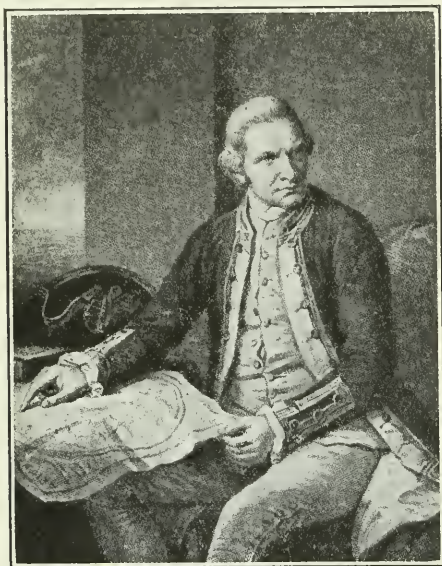
Maire and Schouten sailed in 1615, passed Magellan's strait, and further south discovered and passed through that which has since been called after Le Maire, between Tierra del Fuego and the land which these Dutchmen, mistaking it for the great southern continent, called Staten-land, in honour of the Netherland States. The Hollanders crossed the Pacific, nearly, . . . on the Spaniards' track, and eventually reached Batavia, where they were seized for infringement of the Dutch Company's monopoly. . . . Le Maire and Schouten . . . were the first discoverers of many islands, and were almost the first Europeans to have any considerable dealings with the South Sea islanders. In 1642 the Dutch East Company sent Tasman from Batavia to explore the still entirely unknown southwest Pacific. During this expedition much of the south coast of New Holland was discovered—thus first showing that the Australian land-mass did not extend to the South Pole. Tasman also discovered and named Van Diemen's Land, which he thought



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

to be part of North Holland, he discovered also New Zealand, where his people had a first meeting with the natives of the South Pacific. [See NEW ZEALAND: 1642-1814.] . . . He then passed on to . . . the Friendly or Tongan islands, and had much dealing . . . with the natives there, and got back to Batavia. . . . Meanwhile the Spaniards had greatly strengthened their position on the American shore and in the Philippine islands, and their ships periodically crossed the Pacific between these two points. It was the attraction of these treasure ships which led the first Englishman, Francis Drake, between 1578-80, to enter the Pacific. He entered by Magellan's strait, and after having been driven so far south that he probably saw 'the Horn,' [he] . . . passed up the coast . . . till he reached a point, probably on the Gulf of California, where he claimed for the English queen, a country which he called New Albion, and then struck westward across the Pacific, and so home by way of the Cape of Good Hope. . . . One very remarkable group of islands . . . was the Galapagos, . . . The Galapagos group, so called because of the giant tortoises which abounded there, consists of high volcanic islands, with an aggregate

area estimated at 2400 square miles, lying actually on the equator, quite apart from the main South Sea group, off the American shore, and only some 600 miles from the isthmus of Darien. It is uncertain when and by whom these islands were first discovered, but they are named on a map by Ortelius of about 1570, and the name seems to show that the discoverers were Spaniards. These islands were ideal havens of undisturbed and unobserved rest. So many a buccaneer . . . and storm-tossed, battle-wearied sailormen have found [them]. . . . One of these filibusters of the Galapagos, William Dampier, whose notoriety as a buccaneer—though he seems never to have played a leading part among those folk—was counterbalanced by his good repute as a hydrographer, was officially employed, and for a time did good work, on the Australian and New Guinea coasts in the scientific voyages of exploration, which began to take the place of mere voyages of adventure. Anson's fa-



CAPT. JAMES COOK

mous voyage round the world in 1740-1744, during which he effectively attacked the Spaniards along the Pacific coast, is of interest to the student of the spread of European influences in the Pacific area, if only for the incident of the wreck [therein described. Among] . . . the survivors [who were saved from the wreck of the] . . . Wager, on an island off the coast of Chile . . . was [a] Midshipman, afterwards Admiral Byron. . . . [who] eventually got back to England. . . . [He had seen] far more of the out-of-the-way parts of Spanish America of that date than any other Englishman ever did; and several of them, Byron, Gunner John Bulkeley, and Carpenter John Cummins, Lieut. Campbell, and Midshipman Isaac Morris, published narratives . . . 'affecting narratives of the dangers and distresses which befel' them. . . . [It was this midshipman, who] in 1764 . . . [as Commodore John Byron] made the celebrated voyage with the *Dolphin*; the first to go in a series of voyages to the Pacific."—E. I. Thurn, *European influence in the Pacific* (*Geographical Journal*, Apr., 1915).—See also ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: Problems of discovery.

1764-1850.—Systematic exploration of the Pa-

cific.—French expedition under Bougainville.—Captain Cook.—Russian voyages.—"We now come to that splendid series of voyages to the Pacific, . . . controlled by two of the great European Powers, which began to lay the real foundations of European influence in the Pacific as it exists to-day. First in turn of these was Commodore John Byron's voyage with the *Dolphin* and the *Tamar* (1764-6); then the English voyages of Captain Samuel Wallis, in the *Dolphin*, and Captain Philip Cartaret, in the *Swallow* (1766-9), and the almost simultaneous French voyage of Bougainville, in the frigate *La Boussole* (also 1766-9); and then Captain Cook's voyages in 1768 to his death in 1778—or perhaps till the ships got back to England in 1780. . . . Even before Wallis and Cartaret, and the French expedition under Bougainville, got back to Europe from their respective voyages of investigation, Captain James Cook began that series of voyages into the Pacific during which, between 1768 and his death, in the Sandwich islands, in 1779, he . . . explored the Pacific, everywhere except along that part of the Spanish coast which had long been under Spanish influence, . . . [and] laid the foundations on which British influence in the Pacific has since been built. Cook did not live to see his countrymen actually established in any part of the Pacific. But it is to his gathering of facts, and to the subsequent use of these facts by men whom he influenced and taught, that we owe that small settlement of New South Wales—the yeast which eventually spread not only through Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand, but thence through most, and these the most important, of the islands which serve as stepping-stones across the South Seas; and it is to other of Captain Cook's men—especially to Captain George Vancouver—that we owe the rights which eventually led to the British settlements on the Pacific coast of North America. [See also ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1519-1819; AUSTRALIA: 1601-1800; NEW ZEALAND: 1642-1814; OREGON: Early exploration.] . . . Passing to the nineteenth century, it may here be recorded, that during its first forty years or so, the sending of elaborately organized scientific expeditions to cruise through the Pacific, without much obvious purpose or result, other than the increase of knowledge, was continued by at least two European Governments. The most important English voyage of this period was that of Mathew Flinders, who as a pupil of Captain Bligh was another of Cook's men—but in the second generation, which, in that it was a practical and resultful completion of the examination of the coasts and adjoining seas of the great land which he was the first to call Australia, was of a different class. But the French Expedition under Nicolas Baudin, almost contemporaneous with that of Flinders—indeed, the two came in contact more than once—was probably never intended for other than scientific purposes, though the fact that it resulted in the placing on Freycinet's map of the name *Terre Napoléon* as part of Nova Hollandia has suggested that Baudin's instructions had political as well as scientific intention. The two French Government expeditions, in 1826-9 and 1837-40, both under Dumont D'Urville, were even more certainly purely for purposes of investigation. Three of a series of Russian expeditions to the Pacific during this period may here be mentioned. Adam John von Krusenstern, who had served in the English navy and had studied English methods of trade in the East Indies and in China, sailed in 1803, in command of the men-of-war *Nedeska* and *Neva*, the first Russian ships to circumnavigate the world,

and—at his own suggestion—paid particular attention, in passing through the Pacific, to the possibility of direct shipment in Russian vessels of furs from the languishing settlements in Alaska to the Chinese, East Indian and further markets—instead of by land from Okhotsk. This particular scheme seems to have had little or no result; but his voyages, and subsequent voyages under Krusenstern's pupils, Otto von Kotzebue and Bellingshausen, which directly resulted from his, put at his disposal the material which before he died he utilized in the publication of the magnificent atlas, with accompanying memoirs, of the geography of the Pacific as far as then known. Bellingshausen's voyage, in 1819-21 . . . is remarkable in several ways. His investigation of the Antarctic regions of the Pacific was for long surpassed in merit only by that of his predecessor, Captain Cook. He discovered many of the islands in the Tuamotu archipelago."—E. I. Thurn, *European influences in the Pacific*, pp. 310, 312-313.—See also ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1819-1838; 1839-1845.

1800-1914.—Establishment of European powers in the Pacific.—French acquisitions.—British annexation of Fiji and the beginning of British influence.—Gradual annexation of small Pacific island groups by Germany.—Convention of Samoa.—"Between 1800 and 1840, though no European government was established in the islands, a great many individuals, chiefly English, American, and French, got . . . into many . . . of these islands. These were of two very different classes. The earlier of the two were the so-called 'beachcombers,' i.e., those whom the combing wave threw on to the island beaches, mostly derelict sailors and escape prisoners from 'Botany Bay' and Norfolk island, who found refuge in the remote islands of the western half of the Pacific, where the natives were least advanced in culture; and these were followed by the missionaries, who resorted more to the eastern islands, where the natives were of much higher culture. . . . Incidentally, the difference in this contact between 'civilized' and 'savage' men in the eastern and western isles may be noted. In the eastern islands the missionary intruders, speaking generally, strove gradually to induce their more cultured hosts to join in building up a new social order in quaint imitation of European models. . . . In the western islands, the beachcombers, reaching the islands before the missionaries, and being far from anxious for the introduction of social order, broke down even the 'club-law' which had before prevailed over the backward natives, and so brought about a state of utter lawlessness and disorder which made it much more difficult for the missionaries when they did come, to gain any footing. The first definite step taken by a European Power to end this disorder by assuming control in any of the islands, was in 1842-3, when the French government, to settle the local disputes between the Protestant and Roman Catholic missions, took possession . . . of the Society islands, including Tahiti, of the Tuamotu group, the Marquesas, and other islands in the Eastern Pacific. . . . French acquisitions in the Pacific were for many years effected on a policy of supporting French missionaries, rather than of protecting the natives; whereas . . . [the] British policy [1850] was to acquire only what has seemed absolutely necessary for the protection of the natives, and only in very urgent cases anything for the advantage . . . of the European intruders, and . . . then only when it might be taken without injury to the native occupants. . . . A third European Power, . . . [which] made acquisitions in the Pacific, Ger-

many, seems to have done this without reference either to the interests of the natives or to the commercial value of the places taken, but for strategic reasons. The establishment of French authority in the Eastern Pacific, in 1842-3, and the more frequent visits to the western area of men-of-war of various nationalities, British, French, or American, not only for scientific exploration, but to 'show their flags' and to keep some sort of order in the new cosmopolitan islands, rendered the lives of the scattered . . . [European traders and settlers] somewhat safer than before. . . . By trader is here meant the man who . . . occupied himself in collecting from the natives what produce they had—tortoise shell, *beche de mer*, cocoanuts—paying for these things with European goods, and exporting what he collected by the trading ships which began to call more regularly. By the settler is meant the man who, probably having been a trader, contrived to get possession, . . . [of] 'native land,' which he cultivated with the assistance of such natives as he could . . . get to work for him. Among the traders and settlers who gradually gathered in the No-man's islands of the Pacific, were not a few individual Germans, who were first brought together under the influence of the once great Hamburg firm of Goddefroi, which later gave place to the so-called 'Deutsche Handels and Plantagen Gesellschaft der Südsee Inseln,' which for a time controlled much of the trade and claimed a very large proportion of the alienated native land in many of the islands which had not then been appropriated by any European Power. In 1853 France . . . took possession of the magnificent island of New Caledonia, . . . and used it . . . for a convict station. . . . Its use for oversea prisoners has been abandoned only within the last ten years, [although the harbour and roads of Noumea itself, were splendidly engineered by convict labour, the opportunity for thus making a great colony was missed. The most noteworthy consequence of the French acquisition of New Caledonia . . . was that from that island many French subjects . . . passed up into the New Hebrides, which were . . . outside the purview of European authorities. It was not till 1874-5 . . . that Great Britain annexed . . . any islands in the Pacific. In 1859 the Fiji islands . . . had been offered by the native chiefs, but had . . . been refused by H. B. M. Government on the ground that it was not clear that the offer was spontaneous on the part of the natives. . . . A few more years of ever-increasing disorder in Fiji followed; and then, as the only way of relieving an impossible situation, a renewed offer from the more important Fijian chiefs to cede the islands was accepted, Fiji becoming a British Crown colony in October 1874. . . . A few years after the annexation of Fiji . . . the office of High Commissioner of the Western Pacific was created (in 1877), with limited jurisdiction over British subjects (extended in 1803 to foreigners) in 'all islands in the Western Pacific not being within the limits of the colonies of Fiji, Queensland, New South Wales, or New Zealand, and not being within the jurisdiction of any civilized Power, together with full jurisdiction over British possession and protectorates.' . . . [Since] the office was instituted, a large number of islands extending over a very wide area, have . . . passed . . . under the jurisdiction of the High Commissioner. The Gilbert [Kingsmill] and Ellice islands were declared a British protectorate, in 1802 . . . [and] many of the Solomon islands were added in the following year. . . . Among many other quite small but very important additions to the British possessions in

the Pacific, may here be mentioned Fanning island . . . which was annexed in 1888 as a repeating station for the Pacific cable connecting Canada and Australia. Thus the High Commissioner of the Western Pacific and . . . Governor of Fiji—[both positions] . . . are held by the same person—has . . . authority over a very large number of islands . . . scattered over a wide area, extending from . . . Australia to Ducie islet, two-thirds of the way to America; over a British Crown Colony, of great extent, . . . which lies isolated between the great Dominions of Australia and Canada. The next important move in the partition of the Pacific was made by an entirely new player. . . . The German Empire . . . wanted a colonial policy, and before long thought it saw a chance of establishing a great dependency in and about New Guinea the greater part of which was then a veritable no-man's-land. . . . In 1884, and the few following years [to 1914], Germany declared a Protectorate over a large part of the east of New Guinea—calling this Kaiser Wilhelm's Land; over New Britain and New Ireland, which it renamed respectively Neu Pommern and Neu Mecklenburg, calling the two together the Bismarck Archipelago; and over the Marshall islands. It also claimed as within its sphere of influence several of the larger Solomon islands; and at the same time it purported to take in many less considerable scattered islands as adjuncts to these compact German holdings in the North-West Pacific. [The] development was at first entrusted to a chartered company; but . . . about 1899 the Imperial Government assumed direct control, consolidating the whole under one central government, the headquarters of which . . . was at Herbertshöhe, in the north-east of New Britain. . . . Less effort seems to have been spent on trade development, and more on converting the Bismarck Archipelago into a strong naval base. Australia, which had long tried by every means in its power to induce Great Britain to consent to the annexation of all but the Dutch part of New Guinea, was naturally moved to fresh effort at the first sign of Germany's intention to raise its flag in any part of the great island, so close to the north Australian shore; with the result that on November 6, 1874, the same year in which the German flag was hoisted in another part of the island, a British protectorate was sanctioned over the southeastern part of the island. . . . It was not till 1901 that . . . full charge was handed over to Australia. . . . In 1906, Australian New Guinea was renamed Papua. In 1897-8 Germany acquired . . . Kiau-Chau on the Chinese coast; and by working this as a naval station in connection with that other in the Bismarck Archipelago greatly strengthened her general position in the Pacific. Also . . . in October, 1899, she bought from Spain several groups of scattered islets which chanced to lie in the new German Pacific; the Carolines and, except Guam which had been ceded in 1898 to the United States, the Marianne, or Ladrone islands. . . . America's first share in the partition was when, in 1867-68, she bought Alaska from Russia, and thus gained footing in the extreme north-east of the Pacific. Next, in 1898, America, at the close of her war with Spain, took over the Philippine islands . . . and Guam, the largest of the Marianne islands. Guam has a good harbor, and is . . . a good naval station on the way to the Philippines. . . . At the same time America annexed the Hawaiian islands [or] the Sandwich islands. . . . They afford another convenient naval station on the way between America and the Philippines; and they have since been so admirably developed by their new owners as to

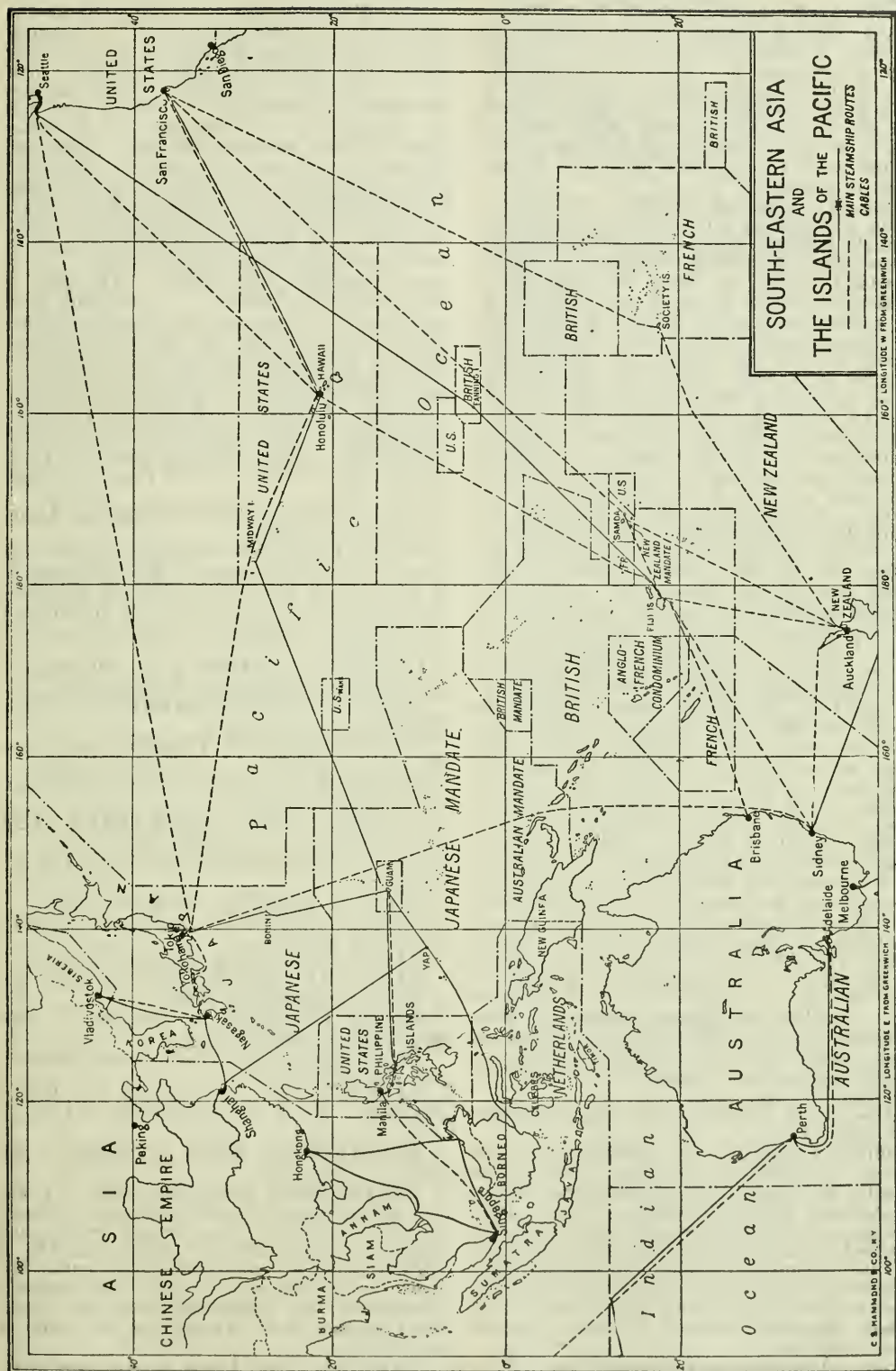
justify . . . their annexation. The story now comes to the convention of Samoa, in 1899-1900, between Great Britain, Germany, and America. The Samoan islands in the Central Pacific had . . . been in special degree cosmopolitan. The islands and their natives were very attractive to Europeans, Britishers, . . . Americans and Germans. . . . The Commissioners met in Samoa to settle . . . which of the three powers concerned . . . should prevail in these islands. . . . Germany got the Samoan islands, which were more commercially valuable, but without any good harbour; America, besides a few quite unimportant islets, got the island of Tutuila with the fine harbour of Pangopango as a naval station in the South Pacific; and Great Britain . . . secured exclusive control . . . over the Tongan group, including the splendid natural harbour of Vavao, and she also secured recognition of exclusive rights to all but two (Bougainville and Buka) of the Solomon islands. . . . After the Samoan convention, the only considerable South Sea islands still to be taken definitely within the sphere of influence . . . of the European powers, were the New Hebrides. A few British subjects, from Australia, and a few French subjects, from New Caledonia, had long before scattered themselves as pioneer settlers over the islands of this group, and a few missionaries, chiefly British, but some French Roman Catholics, had, at great risk to themselves, gained some ascendancy over the natives in certain of the islands. But the islands were still outside the pale of any civilized law. Indeed, in 1878, the British and French Governments, who were alone concerned, mutually agreed not to occupy the islands, with the natural result that disorders increased. In 1887, Australia protesting against this state of affairs, a joint commission of British and French naval officers was appointed to protect the lives and property of British and French subjects, and to maintain what order they could by means of very occasional visits by men-of-war, and in 1902 British and French Residents were appointed."—E. I. Thurn, *European influence in Pacific* (*Geographical Journal*, Apr., 1915).

1820-1842.—Growth and decline of American whaling. See COMMERCE: Commercial age: 1820-1920.

1901-1916.—Expeditions to South Pole. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1901-1909; 1910-1913; 1911-1912; 1914-1916.

ALSO IN: G. H. Scholefield, *Pacific, its past and future*.

1914-1918.—In World War.—Disposition of islands at Paris peace conference.—At the beginning of the World War Germany had colonial possessions of considerable importance in the Pacific. (See GERMANY: Former colonies.) German contact with these islands was cut off by the English control of European waters and it was necessary for allied forces to occupy these islands lest they should lend aid with their wireless and coaling stations, or supply the German warships with their own goods. The only military and naval activity of the war among the Pacific islands took place during the first three or four months of the war, while German raiders were harrying British pots in the Pacific and the Indian oceans. But the enormous superiority of the British navy soon made an end of all German vessels on Pacific waters, and New Zealand and Australian forces took possession of German Samoa, the Solomon Islands, and Kaiser Wilhelm's land, while the Japanese took the Marshall islands and the other northern groups. By November of 1914 all German pos-



sessions in the Pacific were in the hands of the Allies.

1918.—Small islands claimed by United States.—Wake island was annexed by the United States in 1898. A number of small islands were taken over in 1918, chief of which are Christmas, Gallego, Starbuck, Penrhyn, Phoenix, Palmyra, Howland, Baker, Johnston, Gardner Midway, Morell, and the Marcus islands, which makes the total area of the Pacific islands under the control of the United States, 121,000 square miles, with a population of 9,250,000.

1918-1921.—Changed economic and political status of Pacific as a result of the World War.—Anglo-Japanese Alliance and British imperial conferences.—Difficulties involved in Pacific mandates.—During the World War, there was a tremendous increase in wealth and commerce on the various shores of the Pacific. In many cases the Japanese and the Australians obtained a monopoly of trade and industry that had formerly belonged to Europe. Travel and commerce between the Occident and the Orient which formerly went by way of Suez and the near East, went by way of America and the Pacific, and this greatly contributed to the vast expansion of Japanese commerce and shipping. (See JAPAN: 1918-1921.) The result was that at the end of the war the centre of economic and political interest in the World War rapidly shifted from the Atlantic to the Pacific. During the two or three years following the war there was an epidemic of pan-Pacific congresses and commissions. At the British imperial conference in 1921 the results were of an indeterminate character. (See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921.) In the agenda was the question of the renewal of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. During the period of 1918-1921, the Japanese feeling regarding the Pacific was that they had as much right to a sovereign position on the Asiatic shores of that ocean, as the United States had on the American. The desire of the Tokio Government was to obtain for her citizens, without discrimination of caste, the most perfect opportunity possible, to develop the natural resources of China, or of the islands where her people might be, and so secure at a moderate cost, the raw materials which are necessary for her industries. At this time there was a great dearth of native laborers in both Australia and New Zealand as well as on the islands over which they had rule. The demands of the former for a mandate over New Guinea (see NEW ZEALAND: 1916-1921), and of the latter for a mandate over Samoa brought both these dominions in conflict with this policy of Japan, and both countries objected most strenuously to any Asiatic immigrations.—Based on J. E. Baker, *British empire*, p. 455.

ALSO IN: M. Shidehara, *Frank official statement for Japan*, p. 395.

1919-1921.—Treaty of Versailles.—By the Treaty of Versailles, the islands south of the equator were placed under the mandatory control of Australia, with the exception of Samoa, which was given to New Zealand, and Nauru which was retained for the British empire. The islands north of the equator, including the Marshall, Pelew, Caroline, and Ladrone groups were placed under the mandate of Japan, with the exception of Yap whose disposition remained a source of controversy until 1921.

1921.—Limitation of armaments. See U.S.A.: 1921 (July-August); WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

1921.—Treaty concerning Yap and mandated

north Pacific islands. See YAP; NEW ZEALAND: 1916-1921.

1922.—Disappearance of primitive races.—"It has been one of the puzzles of . . . thoughtful men—this evanescence of primitive people. Civilization enters into their midst and they vanish by more or less slow degrees. . . . Mild diseases like measles or chicken pox . . . mowed down half the population of the Polynesian or Melanesian group. . . . But epidemics had their course and left the survivors, and yet the people of the Pacific ocean continued to melt away. . . . A Maori who knew that his death was due or predicted, would . . . promptly die. It was suicidal power of the imagination and doubtless found the real basis of sorcery in all the groups of the Pacific. . . . It is more imagination than truth. . . . The heart is gone and the race vanishes. . . . [But with those people who have kept up with modern inventions and education] as the case of the Maoris, the arrest of their racial decay is almost coeval with their complete familiarity with these [wonders of steam and electricity]. . . . If our paternal government and our missionaries mean to save the primitive people, . . . they must recognize the law of struggle and work as the only panacea."—J. M. Brown, *Aboriginal decay in the Pacific ocean*, pp. 277-278, 284.

1923.—Earthquake and tidal wave in Japan. See TOKIO; YOKOHAMA.

ALSO IN: J. M. Brown, *Pacific ocean in the racial history of mankind* (*Journal of Race Development*, v. 2, 1921).—D. Hannay, *Sea power in the Pacific* (*Edinburgh Review*, July, 1921).—N. Golovin and A. D. Bubnor, *Problem of the Pacific in the twentieth century*.

PACIFIC QUESTION. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE ON LIMITATION OF ARMAMENTS.

PACIFICATION OF GHENT (1576). See NETHERLANDS: 1575-1577.

PACIFICATION OF VIENNA (1606). See HUNGARY: 1606-1660.

PACIFISM. See PEACE MOVEMENT: Outbreak of the World War.

PACKERS AND STOCKYARDS ACT (1921). See FOOD REGULATION: 1921-1922.

PACKING INDUSTRY, Rise of. See U.S.A.: 1865-1872.

PACT OF HALEPA. See TURKEY: 1896.

PACT OF LONDON (1915). See LONDON. TREATY OR PACT OF.

PACTA CONVENTA. See POLAND: 1573.

PACTO DE BIAC-NA-BATO (1897). See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1896-1898.

PACTOLUS, Battle of (395 B.C.). See GREECE: B.C. 399-387.

PACTYES, ancient tribe of eastern Afghanistan. See ARACHOTI.

PACUVIUS (c. 220-c. 130 B.C.), Roman dramatist. See LATIN LITERATURE: B.C. 234-103.

PADELFORD'S CASE (1869-1870). See U.S.A.: 1860-1872.

PADEREWSKI, Ignace Jan (1860-), Polish pianist, composer and statesman. Produced his opera "Manru" 1901; became premier and minister of foreign affairs of the new republic of Poland, January, 1919; retired from public life, 1920. See POLAND: 1918; 1919; 1920: Paderewski's acquiescence, etc.; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Course of discussion.

PADILLA, Juan Lopez de (c. 1484-1521), Spanish nobleman. Commander of the rebel army of Toledo, 1521. See SPAIN: 1518-1522.

PADISHAH, Turkish form of the Persian title, *padshah*, "lord king." Originally applied to the shahs of Persia in the East, it was also used in connection with the Tatar emperors of Delhi. The natives of India refer to the British sovereign by this title. In Europe it is used to designate the sultan of Turkey. See **BEY**; **CRAL**.

PADLOCK LAW (1910). See **SPAIN**: 1910-1914.

PADRI, Mohammedan sect of Sumatra. See **WAHHABIS**.

PADUA, city of northern Italy, near Venice, important in the history of art and learning. It was under Venetian rule from 1405 to 1797, and then under Austrian domination until 1866, when it became part of the Italian kingdom.

Origin. See **VENETI OF CISALPINE GAUL**.

452.—Destruction by Huns. See **HUNS**: 452; **VENICE**: 452.

11th-12th centuries.—Struggle for republican independence. See **ITALY**: 1056-1152.

1236-1259.—Tyranny of Eccelino de Romano. —Crusade against him.—Capture and pillage of city by its deliverers. See **VERONA**: 1236-1259.

1328-1338.—Submission to Grande della Scala. —Recovery from his successor.—Founding of sovereignty of Carrara family. See **VERONA**: 1260-1338.

1356-1359.—War against Great Company. See **ITALY**: 1343-1393.

1388.—Yielded to Visconti of Milan. See **MILAN**: 1277-1447.

1402.—Struggle of Francesco Carrara with Visconti of Milan. See **MILAN**: 1277-1447; **FLORANCE**: 1390-1402.

1405.—Added to dominion of Venice. See **ITALY**: 1402-1406; **VENICE**: 1406-1447.

1509-1513.—In War of League of Cambrai.—Siege by Emperor Maximilian. See **ITALY**: 1510-1513.

1918.—Bombed by Germans. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918; **VIII**. Aviation.

PADUA, Declaration of.—"The flight to Varennes proved to the people of France, as well as to the monarchs and statesmen of Europe, that Louis XVI. was a prisoner in Paris, and an enemy to the new settlement of the government, as laid down by the Constitution in course of preparation. The Emperor Leopold, as brother of Marie Antoinette, as Holy Roman Emperor and supporter of dynastic legitimacy, as the leading monarch of Europe, decided to intervene. On 6th July 1791 he issued the [declaration known as the] Manifesto of Padua, in which he invited the sovereigns of Europe to join him in declaring the cause of the King of France to be their own, in exacting that he should be freed from all popular restraint, and in refusing to recognise any constitutional laws as legitimately established in France, except such as might be sanctioned by the King acting in perfect freedom. The English Government paid little or no attention to these requests of Leopold, but the Empress Catherine, and the Kings of Prussia, Spain, and Sweden, for different reasons and in different degrees, heartily accepted Leopold's views, and armed intervention to carry them into effect was suggested. But Leopold had no desire for war. His policy since his accession had been distinctly in favour of peace. He was a diplomatist, not a soldier, and he desired to frighten France by threats, rather than to fight France for the liberty of Louis XVI. and his family. The sequel to the Manifesto of Padua was a conference at Pilnitz between the Emperor Leopold and King Frederick William II. of Prussia, accompanied by their minis-

ters, in August 1791."—H. M. Stephens, *Revolutionary Europe*. pp. 102-103.

PADUA UNIVERSITY. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**: 890-1345: Other universities; 1231-1339; **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Medieval: 12th-15th centuries.

PADUAN SCHOOL OF PAINTING. See **PAINTING**: Italian: Early Renaissance.

PADUCAH, city in Kentucky, at the junction of the Tennessee and Ohio rivers. It was entered by the Confederates under Forrest in 1864. See **U.S.A.**: 1864 (April: Tennessee).

PADUS, name by which the river Po was known to the Romans. Dividing Cisalpine Gaul, as the river did, into two parts, they called the northern part Transpadane and the southern part Cispadane Gaul.

PÆANS.—"The pæans [among the ancient Greeks] were songs of which the tune and words expressed courage and confidence. 'All sounds of lamentation,' . . . says Callimachus, 'cease when the Ie Pæan, Ie Pæan, is heard.' . . . Pæans were sung, not only when there was a hope of being able, by the help of the gods, to overcome a great and imminent danger, but when the danger was happily past; they were songs of hope and confidence as well as of thanksgiving for victory and safety."—K. O. Müller, *History of the literature of ancient Greece*, v. 1, p. 27.

PÆONIANS.—"The Pæonians, a numerous and much-divided race, seemingly neither Thracian nor Macedonian nor Illyrian, but professing to be descended from the Teukri of Troy, . . . occupied both banks of the Strymon, from the neighbourhood of Mount Skomius, in which that river rises, down to the lake near its mouth."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 25.

PAES, Sidonio (d. 1918), Portuguese soldier and statesman. One of the leaders of the revolution of 1917; president and minister for war and foreign affairs, April-December, 1918. See **PORTUGAL**: 1915-1920; 1919.

PAEZ, José Antonio (1790-1873), Venezuelan soldier and statesman. Fought in the War of Independence against Spain, 1810-1829; president of the republic, 1830-1834, 1839-1843; dictator, 1846; minister to the United States, 1860; dictator, 1861-1863. See **VENEZUELA**: 1829-1886; **COLOMBIA**: 1819-1830.

PAGAN, town in Burma, about 92 miles south-west of Mandalay. During the Middle Ages it was the seat of the Burmese kings. See **BURMA**: Early history.

PAGAN PRIESTHOOD. See **PRIESTHOOD**: Pagan.

PAGANISM: Definition and origin of term.—"The Old Testament employs the word *goyim* ('peoples,' 'nations'; E. V. 'Gentiles,' 'heathen,' 'nations') as a designation of all peoples other than the chosen one, and uses it in a religious sense. Other nations of antiquity had similar designations for peoples of other faiths, but these had only ethnic or national significance, such as the *barbaroi* of the Greeks, or the *airya* or *arya* by which Indians and Iranians distinguished themselves from others. A name for other peoples founded upon religious differences alone is peculiar to the Jews. The usage of the Old Testament passed over into the New Testament and into the Latin and Gothic versions, where *ethnē*, *gentes*, *thiedos* were employed to designate the followers of false religions. In later Latin usage the word *paganus* ('pagan') came to be applied to those who retained the old faith as distinct from the Christian majority, though the original sense of

the word may have been simply 'civilian' as opposed to 'military,' and it had later the meaning 'rustic' or 'countryman' (cf. Gothic *hailþus*). In Germany since the war of Luther the term *Heide* ('heathen') has been much used to name all religions except Judaism and Christianity. These two religions are historically connected, and are regarded as the true religions or religions of revelation. As a rule, Islam is now also admitted to the category of religions of revelation, but is still regarded as false."—*New Schaff-Herzog encyclopedia of religious knowledge*, v. 5, pp. 178.—The most usual application of the term is to the religion of the Greeks and Romans.

Heroes and gods in Greek religion.—"It was in the worship of heroes especially that the variations of religious sentiment found opportunity for development, and led to singular results. The heroes are not, as was long believed, human beings defied; they are of the same origin as the gods. In nearly every case one finds a god and a hero answering to the same allegory, and representing, under two distinct figures, a single phenomenon, a single star, a single meteor. The hero is thus the double of a divinity, the pale reflection, a sort of parhelion, of the effulgence of a major deity. True it is, that in comparing the legend of the god with that of the hero, one commonly finds the latter to be far more copious. But the cause of this difference is quite simple. The hero, being regarded as a man, and, in accordance with popular opinion, having left traces of his existence here below, necessarily obtained a greater vogue, and made more of an appeal to the sentiments of the crowd; just as the saints, in the less enlightened parts of Christendom, occupy a much more important place than God himself, precisely because, being inferior, they are not separated from mortals by so insuperable a distance. It was above all at the time when people affected to derive moral instruction from the pagan religion that the heroes gained in importance and popularity. It cannot be denied that they actually lent themselves far better than the gods to that kind of teaching. The adventures in which their valor, subjected to severe tests, was seen at times to yield, only to reassert itself, were set forth by the poets as models of resignation and courage. Hercules in particular was made use of in this way by those whom one might call the preachers of paganism. Hercules, according to a very probable hypothesis which the demonstrations of M. Maury raise to the level of certitude, was an ancient divinity of the air (*Hera-cles*) whose cult, in the hands of the warlike race of the Dorians, took on an altogether heroic character which was transformed, under the influence of the poets and philosophers, into a moral allegory pure and simple. This demi-god, arising like all the other Hellenic types of divinity from a personification of the elements, but rendered singularly uncouth through confusion with the Tyrian Melkarth, finally became the ideal of human perfection—a kind of saint who was furnished with an edifying biography, in connection with whom an attempt was made to awaken in men's souls a sense of duty."—E. Renan, *Paganism* (L. Cooper, ed., *Greek genius and its influence*, pp. 264-265).—See also MYTHOLOGY: Grecian; RELIGION: B. C. 2600-A. D. 30.

Conflict with Christianity. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Need in the Roman empire, etc.

Revival in Rome. See ROME: Empire: 361-363.

Suppression in Roman empire. See ROME: Empire: 391-395.

Revival of paganism during Renaissance.—"To a considerable extent the Renaissance was also a rebirth of pagan sensuality. Some of its devotees drew from their study of the classic authors excuse for a careless life of selfish ease untrammelled and untroubled by any thought of a future world. The unbridled passions of others moved in strange orbits and gave to the life of the time a deadly iridescence. Yet the revival of the individual conscience had produced a greater sensitiveness in distinguishing between right and wrong. It was this revival of conscience that in a large measure directed progress and impelled humanity upon its way. The paganism of the Renaissance was only an ephemeral thing. It would be incorrect to think that it was the study of Greek and Roman life that gave to the Italians their pagan attitude towards life. Nothing could be further from the truth. It was the innate sense of reality of the Italians that led them to govern their lives so largely by their senses, a sense that had been emancipated by the revival of individuality, that gave to them the pagan conception of life. When they read the classic authors they were at first surprised and then delighted to find men who like themselves were bent upon enjoying to the full the pleasures of the present life. The resuscitation of the paganism of antiquity was merely a confirmation of their own. The paganism of the Italians, then, was in large part a matter of temperament; but it was also something of an intellectual epidemic, a youthful exuberance, a reaction against the trammels from which they had but recently become emancipated. Eventually they discovered that 'a system which sacrificed what was inward' could not satisfy them; and profound as was the indebtedness of the Renaissance to the new paganism, much of the finest work of the era was accomplished when 'the glow of medieval faith' inspired it. Michelangelo's greatness, for instance, was due to the fact that his genius was 'spiritualized by the reverie of the Middle Age, penetrated by its spirit of inwardness and introspection,' that he lived 'not a mere outward life like the Greek, but a life full of inward experiences, sorrows, and consolations.' So, in the later Renaissance, did the Hellenistic and medieval ideals tend to mix and mingle, to become concurrent and concomitant forces."—E. M. Hulme, *Renaissance, the Protestant revolution and the Catholic reformation in continental Europe*, pp. 149-150, 94-95.—See also MYTHOLOGY: Germanic: Sources of knowledge; NEOPLATONISM.

ALSO IN: J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy*, pt. 3, ch. 1.—H. O. Taylor *Ancient ideals*, v. 2, ch. 16, 25-26.—H. F. Stewart, *Thoughts and ideas of the period* (*Cambridge medieval history*, v. 1, ch. 20).

PAGE, Thomas Nelson (1853-1922), American author and diplomat. Ambassador to Italy, 1913-1919.

PAGE, Walter Hines (1855-1918), American diplomat. Editor of numerous periodicals including the *Forum*, *Atlantic Monthly*, and *World's Work*, as well as several newspapers, 1880-1913; ambassador to Great Britain, 1913-1918.—See also BELGIUM: 1914-1918: National distress.

PAGE. See CHIVALRY.

PAGO PAGO, or Pango-Pango, harbor in Samoa. Pago Pago recognized the right of the United States to use the bay as a naval station in 1839. In 1872, Commander R. W. Meade, made an unauthorized treaty establishing this right but it was not until the confirmation of the Evarts-Mamea Treaty of 1878 that that right was offi-

cially established. By the Berlin General Act, (1899) the United States gained exclusive rights to Tutuila. When the Samoan kingdom was partitioned, the United States assumed control east of longitude 171 west. Since then a station ship has been kept at Pago Pago.—See also SAMOA.

PAGODA. See ARCHITECTURE: China; CHINA: Religions of the people, etc.; TEMPLES: Stage of culture, etc.

PAGUS, family, tribe, or community, in ancient Rome and Gaul. See GENS; GAUL: Civilization; HUNDRED.

PAH UTES, North American Indian tribe. See SHOSHONEAN FAMILY.

PAHLAVI (Pehlevi), ancient Persian language. See PHILOLOGY: 14.

PAHOJAS, North American Indian tribe. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

PAIDONOMUS, title of an officer charged with the general supervision of the education and discipline of the young in ancient Sparta.

PAINE, John Knowles (1839-1906), American composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1774-1908.

PAINE, Robert Treat (1731-1814), American patriot. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration, etc.

PAINE, Thomas (1737-1809), English political and philosophical writer. Came to America in 1774; published a pamphlet entitled "Common Sense" in which he advocated American independence from the mother country; joined the Continental army and served as aide-de-camp with General Greene; during that time he published the first of a series of pamphlets called *The Crisis*; returned to Europe, 1787; elected deputy to the French convention, and held his seat until the fall of the Girondists in 1793, imprisoned for ten months, barely escaping execution. After his release published his "Age of Reason"; restored to his seat in the Convention and served until 1795; returned to America, 1802.—See also DEISM: American deists; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1780-1830; STATE, DEPARTMENT OF, UNITED STATES: 1774-1789; U.S.A.: 1776 (January-June): King George's war measures.

PAINE LUMBER COMPANY VS. NEAL. See SUPREME COURT: 1917.

PAINE SCHOOL OF MUSIC. See MUSIC: Modern: 1774-1908.

PAINLEVÉ, Paul (1863-), French mathematician and statesman. Professor of mathematics at the University of Paris, 1903-1915; became minister of public instruction and inventions, October, 1915; minister of war and later premier, 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: d; II. Western front: b, 3; FRANCE: 1917 (September-November).

PAINS AND PENALTIES, Bill of (1820). See ENGLAND: 1820-1827.

PAINTED CHAMBER, room in Westminster palace, London. See WESTMINSTER PALACE.

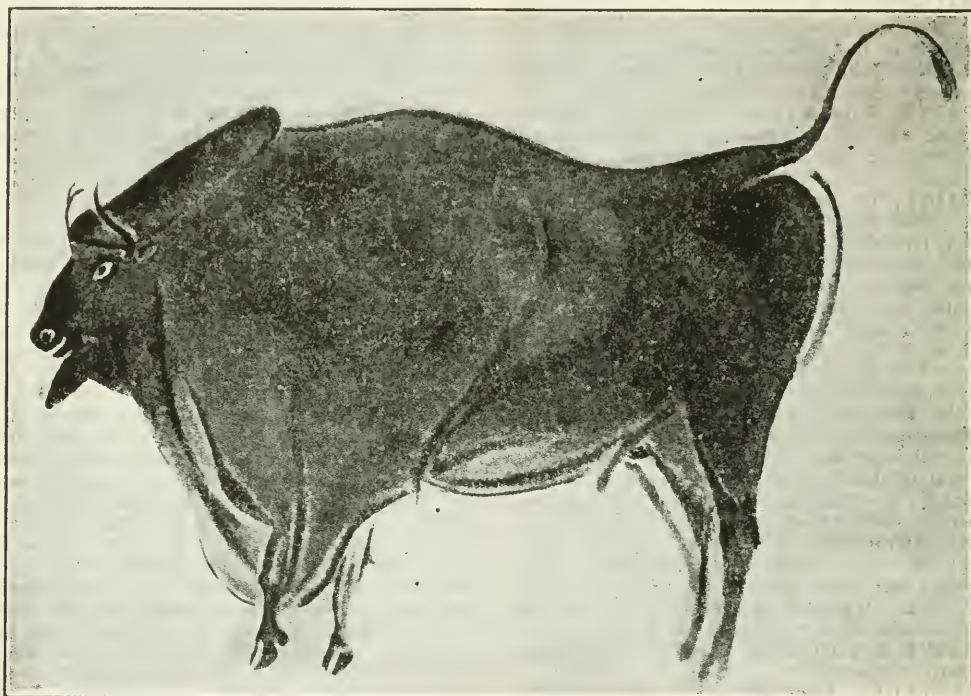
PAINTING: Meaning.—Progress.—"Painting," says Delacroix . . . 'is an art in which we use the picture of a reality as a bridge to something beyond it.' Or we might say, if we were 'realists,' to a greater enjoyment of the thing we represent. This art of painting as it has come to us through ages means something so vast that we might take it in a way as the report of the eye on all that there is. . . . And as all is memory, so this report of the eye applies to what we imagine as well as to what we see with others. For our imagination . . . is an arrangement of our memories—just as our sight is. We see through our memory. . . . Therefore, by the by, we see

the fallacy of the well-meaning artists—let us quote Courbet—who would not paint goddesses, or angels, or ideal landscapes, because they had not seen them. But for others the painting of goddesses and so forth was and is just as well a rendering of what has been seen. So that to-day a survey of this art, of what it has done and how it has done it, would run from, let us say, the vase-paintings of the Greeks and the black-and-white of China to frescoes,—mediæval or of the new Italian path,—to discoveries of methods,—such as that of oils,—to the Titians and the Rubenses; and finally, through the conquests of light and air in what we have called *chiaro-oscuro*, to the use of the vision of the open eye, as Sir Joshua called it, or the record of continuous successive different facts brought together; over beautiful surfaces, soothing to the eye, or over the polished hardness of Gérôme and similar. And in this last century, with the accomplishment, the influence, the mastering direction of the photograph, and finally the application of methods more or less derived from the scientists to the use of pigments, as representing light, we could close with our last developments,—the wild arrangements of impressionist color."—J. La Farge, *On painting* (*New England Magazine*, 1908, pp. 230-232).—Very important in the development of painting have been the mediums used. "Oil painting, from the great range and scope which it affords the painter, and the infinite variety of effects he is able to produce by the means at his command, has for long been the favorite of almost all artists, and by far the largest number of important paintings which have been executed since the discovery of this method have been carried out in it. [Prior to the fifteenth century, fresco and tempera were the favorite mediums. Tempera, or distemper, colors] . . . employed by the ancients appear to have been earths or oxides mixed with gum or glue instead of oils. . . . Towards the close of the middle ages, the Italians discovered that by using albumen, or white of egg, instead of size, as a means of union between the particles of color, they obtained a better substance for tempera painting, and one less liable to be affected by damp. . . . Paintings in this medium, however, dry too quickly for any elaborate working-up, and require some sort of varnish to protect them. . . . The term fresco—an Italian word, signifying fresh—has been given to paintings made upon plaster still wet or fresh. . . . The ground painted on is the last layer of plaster, which is laid on just before the artist begins his work. He first transfers the exact outlines of his composition to the wet smooth surface by pricking them through transfer paper. . . . The actual painting has to be done very rapidly, and the greatest skill and decision are necessary, as no subsequent alteration can be made. . . . The true fresco is distinguished by a singularly luminous quality of color. . . . Another process employed by the ancients for mural painting was that called encaustic, in which wax melted by heat appears to have been the chief ingredient for fixing and melting the colors."—N. D'Anvers, *Elementary history of art*, pp. 298-302.—Other methods are pastel and water color. The last has been the especial field of Asiatic painters. Water-colors are usually applied to paper, parchment, or ivory. Wood or "panel" was the favorite basis of the worker in distemper, and was formerly used for oils, but has been replaced by canvas.

Pre-classical styles.—"Painting, with several of its sisters, seems to have appeared and disappeared in very early times only to reappear among other peoples at distant places. . . . One of the most

astonishing discoveries of recent times was made in the caves of Altamira in northern Spain. Reputable archaeologists believe that a people known as Aurignacians produced the paintings found on the walls of these caves. [The subjects are animals, usually in motion.] The bold spirit, technical skill, and general excellence of the execution of these prehistoric works might well stagger the pride of some of our modern painters. If the painting was done, as it is believed, in the paleolithic age of Europe [see EUROPE: Prehistoric period: Palolithic art, etc.], it must be in the neighbourhood of thirty thousand years old. . . . In historic times, painting has been traced back many centuries before our era. Pliny says that the Egyptians claim to have invented this art at least six thousand years before it passed into

which they seem to have understood. As draughtsmen, they were successful in contours and in the seizing of variety, especially that which indicated racial differences; and besides, they drew birds with remarkable cleverness. The few caricatures which survive make it plain that the Egyptians had a sense of humour. Composition and foreshortening were unknown. . . . In the early centuries, the Egyptians employed painting chiefly to illustrate events; but the motif changed as their art intermingled with that of Assyria and Judea. . . . In some of their very earliest work the Assyrians achieved the indefinable charm of a style all their own. Jewish art concerned itself principally with richer materials on which to use, for the most part, its borrowed designs."—R. H. Bell, *Philosophy of painting*, pp. 38-39, 49-56.



THE BISON, POLYCHROME PAINTING OF THE OLD STONE AGE

Reduced facsimile of painting found on the wall in the Cave of Altamira, Spain
(Reproduction of the original by Abbé Breuil)

Greece. He adds: 'Their vanity and lying are well known.' Nevertheless, their earliest tombs, temples, mummies, monuments, and papyri bear clear evidence of the art, which, it is true, never developed to any worthy degree. Sculpture and architecture were dominant. Painting was employed principally to adorn with colour their hieroglyphics, outlines, and bas-reliefs; and that use of the art was continued in the ornamentation of their later statues, columns, and architecture. Pigments were laid on in flat masses; and it is generally agreed among students that the Egyptian painters never blended their colours [numerous examples still extant are remarkably bright and pure in color]. . . . There was virtually no progression in their art. . . . If they had any real notion of perspective, or any idea of the spirited imitation of Nature, it was smothered by conventionalities prescribed by the priesthood, a caste which dominated art. . . . The artists did, however, have distinct conceptions of colour harmony, the laws of

Greek.—Sources.—Great epoch, from Cimon to Alexander.—Alexandrian period.—Decline.—“For the history of Greek painting we have to rely upon the words of Aristotle, Plutarch, Pliny, Quintilian, Lucian, Cicero, Pausanias. Their accounts appear to be partly substantiated by the vase paintings, and such few slabs and Roman frescoes as remain to us. There is no consecutive narrative. . . . The earliest settlers of Greece probably learned painting from the Phœnicians, and employed it, after the Egyptian, Assyrian, and Phœnician manner, on pottery, terra-cotta slabs, and rude sculpture. It developed slower than sculpture perhaps; but were there anything of importance left to judge from, we should probably find that it developed in much the same manner as sculpture. Down to 500 B. C. [see also ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities: Cretan area; B. C. 1600-1200], there was little more than outline filled in with flat monochromatic paint and with a decorative effect similar, perhaps, to that of the vase

paintings."—J. C. Van Dyke, *Textbook of history of painting*, p. 25.—"Few Greek paintings remain to corroborate ancient criticism; . . . on the other hand, the works of ancient writers contain abundant historical information on the subject. . . . Painting was in an apparently advanced state in Asia Minor and in Magna Græcia long before it made any progress in Greece itself. . . . Homer does not mention painting as an imitative art, nor is there in Greek theogony, or hero-worship, any god or hero, or an individual of any kind, who represents the class of painters. . . . Cimon of Cleonæ . . . may perhaps be considered the earliest Greek artist worthy of the name of a painter. He was probably not earlier than Solon, with whom he may have been contemporary. [He] . . . is recorded as the inventor of foreshortenings, or the first to make oblique views of the figure, which the Greeks, according to Pliny, termed 'Catagrapha.' He also first made muscular articulations, indicated the veins, and gave natural folds to draperies."—R. N. Wornum, *Epochs of painting*, ch. 1.—"The great epoch of Grecian painting began at the time of Cimon [460 B.C.] and continued to that of Alexander [323 B.C.]. Polygnotus of Thasos, first to achieve great renown, went to live at Athens somewhere about the time of 460 B.C. He and his contemporaries established painting as a fine art in all its essentials. They handled colouring and form with power and understanding, and rendered character with facility. . . . Then came Apollodorus, Zeuxis, Parrhasius, Eupompus, Timanthes, and others, who enlivened and embellished the broad or generic style of their predecessors in the previous generation. [Athens and Sicyon were the great seats of art at this time.] The dramatic element was introduced in composition; form was enriched with local colour and colour with tone; character was accentuated, and objects were rendered more intelligible by a judicious treatment of local colour with regard to the accidental peculiarities of their appearance. The Alexandrian period was principally devoted to refinement. It merely added, as Wornum says, 'variety of method and effect to the already perfect art of the preceding age.' Among the great Alexandrian masters . . . were Apelles, Pamphilus, Protogenes, Euphranor, Nicias, Nicomachus, Aristides, Pausias. . . . The tendency was more and more in the direction of technical excellence which too often degenerated into mannerism. The higher and nobler qualities of the art were slowly sacrificed for petty effects; method and form engaged the attention of the masters rather more than essence and ideal. . . . Even those who decry Greek painting admit that the Greeks had had a wonderful play of pictorial fancy, a fine perception of light and shade and of colour-harmony. It is conceded by all that they excelled in exquisite draughtsmanship and rhythm of line; that for action, beauty, and skillful arrangement in composition, they have never been equalled; that they had a wide range of subject,—were masters of fresco-technic in wall-painting, and of tempera technic for panels. . . . And since the Greeks achieved a splendour in architecture, sculpture, and literature unequalled at any other time in the history of civilization, it is not likely that they failed in painting, especially when we note the symmetry and balance shown in the decorative work on vases, etc., admittedly executed by inferior artists."—R. H. Bell, *Philosophy of painting*, pp. 71-72, 98-99.—See also EDUCATION, ART: Greece.

Roman.—Frescoes.—Rome was more distinguished for its collections than for its artists; there

was not a single painter of great name, though many Greek artists were assembled at Rome. The destruction of Corinth by Mummius, 146 B.C. [see GREECE: B. C. 280-146], was in the first respect a greater event for Rome, for from that time forth, for two or three centuries, Rome almost drained the ancient world of its works of art. . . . The paintings of Pompeii and Herculaneum have incontestably tended rather to lower the reputation of the ancient painters than otherwise, in the estimation of the world generally, though the competent judge will find, upon a judicious examination, the confirmation of ancient criticism in these remains; for they contain many great beauties, especially in composition, though they are evidently the works of the inferior artists of an inferior age. To judge, however, of the ancient masterpieces of art from such specimens, is tantamount to estimating the great works of modern ages by the ordinary patterns on common crockery and French paper-hangings."—R. N. Wornum, *Epochs of painting*, ch. 2.—"The painting of the Roman period is known to us in the numerous frescoes at Pompeii, as well as in the stucco decorations of the walls of houses and tombs in Rome and in the provinces. We also possess the first essays of Christian pictorial art, executed in the catacombs from the second to the fourth century. . . . Roman painting was not in any sense a mere continuation of Hellenic painting. Here, again, side by side with Greek works, easily recognisable by the vigour of the drawing and the more or less deliberate imitation of bas-reliefs, we find from the middle of the first century, manifestations of an original style, especially at Pompeii. This style is not unlike that of the modern Impressionists; it is characterized by the use of patches of light and colour, sometimes producing the most charming effect. Certain mural decorations at Pompeii executed in this style, have not been surpassed in our own times. Did it originate in Rome or in Alexandria? It is difficult to say; but it is certain that it flourished in Italy, and that no examples of it have survived elsewhere. There is wonderful specimen in Rome itself, the *Eros with a Ladder*, of the Casino Rospigliosi, a fresco so free in execution that it might easily be attributed to Fragonard. Thus we see that the accepted idea of Roman art as a long and monotonous decadence is as contrary to fact as to historic laws. Wholly incontestable, however, is the retrogressive evolution of Hellenic art and classic tradition, which was modified by the inter-mixture of Oriental elements in Asia, though it still clung to antique types and formulae, and was finally merged in Byzantine art. But side by side with this obsolescent art sprang up, as early as the first century after Christ, a realism which may fitly be called Roman, since its masterpieces were produced in Rome, a realism which seems to have had its root in Italian soil. Throughout the Middle Ages the two opposing principles were arrayed against each other. Byzantine art lowered for a long time over the western countries like a nightmare; but the day came when Italian realism, brought into touch with the French realism of the fourteenth century, triumphed, and the Renaissance was the result. At the present day, Byzantine art still prevails in Greece, Turkey, and Russia, the ancient religious domain of Byzantium, while the western nations have a wholly different art akin to the realism of the Romans."—S. Reinach, *Apollo*, pp. 93-94.

Early Christian and Byzantine art.—"The Hellenistic faith was a worship of nature, a glorification of humanity, and exaltation of physical

and moral perfections. It dealt with the material and the tangible, and Greek art appealed directly to the sensuous and earthly nature of mankind. The Hebraic faith or Christianity was just the opposite of this. It decried the human, the flesh, and the worldly. . . . In art the fine athletic figure, or, for that matter, any figure, was an abomination. The early Church fathers opposed it. It was forbidden by the Mosaic decalogue and savored of idolatry. But what should take its place in art? How could the new Christian ideas be expressed without form? Symbolism came in, but it was insufficient. A party in the Church rose up in favor of more direct representation. Art should be used as an engine of the Church to teach the Bible to those who could not read. This argument held good, and notwithstanding the opposition of the Iconoclastic party painting grew in favor. It lent itself to teaching and came under ecclesiastical domination. As it left the nature of the classic world and loosened its grasp on things tangible it became feeble and decrepit in its form. While it grew in sentiment and religious fervor it lost in bodily vigor and technical ability. For many centuries the religious motive held strong, and art was the servant of the Church. It taught the Bible truth, but it also embellished and adorned the interiors of the churches. All the frescos, mosaics, and altar-pieces had a decorative motive in their coloring and setting. The church building was a house of refuge for the oppressed, and it was made attractive not only in its lines and proportions but in its ornamentation. . . . Technically the work begins to decline from the beginning in proportion as painting was removed from the knowledge of the ancient world. . . . The color was rich and the mechanical workmanship fair for the time, but the figure had become paralytic. It shrouded itself in a sack-like brocaded gown, had no feet at times, and instead of standing on the ground hung in the air. Facial expression ran to contorted features, holiness became moroseness, and sadness sulkiness. The flesh was brown, the shadows green-tinted, giving an unhealthy look to the faces. Add to this the gold ground (a Persian inheritance), the gilded high lights, the absence of perspective, and the composing of groups so that the figures looked piled one upon another instead of receding, and we have the style of painting that prevailed in Byzantium and Italy from about the ninth to the thirteenth century."—J. C. Van Dyke, *Textbook of the history of painting*, pp. 38-41.—See also BYZANTINE EMPIRE: Part in history; EDUCATION, ART: Roman and early Christian.—"Though painters were doubtless in considerable numbers throughout the whole of the middle ages, the illuminations in MSS. constitute the principal . . . remains of actual painting of the period. . . . The great period for manuscript illuminations in the West was apparently the age of Charlemagne, who, as well as his grandson, Charles the Bald, was a great patron of such works of taste. . . . The Anglo-Saxons were long among the best illuminators; and the Irish also were distinguished for their excellence in this department of art."—R. N. Wornum, *Epochs in painting*.

See also EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance.

Italian: Early Renaissance.—Cimabue, Duccio, Giotto.—Great schools of the fifteenth century.—"Giovanni Cimabue, born at Florence in 1240, ends the long Byzantine succession in Italy [see ART: Relation of art and history], which had continued uninterrupted from the time of

Constantine until the thirteenth century. In him, 'the spirit of the years to come' is decidedly manifest; but he never entirely succeeded in casting off the hereditary Byzantine asceticism, although, in his later years, he attained to much greater freedom of drawing, even, in some of his works, to something like a natural expression. Whether this was owing to the influence of his great pupil Giotto, or whether he himself had a dawning perception that nature was more likely to be right than tradition, it is difficult to say: but at all events, the progress in his art is so distinct, that most writers place him at the beginning of the new epoch, and Vasari extols him as having given 'the first light to the art of painting.' So much praise has indeed been accorded to Cimabue, and Vasari's enthusiasm is so catching, that we can scarcely help believing that he was a great artist; yet it must be owned, that when we come to study his works, they produce a feeling of disappointment, and when we compare his feeble efforts at naturalism with the noble achievements of Giotto, we can scarcely avoid thrusting him back amongst his Byzantine predecessors, rather than setting him forward as the father of such a great race as the Italian painters. But the Florentines of that time were more than satisfied with the achievements of their high-born artist, and stiff and melancholy as his Madonnas appear to us, they were then reckoned marvels of grace and beauty, and awoke the warmest feelings of love and devotion in simple pious minds."—C. Heaton, *Concise history of painting*, pp. 45-47.

ALSO IN: B. Berenson, *Study and criticism of Italian art*, pp. 3-5.

"Siena, the rival city of Florence, produced the first Italian painter of genius, Duccio, who had evidently seen and studied the Byzantine paintings and enamels (1255-1319). Duccio combined with a sense of grandiose composition a broad, if as yet not very delicate, feeling for line. He was the first to translate into true pictures, that is to say, expressive groupings of figures, the painted chronicles of the Middle Ages, which pious souls had spelt out for centuries as a kind of Bible for the unlettered. Duccio was the progenitor of a numerous family of paintings at Siena, among them Simone Martini, called Memmi, the Lorenzetti, and Taddeo Bartolo, who, though they did not equal the Florentines in power, surpassed them perhaps in passion, poetry, and tenderness. . . . The weakness of the Sieneese school was, that it aimed rather at expression and emotion than at perfection of form, that it 'marked time,' so to speak, and was incapable of following the Florentines on the salutary path of naturalism while preserving its distinctive charm. By the middle of the fifteenth century, the vitality of the Sieneese school was exhausted. Thenceforth, Florence, who had learnt from her in the beginning, sent artists to her. The first of the great Florentine painters was Giotto, who died in 1336. Was he influenced by Duccio? It is possible. But his great merit lies in his having rejected the Byzantine tradition, which continued to hold Duccio in thrall. . . . Giotto's drawing is not always correct, his draperies are sometimes heavy and his heads vulgar; but with what clarity and poetry he expresses what he has to say! Giotto's frescoes at Assisi, illustrating the life of St. Francis, and those at Padua and in the Church of Santa Croce at Florence are among the most charming achievements of painting, although not one of the figures they contain is above criticism. Giotto was inspired by the Gothic masters, notably by Giovanni Pisano (d. 1329), but above all, by

Nature. His disciples were nearly all merely Giottoesques, who escaped from the salutary contact with realities. . . . Giottism produced but one great artist, the monk Fra Angelico of Fiesole (1387-1455), and even he was influenced by Masaccio, an uncompromising realist. Fra Angelico, oil-painting became generally known in Italy. Side by side with, and often opposed to, the ecclesiastical motive in art, there developed an intense interest in the use of the new medium, as well as in other phases of the science of painting, resulting in a rapidly progressive skill and ease in rendering the subject. The progress of sculpture, especially the work of Donatello, was extremely closely related to that of painting. "During the later 15th century the town of Padua produced a remarkable school of art, headed by Andrea Mantegna. . . . During this same period, and largely under Paduan influence, the beginnings of the later Venetian school were made. . . . Aside from the schools just named, Italian art in general converged toward Florence in the 15th century, and also radiated thence. . . . Perugia, where Raphael's teacher was long resident, became in art a dependency or connection of Florence. . . . It was from the Florentine school that the great artists developed who made the glory of Roman art at the beginning of the 16th century."—W. H. Goodyear, *History of art for classes*, pp. 253-254.—"Masaccio, . . . like Giotto a century earlier,—himself the Giotto of an artistically more propitious world—was, as an artist, a great master of the significant, and, as a painter, endowed to the highest degree with a sense of tactile values, and with a skill of rendering them. In a career of but few years he gave to Florentine painting the direction it pursued to the end. . . . His frescoes at once became, and for as long as there were real artists among them remained, the training-school of Florentine painters. Masaccio's death left Florentine painting in the hands of Fra Angelico, Paola Uccello, and Andrea del Castagno; the younger, Domenico Veneziano and Fra Filippo. . . . Uccello . . . was the first representative of two strong tendencies in Florentine painting—of art for dexterity's sake, and art for scientific purposes. . . . [Fra Filippo's] works are still copious, and many of them are admirably preserved; we therefore have every facility of judging him as an artist, yet nothing is harder than to appreciate him at his due. If attractiveness, and attractiveness of the best kind, sufficed to make a great artist, then Filippo would be one of the greatest, greater perhaps than any other Florentine before Leonardo. . . . His real place is with the *genre painters*; only his *genre* was of the soul, as that of others—of Benozzo Gozzoli, for example—was of the body. . . . The leanings of the school [of Florentine painting] during this interval [1430-1460] were not artistic and artistic alone, but that there were other tendencies as well, tendencies on the one side, toward the expression of emotion (scarcely less literary because in form and colour than if in words), and, on the other, toward the naturalistic reproduction of objects. . . . While the former tendency was represented by Filippo alone, the latter had Paola Uccello, and all of Castagno and Veneziano that the genius of these two men would permit them to sacrifice to naturalism and science. To the extent,

however, that they took sides and were conscious of a distinct purpose, these also sided with Uccello and not with Filippo. It may be agreed, therefore, that the main current of Florentine painting for a generation after Masaccio was naturalistic, and that consequently the impact given to the younger painters who during this period were starting, was mainly toward naturalism. . . . Meanwhile we must continue our study of the naturalists, but now of the second generation. Their number and importance from 1460 to 1490 is not alone due to the fact that art education toward the beginning of this epoch was mainly naturalistic, but also to the real needs of a rapidly advancing craft, and even more to the character of the Florentine mind, the dominant turn of which was to science and not to art. But as there were then no professions scientific in the stricter sense of the word, and as art of some form was the pursuit of a considerable proportion of the male inhabitants of Florence, it happened inevitably that many a lad with the natural capacities of a Galileo was in early boyhood apprenticed as an artist. . . . This was literally the case with the oldest among the leaders of the new generation, Alessio Baldovinetti, in whose scanty remaining works no trace of purely artistic feeling or interest can be discerned; and it is only less true of Alessio's somewhat younger, but far more gifted contemporaries, Antonio Pollaiuolo and Andrea Verrocchio. These also we should scarcely suspect of being more than men of science, if Pollaiuolo once or twice, and Verrocchio more frequently, did not dazzle us with works of almost supreme art, which, but for our readiness to believe in the manifold possibilities of Florentine genius, we should with exceeding difficulty accept as their creation—so little do they seem to result from their conscious striving. . . . To confine ourselves, however, as closely as we may to painting, and leaving aside for the present the question of colour, which is, in Florentine art, of entirely subordinate importance, there were three directions in which painting as Pollaiuolo and Verrocchio found it had greatly to advance before it could attain its maximum of effectiveness: landscape, movement, and the nude. . . . In all that concerns movement, Verrocchio was a learner from Pollaiuolo, rather than an initiator, and he probably never attained his master's proficiency. . . . But in landscape Verrocchio was a decided innovator. . . . It is a temptation to hasten on from Pollaiuolo and Verrocchio to Botticelli and Leonardo, to men of genius as artists reappearing again after two generations, men who accomplished with scarcely an effort what their precursors had been toiling after. But from these it would be even more difficult than at present to turn back to painters of scarcely any rank among the world's great artists, and of scarcely any importance as links in a chain of evolution, but not to be passed by, partly because of certain qualities they do possess, and partly because their names would be missed in an account, even so brief as this, of Florentine painting. The men I chiefly refer to, one most active toward the middle and the other toward the end of the fifteenth century, are Benozzo Gozzoli and Domenico Ghirlandajo. Although they have been rarely coupled together, they have much in common. Both were, as artists, little more than mediocrities with almost no genuine feeling for what makes painting a great art. The real attractiveness of both lies entirely outside the sphere of pure art, in the realms of *genre* illustration. And here the likeness between them ends; within their common ground

they differed widely. . . . Ghirlandaio was born to far more science and cunning in painting than was current in Benozzo's early years, and all that industry, all that love of his occupation, all that talent even, can do for a man, they did for him; but unfortunately he had not a spark of genius."—B. Berenson, *Florentine painters of the Renaissance*, pp. 31-32, 40, 43, 45, 48, 56-57, 61-63.—"Umbrian born, but Florentine trained . . . [Piero della Francesca (c. 1420-1492)], became more scientific than sentimental, and excelled as a craftsman. He knew drawing, perspective, atmosphere, light-and-shade in a way that rather foreshadowed Leonardo da Vinci. From working in the Umbrian country his influence upon his fellow-Umbrians was large. It showed directly in Signorelli (1441-1523), whose master he was, and whose style he probably formed. . . . Signorelli and Perugino seem opposed to each other in their art. The first was the forerunner of Michael Angelo, the second was the master of Raphael; and the difference between Michael Angelo and Raphael was, in a less varied degree, the difference between Signorelli and Perugino. . . . Filippino modelled his art upon that of his father, Fra Filippino, and was influenced by Botticelli. . . . He was the most important of the fifteenth-century technicians, without having any peculiar distinction or originality, and in spite of being rather prosaic at times."—J. C. Van Dyke, *Text-book of the history of painting*, pp. 63-64, 66-67.—"Between Giotto and Michelangelo, Botticelli (1444?-1510) is unquestionably the most eminent figure as representing all that is most deeply characteristic of Florentine art. . . . That concentrated devotion to his subject which Angelico dedicated wholly to the service of the church, Botticelli brought to the treatment of every theme. Christian or Pagan, nowhere, not even in the final triumphs of the Florentine school, is the absolute control of the imagination more completely asserted. . . . There is hardly a line of his curiously invented patterns of design, there is no tiny fragment in the assorted harmonies of his color, radiant or subdued, that is not summoned there for the special service of the theme he seeks to illustrate." J. W. C. Carr, *Ideals of painting*, pp. 52-54.—"The art of a nation passes through very much the same development as that of an individual. There are the first crude efforts, then the struggle with technical difficulties. The delicious pleasure of overcoming the latter, then, very often makes one forget the end for the means, and one falls in love with the language itself rather than with the things to be expressed. . . . But technique in all its branches had now been mastered. . . . Perspective, both linear and ariel, line, light and shade, color and composition, no more offered any difficulties. One school had developed in grandeur and simplicity, another in sentiment, another in ideal quality, and so on. Now the giants of painting came, and united all these excellencies of quality and technical accomplishments into one great, perfect art. Thus we have the period of the High Renaissance."—O. M. Brauner, *Painting: The High Renaissance in Italy* (*Fine Arts Journal*, Sept., 1916).—See also EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance.

Italian: High Renaissance.—Leonardo, Michelangelo, Raphael, Correggio, Titian, Tintoretto.—"Andrea del Sarto (1486-1531), Fra Bartolomeo (1475-1517), and Albertinelli (1474-1515) form [in the High Renaissance] a notable group, which, however, falls quite below the first rank. They seem born too late for the highest ambition. They are influenced and left behind by the giants

in whom the High Renaissance culminated, and they paved the way for the mannerists of the final period."—A. V. V. Brown and W. Rankin, *Short history of Italian painting*, p. 229.—"The suddenness of the change from an art still more or less primitive to the full-blown art of the high Renaissance, and the briefness of this period of splendor, may be best shown by a few dates. The first picture of the new and fully matured style, Leonardo's 'Last Supper,' was probably painted in 1497. Within fifteen years, that is, by 1512, the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel and the frescoes of the Camera della Segnatura had been completed, and when Raphael died, in 1520, the decline had already begun. . . . Even Correggio, the youngest and the most revolutionary of the giants of the high Renaissance, who transformed painting beyond the dreams of Michelangelo or Raphael, had completed his work and died in 1534. Yet Lorenzo da Credi, Leonardo's fellow pupil in Verrocchio's studio, younger than Leonardo by seven years, survived until 1537, a primitive to the end. Nothing can account for the extent and the rapidity of this change but the extraordinary genius of four men: Leonardo, Michelangelo, Raphael, and Correggio. . . . The earliest of the four, Leonardo da Vinci, was, in a sense, rather a precursor of the high Renaissance than a full sharer in it. Twenty-three years older than Michelangelo and thirty-one years older than Raphael, he was already a mature and world-famed artist when they were beginning their careers, and in his later years he completed very little work of importance. Painter, sculptor, architect, engineer and man of science, as well as musician and courtier, he allowed his varied interests to distract him from artistic creation, and of the few things he actually painted most are lost or ruined. Enough remains for us to see that his task was to push all parts of the art of painting to the very verge of perfection, not to carry any one of its elements to the highest possible point. . . . It is in the treatment of light and shade that he was most the innovator, and he has been called the inventor of chiaroscuro, but even here he did not go the whole way. . . . Of light and shade as a separate element of art, capable of its own range of expression—of light and shade which veils form rather than reveals it—he knew nothing, or chose not to utilize such knowledge as he had. For . . . it is necessary to distinguish between what Leonardo the scientific investigator had learned of the aspects of nature and what Leonardo the artist thought fit for artistic employment. . . . The Florentine ideal in art was the utmost realization of form. Leonardo was a true Florentine, and he introduced into painting just so much of light and shade as should assist in this realization, no more. . . . At first sight Michelangelo may seem almost as versatile a genius as Leonardo himself. He, also, was painter, sculptor, architect, and engineer, and he was, besides all these, a poet, of true power. Yet his task was a much narrower one than that of Leonardo. In the three arts he practised, his work was to express the Renaissance ideal of energy, and to express it by means of the Florentine idea of significant form. He is essentially the draftsman and his special distinction is to have pushed significant draftsmanship further than it had ever gone before or has ever gone since. . . . No one since the Greeks knew the human figure as Michelangelo knew it, and no one has relied so exclusively upon the human figure as his means of expression. . . . As Michelangelo was born to give in his art the highest expression of the Renaissance ideal of energy, so Raphael



PAINTINGS OF THE EARLY AND LATER ITALIAN RENAISSANCE

Giotto: "St. Francis receiving from the Pope the Confirmation of the Rule of his Order"
(In the Santa Croce, Florence)

Andrea del Sarto: "Madonna of the Harpies"
(In the Uffizi Gallery, Florence)

was born to express the equally cherished, if partly inconsistent, ideal of serene and ordered dignity, of a clear and spacious existence governed by intelligence and right reason; and nothing could be more unlike the proud and tortured spirit of the great Florentine than the sunny wholesomeness of Raphael's nature. . . . He was seldom successful in representing any vehemence of action, and it was not this function to evoke pity or terror. His world is a world of peace and tranquility, and its dominating character is orderliness. Now in art, the very principle of order is design, and Raphael was the greatest master of design that the world has seen. The perfection of ordered design—the mastery of formal composition—was his gift to the world, and to it everything else was subordinated. . . . If Correggio was a less supremely great artist than Michelangelo or Raphael, yet his art is even more surprising and unaccountable than theirs, and a more strikingly original genius than his has never appeared. . . . His innovations were innumerable. . . . But all these innovations, admirable or the reverse, are as nothing compared with his invention of *chiaroscuro*, of which he is the supreme master in Italian art. With him light and shade ceases to be a mere means of securing relief and becomes a separate element of art of the highest expressional value. . . . With the death of Correggio the golden age of Italian painting, outside Venice, comes to an end. The later art divides itself into two main streams which cross and intermingle—the stream of the baroque springing from Michelangelo and the stream of the academic springing from Raphael. . . . In the latter part of the sixteenth century the Caracci founded the school of the Eclectics, which endeavored to unite the merits of all other schools; to compose like Raphael, draw like Michelangelo, use Correggio's *chiaroscuro* and Titian's color. Like all attempts to be a little of everything, it became not very much of anything. . . . Italian art was dying. Henceforth the living art of the world was to be produced elsewhere.”—K. Cox, *Concerning painting*, pp. 67-97. —At almost the same time as the High Renaissance in Florence and Rome painting also reached its height in Venice. (See VENICE: 16th century). With her Byzantine heritage of color and her commercial interests in the East, Venice was distinct in character from the rest of Italy; and by virtue, perhaps, of her continued prosperity and independence, painting was later there in its decline. The Venetian is the last of the great Italian schools. “Florence was the soil of humanism; there colour was subordinate to line; and the picture, in a sense, was the woven raiment of the painter's thought. . . . Venice demanded of art not the expression of thought and knowledge, as such, but rather a sensuous quality which should express in colour the poetry of every day life. And thus the Venetians became the first great European school of colourists. . . . [They] thought in colour and studied its appearance in nature, its possibilities in art, and its powers in pigment. In these things they have not been excelled.”—R. H. Bell, *Philosophy of painting*, pp. 127-128.—The two greatest masters were Giorgione (c. 1477-1510) and Titian (c. 1477-1576). “Titian occupies almost, if not quite as important a place in the history of painting as does Shakespeare in that of literature. His fame, his popularity, the wide range as well as the immense quantity of his works, entitle him to be ranked with our poet, if only for the immense influence they have both exercised on posterity. . . . As it happens, too, Titian stands in much the same relation to Giorgione as Shake-

speare did to Marlowe. Giorgione was really the great innovator, and Giorgione died young, leaving Titian to carry on the work.”—R. Davies, *Six centuries of painting*, pp. 78-79.—Little is known of Giorgione, and only three pictures can be ascribed to him with any certainty. Yet by virtue of his lyrical, romantic charm, his is one of the most distinct personalities in art. Titian's two successors, Veronese (1518-1594) and Tintoretto (1528-1588) were masters of a colossal style of decoration, magnificent in color and composition, which prevailed even into the 18th century.—See also EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance.

French (12th-18th centuries).—School at Fontainebleau.—Greatness of the seventeenth century.—Decline under Louis XV.—“From the time when Charlemagne gathered Byzantine artists round him at Aix-la-Chapelle, to the dawn of the Renaissance, there are evidences of an uninterrupted Art activity in France; but besides that the interest attaching to such efforts is, in many cases, antiquarian rather than artistic, those in which the germs of French painting can be traced were long in assuming any national character. . . . The first gleam of any national character affecting French art appears about the middle of the 12th century, when the rise of the pointed Gothic architecture drove painting from the walls to the windows. Glass painting not only reached its highest perfection in France, but, from its peculiar style, indicated far more surely a future School of Painting than the mural frescoes. . . . The same influences that drove painting from the walls of churches turned the attention of artists during the 13th and 14th centuries to such subjects as *retablos* and *altar-pieces*. But these so-called artists do not pre-suppose an improved school of painting. In fact, before the 14th century, painting had no standing as a separate art, but was strictly subordinated to sculpture or architecture. The painter was still merely a decorator. . . . While frescoes and decorative painting supplied only a temporary want, miniature was from the first the real medium for the exercise of whatever artistic zeal existed. . . . It was the Italian wars, begun in 1494 by Charles VIII., that first brought the artistic treasures of Italy prominently before the eyes of the French monarchs.”—G. W. Smith, *Painting, Spanish and French*, pp. 97-212.—“Painting in France did not, as in Italy, spring directly from Christianity, though it dealt with the religious subject. From the beginning a decorative motive—the strong feature of French art—appears as the chief motive of painting. This showed itself largely in church ornament, garments, tapestries, miniatures, and illuminations. . . . Francis I., at Fontainebleau, seems to have encouraged two schools* of painting, one the native French and the other an imported Italian, which afterward took to itself the name of the ‘School of Fontainebleau.’ Of the native artists the Clouets were the most conspicuous. They were of Flemish origin, and followed Flemish methods both in technic and mediums. [The seventeenth century] . . . was a century of great development and production in France, the time of the founding of the French Academy of Painting and Sculpture, and the formation of many picture collections. . . . By all odds the best painter of this time was Nicolas Poussin (1593-1665). . . . He was the founder of the classic and academic in French art, and in influence was the most important man of the century. . . . The landscape painter of the period, however, was Claude Lorrain (1600-1682) . . . the man who first put a real sun in the heavens and shed its light upon earth. There is a soft summer's day

drowsiness, a golden haze of atmosphere, a feeling of composure and restfulness about his pictures that are attractive. Like Poussin he depended much upon long sweeping lines in composition, and upon effects of linear perspective. . . . When Louis XIV. came to the throne painting took on a decided character, but it was hardly national or race character. . . . In method the French painters followed the late Italians, and imitated an imitation; in matter they bowed to the dictates of the court and reflected the king's mock-heroic spirit."—J. C. Van Dyke, *Textbook of the history of painting*, pp. 132-139.—"Louis encouraged Art sincerely if not altogether wisely, and his example was followed by the nobility. He was ably seconded in this respect by his ministers, Colbert and Louvois, and his favourite painter, Lebrun, and to their efforts were due, at least all the outward and material appliances which could serve to promote the progress of Art. . . . All this fostering care of Art, was, however, rendered nugatory, to a great extent, by the prevailing tendencies of the times, which forced every artist to follow in the same groove." Two artists, however, stood "outside the influence of the France of their day, yet sum up in their work the characteristic merits and defects of the French school." These were Nicolas Poussin, "the greatest painter whom France can claim,"—a native of Normandy,—and Eustache le Sueur, born at Paris in 1617. "In the extraordinary fertility and variety of his genius Poussin recalls Rubens and Murillo."—"Le Sueur has been called the 'French Raphael,' and, although the comparison must not be strained too much, it is not wholly unjust." But the painter most distinctly representative of the period was Charles Le Brun, called "the Louis XIV. of Art," who painted with ostentation, on a grand scale, much to the liking of the ostentatious king. He founded the French Academy of Painting and the French School at Rome. Under the Regency, and during the reign of Louis XV, "the deterioration of government and of society found their analogue in the steady decline of painting."—G. W. Smith, *Painting, Spanish and French*, pp. 97-212.—"With the advent of Louis XV. art took upon itself another character, and one that reflected perfectly the moral, social, and political France of the eighteenth century. The first Louis clamored for glory, the second Louis revelled in gayety, frivolity, and sensuality. This was the difference between both monarchs and both arts. The gay and the coquettish in painting had already been introduced by the Regent, himself a dilettante in art, and when Louis XV. came to the throne it passed from the gay to the insipid, the flippant, even the erotic. . . . Yet, in spite of the lack of moral and intellectual elevation, in spite of frivolity and make-believe, this art was infinitely better than the pompous imitation of foreign example set up by Louis XIV. It was more spontaneous, more original, more French. The influence of Italy began to fail, and the painters began to mirror French life. It was largely court life, lively, vivacious, licentious, but in that very respect characteristic of the time. Moreover, there was another quality about it that showed French taste at its best—the decorative quality. It can hardly be supposed that the fairy creations of the age were intended to represent actual nature. They were designed to ornament hall and boudoir, and in pure decorative delicacy of design, lightness of touch, color charm, they have never been excelled. The serious spirit was lacking, but the gayety of line and color was well given. Watteau (1684-1721) was the one chiefly responsible for the co-

quette and soubrette of French art, and Watteau was, practically speaking, the first French painter. . . . All his characters played at life in parks and groves that never grew, and most of his color was beautifully unreal; but for all that the work was original, decorative, and charming. Moreover, Watteau was a brushman, and introduced not only a new spirit and new subject into art, but a new method. The epic treatment of the Italians was laid aside in favor of a *genre* treatment, and instead of line and flat surface Watteau introduced color and cleverly laid pigment. . . . Van Loo (1705-1765), Boucher (1703-1770), . . . Fragonard (1732-1806) followed in a similar style. . . . Chardin (1699-1779) and Greuze (1725-1805), clung to portrayals of humble life and sought to popularize the *genre* subject [Greuze in a theatrical fashion, Chardin with utmost repose and sincerity]." J. C. Van Dyke, *Textbook of the history of painting*, pp. 132-142.—See also LOUVRE: 1548-1921.

Flemish (15th-16th centuries).—Art in northern Europe.—It is common to fancy that only in Italy did the period of intellectual energy and achievement known as the Renaissance begin so early as the fourteenth century. This is perhaps true so far as the classical element is concerned. But it is equally true that both the painting and the sculpture of northern Europe possessed at that time a merit and vitality fully equal to the Italian. Ireland had been the refuge of learning during the Dark Ages. The most beautiful of illuminated manuscripts were the product of Irish and English monasticism. Both in Germany and in England there are indications of a fine native school of mural painting which flourished in the twelfth, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Certain it is that about 1420 the brothers van Eyck, painters at the prosperous court of Burgundy, knew more of perspective and the treatment of landscape, and were far more expert in the handling of their medium, than any of their contemporaries in Italy. To them is attributed—falsely—the invention of oil colors. Their famous secret seems to have consisted in an improvement in the quality of the oils and a new technique in applying the colors. "All the distinguishing features of Flemish art can be studied in the Van Eycks. A splendid example is afforded by the 'Madonna and the Donor' by Jan van Eyck in the Louvre. This picture attracts us at first on account of its beautiful color; then we are repelled because we find none of that beauty of form which we instinctively expect. As, in spite of all of this, the picture continues to hold our interest, we finally realize that this is not a Madonna at all in the true sense that Raphael's was or Bellini's. What really interests us is the Donor. Who was he? What is he thinking about? Why do his hands say one thing and his eyes another? For it never occurs to us to doubt that he was a real person. In short, interest in reality has taken the place of interest in an ideal; character in place of beauty. Our longing for beauty, however, is ministered to by the wonderful color, the pleasing composition, the skilful rendering of the different textures, the splendid effect of the robes and jewels, and especially by the landscape that keeps receding until lost to our view. The Van Eycks have a number of noteworthy successors: Roger van der Weyden; . . . Hans Memling; . . . Hugo van der Goes; . . . Quentin Matsys; finally all the genius of Flanders culminated in one stupendous genius—Rubens (1577-1640)."—J. B. Glen, *Great schools of painting (Chautauquan, July, 1911.)*—"Antwerp at the beginning of the 16th century occupied the first

place as a School of Art in the Netherlands. The founder of this school was Quinten Massijs (1466-1531), usually called Matsys, and sometimes Metsys: he is popularly known as 'the Blacksmith of Antwerp.' Born at Louvain, the son of a locksmith, Quinten Matsys probably worked at first at his father's trade. . . . From the death of . . . Quinten Matsys we may trace the gradual decline of art in the Netherlands. The manly, robust, and realistic style of the Flemish painters . . . was now to be abandoned for the dreams and idealism of Italy. Flemish art ceased to be national, and its painters forsook the delineation of their own homely people, their quaint old-world cities, and their flat landscapes, to struggle after the azure skies and unveiled beauties of the Florentine and Venetian schools. . . . The commencement of the 17th century witnessed the return of art in the Netherlands to the honest realism of the North, after its long banishment amid the idealism of the South. . . . It required, however, a potent magician to recall the Art of the Netherlands to life, and that magician appeared in the person of Peter Paul Rubens. Few men have led more stirring and successful lives. No painter except Titian was ever so courted by the great and wealthy. Handsome, well-born, fascinating in manner, Rubens succeeded in all which he undertook, and was equally praised as a diplomatist, a courtier, a patron, and a painter. He was essentially a man of the world, and born under a lucky star. His very pictures may be described as worldly, since though by no means irreligious as a man, there is no religion, no spirituality, in his works. . . . Rubens was an almost universal genius in his art, and has left a vast number of pictures dealing with nearly every kind of subject. . . . The great number of works attributed to him would seem also fabulous, if we did not believe that many of them were really executed under the eye of the master by the pupils who worked from his designs."—H. J. W. Buxton and E. J. Poynter, *German, Flemish and Dutch painting*, bk. 2, ch. 2-3.—"As a colourist, Rubens was a Venetian in his early career; but in time his individuality and virility made him more. He mastered, then seemed to defy, the laws of art in obeying them. He painted human flesh as no one before him had done and as few since have equalled. . . . While his sensuousness has the air of spontaneity guided by chance, it will bear careful checking by the scientific method. He massed his amplitudes of light and shade in seeming abandon, and yet, so far as I can recall, they always balance. His power over luminous colour, his success in portraiture, *genre*, landscape, animal painting, imagination, and feeling, all stand forth in amazing array,—an enduring evidence of the man's superb genius."—R. H. Bell, *Philosophy of painting*, pp. 141-142.—Antoon van Dijk [or Van Dyck], the greatest of the pupils of Rubens, the son of a merchant of good standing, was born at Antwerp in 1599. At ten years of age he was studying art under Van Balen, and was registered in the Guild as his pupil; from him he proceeded to the studio of Rubens. . . . In 1620 he was engaged as an assistant by Rubens, and in the following year he was in England employed by James I. . . . His first visit to England seems to have been unfruitful, but in 1632 he became one of the court painters of Charles I. . . . Van Dyck died in Blackfriars on the 9th of December in 1641, and was buried hard by the tomb of John of Gaunt in old St. Paul's. . . . As a portrait painter Van Dyck occupies with Titian and Velasquez the first place. In fertility and production he was equal to Rubens,

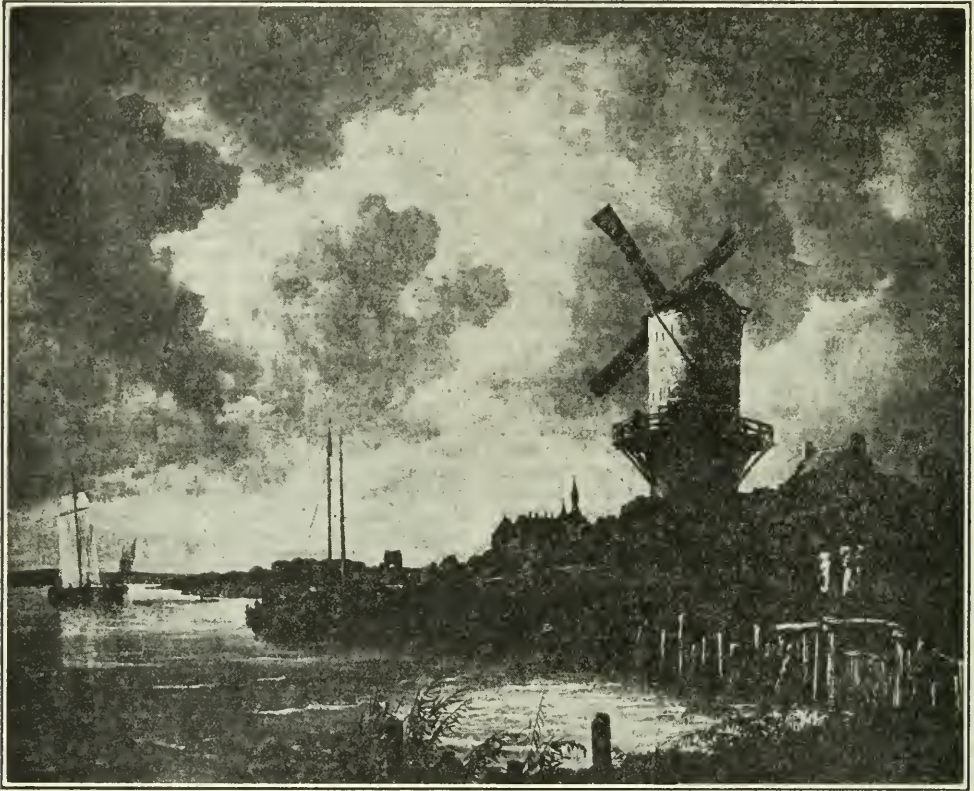
if we remember that his artistic life was very brief, and that he died at the age of 42. He lacked the inexhaustible invention which distinguishes his teacher."—H. J. W. Buxton and E. J. Poynter, *German, Flemish and Dutch painting*, bk. 2, ch. 2-3.—"Lucas Cranach (1472-1553), the founder of the Saxon School, was a very different personality. . . . Cranach is the most diverting of painters, not only because he is eager to amuse, but because his artlessness and his false ideal of elegance often provoke a smile at his expense. But he painted certain realistic portraits which are among the best works of the school. . . . But from the second half of the sixteenth century German art may be considered dead, stifled on the one hand by imitators of the Italians, who produced only mediocre works without any character, and on the other by the religious wars, which devastated Germany and threw civilization back by a full century. When the storm abated, the country was impoverished, and national tradition was interrupted. French and Italian art reigned alone."—S. Reinach, *Apollo*, pp. 243-244.—See also EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance.

Dutch (16th-18th centuries).—Rembrandt, its dominant genius.—"The Dutch school, in so far as it has left its mark upon the story of modern art, endured for less than a hundred years, and is dominated by the genius of Rembrandt. Frans Hals, the eldest of the gifted group of men who have made it famous, was still a youth at the opening of the seventeenth century, and Hobbema, the latest of its great representatives, died before the eighteenth century had passed its first decade. . . . At the close of the sixteenth century painting throughout the whole of Europe was staggering under the weight of associated ideas both ethical and intellectual. . . . It was the task of Dutch painting . . . to renew in its primitive simplicity the elemental compact between art and nature. . . . It no longer affected to interpret the higher aspirations of the human spirit or to mirror its larger emotions. It was content to image only the more intimate and familiar moods of feeling that are born of the uneventful happenings of daily life, sometimes descending, as we know, to the portrayal of the grosser and more sordid aspects of national character. . . . Their attention was riveted upon the facts of the world about them and they acknowledged and revealed in their work no other source of inspiration."—J. W. C. Carr, *Ideals of painting*, pp. 235-239.—"Rembrandt (1606-1669) was that entirely inexplicable thing, a great original genius. . . . It is always with light and shade that Rembrandt performs his miracles, that he expresses the inexpressible and realizes the supernatural. . . . Neither Tintoretto nor Correggio himself understood Correggio's invention as Rembrandt understood it—neither of them makes it the warp and woof of his art as Rembrandt does. . . . Without some suggestion of his light and shade no composition of Rembrandt's would be intelligible, and he thinks so habitually in light and shade that his merest scratch of outline always gives this suggestion."—K. Cox, *Concerning painting*, pp. 151, 155-156.—"Other men who have practised the art have left a richer record of varied objective personality, but no one has approached him in rendering individual features finely responsive to those deeper moods of feeling he sought to mirror. In this rare quality of vision, perhaps the rarest of which pictorial art is capable, Rembrandt claims kinship with Michelangelo."—J. W. C. Carr, *Ideals of painting*, p. 250.—"The very qualities which have made Rembrandt one of our gods of art and have caused him to be reckoned, by many, the

very greatest of masters, rendered him incomprehensible to his own countrymen and contemporaries, and the painters understood him little better than the public. Ruysdael had, perhaps, a little of his romantic temper. . . . The typical Dutch painters are those who, with as little of Rembrandt's intensity of feeling as of the Italian love for decorative splendor, carried out the truly Dutch task of embodying in an exemplary technic a prosaic and exact portraiture of the familiar world about them. There are a host of them, almost all admirable after their degree, and they painted everything in Holland and in the narrow seas, indoors and out. . . . One man painted only drunken boors, another the lower middle classes, a

158-159.—Besides Rembrandt the most important artists of the school were: Frans Hals (1584-1666), Albert Cuyp (1606-1673), Paul Potter (1625-1654), Jacob van Ruysdael (1636-1681), Meyndert Hobbema (c. 1638-1709), Jan Steen (1636-1689), Gerard Terburg (1606-1681), and Gerhard Douw (1613-1674).

Spanish (17th-18th centuries).—Velazquez, Murillo and Goya.—"Spanish painting until the seventeenth century can hardly be called an original art. The art that is first known is plainly derived from the Italian, besides showing some influence of the Flemish. . . . Although these foreign influences shaped Spanish art, especially in its methods, there was a decided Spanish spirit in it,



JACOB VAN RUYSDAEL, "THE WINDMILL"

(Original in the Van der Hoop Museum, Amsterdam)

third ladies and gentlemen. They were the first pure landscape painters, the first marine-painters, the first painters of cattle, the first still-life painters. . . . Little as they had in common with Rembrandt, he had yet furnished them with their necessary tool. If they could not make light and shade express the supernatural, they found expression of the natural, and the whole Dutch school became a school of chiaroscurists who devoted their best efforts to rendering the gradations and reverberations of light. Indeed, it is often their interest in light that alone makes their choice of subject comprehensible. . . . And if the Dutchmen were all naturalists and chiaroscurists, they were all admirable and impeccable craftsmen. Such sound, enduring, beautiful workmanship, such thoroughness of education, such precision and delightfulness of handling, had seldom been seen in the world and are hardly likely to be seen again."—K. Cox, *Concerning painting*, pp.

a dark, gloomy, morose, spirit, full of horror, an outgrowth of the inquisition. . . . There were some portraits and genre subjects done; but until the time of Velasquez, the great bulk of Spanish art was religious. The nude was strictly forbidden by the inquisition, and the censorship went so far as to dispute whether an artist had the right to paint the Savior nailed to the cross with three nails or with four."—O. M. Brauner, *Painting: The Renaissance in Spain* (Progress, Mar., 1901, pp. 409-410).—"The principal works undertaken in Spain date from the time of Philip II.: they were chiefly executed by Italians, and the principal Spanish painters studied in Italy. . . . The painters of Spain have been classified in three principal schools: . . . they are those of Valencia, Madrid, and Seville."—R. N. Wornum, *Epochs of painting*, ch. 29.—José Ribera (1588-1656), who worked in Italy, was the first of a series of rebellious real-

ists, who "loved to paint textures with the most brutal truth." This strain is also seen in the more restrained, impersonal work of Velazquez (1599-1660).—"Diego Velazquez de Silva, the head of the school of Madrid, and the prince of Spanish painters, was born at Seville in the spring of 1599. . . . He visited Madrid first in 1622, and was invited back the year afterwards by the Count Duke of Olivares, who procured him then the appointment of painter to Philip IV.; from this time Velazquez was established as a royal favourite. Velazquez being better known than any of the preceding painters, out of Spain, is accordingly better appreciated out of Spain. He visited Italy in 1629, but had formed his style before he went there. He belongs strictly to the naturalist school. . . . Velazquez ranks as a portrait-painter with Titian and Vandyck; and he had besides the great power of objective imitation characteristic of the naturalist school. There is, however, no laboured imitation in the works of Velazquez."—*Ibid.*—"One suspects that the ecclesiastics did not admire him, or possibly feared him, as few church decorations claimed his time. Instead, he executed large historical subjects, magnificently painted. . . . [He] was a masterful draughtsman, and that means a great deal; something more than correctness. Not alone were his outlines good, but also his construction of every part. . . . When he was young he painted much still life and the usual beggar boy with holes in his clothes; painted him well, worked hard at it, as even genius gains by hard study. He kept on painting what the anarchists call 'royal beggars' all his life with just as much faithfulness and sincerity. . . . A strong colorist but very refined, his work stands today the model for painters of all lands. [His free technique and brushwork is especially admired.] . . . The men who do it in this day learned how by studying such pictures as [his]. . . . Francisco Zurbaran (1598-1662) . . . was like Ribera, a fiery character, and a painter of textures and stuffs, of expression, and movement that passed under his eye. . . . Bartholomé Estaban Murillo (1618-1682) is in many respects the Carlo Dolci of Spain, a painter of pretty pictures, smooth and sweet, a popular artist."—J. W. Pattison, *Painting of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries* (Progress, Apr., 1901, pp. 449-453).—"Although Murillo was a realist as regards employing for his sacred characters some ordinary Andalusian model, he succeeded in infusing into them a certain dignity and aloofness which is full of religious mysticism. In the province of sacred art Murillo may be considered as the last of the 'Old Masters.' Yet his pictures have of late years been steadily declining in popular favour. As contrasted with Velazquez, the uncompromising realist, the work of Murillo shows a strain of effeminate softness which to some suggests affectation."—M. Inness, *Schools of painting*, p. 286.—"It was not until the end of the eighteenth [century] that another genius arose, in the person of Francisco Goya (1746-1828). . . . As a court painter he was an unqualified success, . . . but his official productions are not the less devoid of interest on that account, and are sometimes the more satirical from the necessity of concealment. In his more outspoken works . . . he is too brutal not to affect the ordinary observer's judgment upon his artistic qualities. . . . But between the extremes of brutality and conventionalism there is such a wide expanse of pure joy of painting that nothing can diminish the reputation of Goya however much it is likely to be enhanced. To the modern Spanish painter he is probably as fixed a beacon as Velazquez."—

R. Davies, *Six centuries of painting*, pp. 119-1200. See also *ANDALUSIAN SCHOOL*.

German (15th-17th centuries).—Art in northern Europe.—"Italian art dreamed of beauty and realised its dream. Flemish art was in love with truth, and 'held the mirror up to nature.' German art rarely achieved either truth or beauty. But it succeeded in rendering, with a fidelity that was often brutal, the character of the German people immediately before and after the Reformation. The first School of German painting of which we have any knowledge flourished at Prague about the year 1360 under the Emperor Charles IV. . . . Somewhat later, in 1380, we hear of one master Wilhelm, of Cologne, who is much lauded by the chronicles of the time. Wilhelm was succeeded by Stephen Lochner, from the neighbourhood of Constance. About the year 1435, during the lifetime of Van Eyck, he completed the most important work produced by the German School in the Middle Ages, the famous *Adoration of the Magi* in Cologne Cathedral. Lochner has been called the German Fra Angelico; his art is devout, radiant, and sentimental. . . . A novel tendency towards realism made its appearance towards 1460 in the numerous pictures of the Cologne masters. . . . Henceforth, though it remained very German in its defects, the School of Cologne, which existed till the middle of the sixteenth century, was merely a Rhenish off-shoot of Flemish art."—S. Reinach, *Apollo*, pp. 233-234.—"With far more independence and freedom, the Flemish influence was received by the schools of Upper and Central Germany. They do not so fully abandon the beautiful soft feeling and ideal spirit of the former period, nor do they adopt the same exactness of execution, but by a more middle course they arrive at a thoroughly peculiar style, in which occasionally we find a happy blending of the two fundamental elements. It may have partially contributed to this, that in Swabia, more than elsewhere in the North, extensive wall painting were executed, many traces of which are to be found in the numerous late Gothic churches of the country. . . . Next to Ulm, the rich and ancient Augsburg was the second central point of Swabian art. We here find in successive generations the painter family Holbein. About the middle of the century, the family begins with a Hans Holbein, the grandfather of the famous later master. . . . His son, Hans Holbein, the elder, who was born about 1460, worked at first in his native city, and subsequently at Basle, whither he was summoned in 1504, and where he died in 1523. . . . Far more important than . . . these is, however, the son of the elder Holbein, Hans Holbein, the younger, one of the greatest and noblest masters of German art. He was born at Augsburg in 1497, worked at Lucerne in 1517, settled at Basle two years subsequently, and was summoned to England in 1526, where, through the influence of Sir Thomas More, he entered the service of King Henry VIII. In the year 1529, he went again to Basle, and spent several years there, engaged, by order of the Council, in the execution of larger works. He then returned to England, where, as has been recently proved, he died in London in 1543. While he is one of the most precocious geniuses of art history—appearing as an able painter at the age of fourteen—he is also among the few masters of the North who evidenced the decided influence of Italian art, and used it with perfect independence. Among the northern painters of that time, he is the only one, Dürer not even excepted, who reached a perfectly free and grand style, freed himself from the petty taste-

lessness of those around him, and conceived the human figure in its perfect truth and beauty."—W. Lübke, *History of art*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 5.—Nuremberg, with its rich commercial class, was the Florence of Germany about the year 1500, but it was a coarser Florence, intent on expression rather than on beauty. It produced many masterpieces of wood-carving. The head of its school of painting was Michael Wöhlgemut (b. in 1434), a prolific but mediocre artist, whose chief title to fame is that he was the master of Dürer. During the first half of the sixteenth century, Germany could boast two painters of genius, and one very richly gifted artist: Albert Dürer, Hans Holbein, and Lucas Cranach. Dürer (1471-1528) was a thinker as well as an artist, and in this connection claims a place in the history of art side by side with Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo. . . . When Dürer attempted to imitate the antique after the manner of the Italian masters, the result was almost grotesque, as in his *Lucretia*, at Munich. The Germans in general were even less skilful than the Flemings in the treatment of the nude. . . . But where Dürer was superior to the Italians, and equal to the greatest geniuses of all times, was in engraving. Compositions such as his *Repose in Egypt*, *St. Jerome in his Cell*, *Melancholy*, and *Death and the Knight*, show a profundity of thought, a reticent poetry, and at the same time a knowledge of form only equalled in the works of Leonardo and Michelangelo."—S. Reinach, *Apollo*, pp. 238-240.—In 1494, Dürer "settled as a painter in his native city [Nuremberg]. He here worked for ten years, not merely as a painter, but also engaged in extensive works in engraving and woodcuts; until, in 1505, he made a journey to Italy, in which, however, he only became acquainted with Venice, Padua, and Bologna. Towards the end of the following year, he returned to Nuremberg, where, with fresh and restless activity, he executed a countless number of important works, not merely paintings, drawings, engravings, and woodcuts, but even produced excellent carved works in boxwood and seatite. In 1520 he made a second journey, this time to the Netherlands, from whence he returned in the following year. From this period he lived and worked uninterruptedly in his native city until his death in 1528. (He died, like Raphael, on a Good Friday.) In these latter years, besides his artistic works, he produced many scientific works—instructions on geometry, the art of fortification, and the proportions of the human body, thus evidencing his extensive and thorough information. All this astonishing fertility of mind unfolded in him wholly from personal inclination without outward stimulus, and indeed under the pressure of sad domestic circumstances and unfavourable relations of life. Germany had no Julius II. or Leo X., no Medici or Gonzaga, no art-loving aristocracy, no noble-minded governments."—W. Lübke, *History of art*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 5.—Holbein "is not so mystical, so fanciful, so deep as Dürer, but . . . he is generally simpler in composition, putting forth what he has to say in a clear pictorial manner. As a draughtsman—in the ability to follow a line in all its qualities, as it glides over a bone here or a fleshy part there; in the ability to model and indicate planes with the surest and most exquisite feeling, he stands second to none. . . . His power of characterization is so keen, so sure, that his portraits live with a presence and personality unmistakable. . . . 'A less powerful personality than Dürer, he was a far superior painter' (Leighton)." —O. M. Brauner, *Painting: The Renaissance in Germany* (*Progress*, Mar., 1901, p. 432).—Dürer

had many imitators, but one man carried the Franconian influence to a new school in Saxony.

English (17th-19th centuries).—Foreign influence before Hogarth.—Eighteenth century school of portraiture.—"English painting was dominated by foreign influences until the time of Hogarth. There was no dearth of native talent but rather a preponderance of foreign. Holbein was first in point of time and mastery. As Court painter, he set the pace and style which influenced his contemporaries and successors for a generation of portraiture, especially in miniature. Van Dyck, as Court painter to Charles I., put his stamp upon the art down through the eighteenth century. His influence may be said to have been dominant, although it was slightly modified by that of Lely and of Kneller. Other succeeding men had their followers, . . . but their work made no lasting impression. . . . Then came Hogarth [1697-1764], the first British painter to interpose any original ideas; or, at least, the first who was strong enough to impress them on painting. The most striking quality of his work was its democratic strength; the next was a puritanical power of satire; and next, an element which may be called moral sermonizing. . . . That he had powers beyond those of story-telling and of preaching is evident in the brush-work, colour, and composition of some of his pictures, wherein there is shown a pure joy of beauty. . . . During the second half of the eighteenth century, a great English school of portraiture arose with Gainsborough [1727-1788] at its head. Reynolds [1723-1792] and Raeburn [1756-1823] were the two other most distinguished members of this group. Gainsborough upheld the aristocratic traditions with his portrayal of elegance, refinement, and of overressed individuals of society. His technic was masterful, and his colour-schemes pleasing. His artistic kinship with Van Dyck is obvious; it is shown particularly in the *Blue Boy* which he painted, by the way, to demonstrate the possibility of making blue 'the dominating colour of a successful scheme.' This, Reynolds had said could not be done. Reynolds, on the other hand, advocated the democratic traditions also with success. In his way, he had made a close study of the old masters; and his knowledge of the art of the past enabled him to arrange his designs, style, and colour according to well established canons. . . . Unknown to himself, his great forte was not so much the painting of 'histories' in noble design and colour as of portraits; an occupation which he regarded as the merest drudgery. . . . In technic and colour, Reynolds is quite opposite to Gainsborough, whose touches were thin and whose colours were cool and musical. Reynolds' scheme inclines to be hot and his sumptuous colours are laid on thickly. . . . Romney, . . . Raeburn, . . . Coates, Opie, and Hoppner were also painters of considerable power. . . . Sir Thomas Lawrence was the connecting link between this brilliant period of English painting and the later academic slump into monotony and sloth."—R. H. Bell, *Philosophy of painting*, pp. 185-190."—See also EDUCATION, ART: Modern: England, Ireland, Scotland.

American (18th-19th centuries).—Influence of England and the continent during early history.—Later developments.—"The most celebrated painters of [the colonial] period . . . and the only ones whose fame is more than local, are John Singleton Copley [1737-1815] and Benjamin West [1738-1820]. But as both of them left their country at an early age, never to return, they belong to England rather than to America. . . . The Revolutionary Period . . . brought forth two painters



GIOVANNI CIMABUE



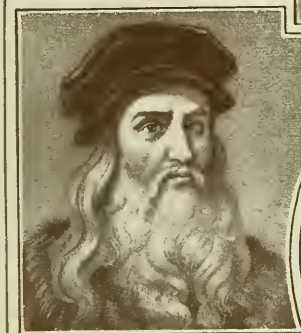
BOTTICELLI



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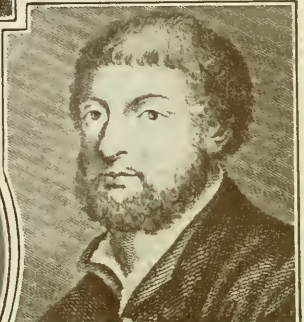
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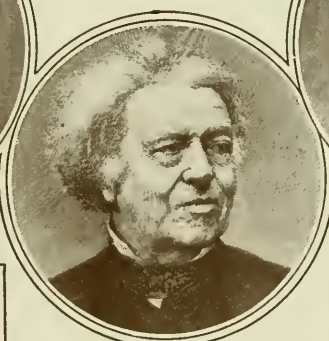
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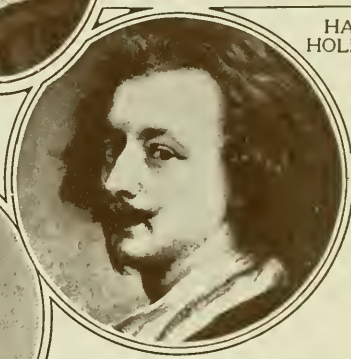
HANS
HOLBEIN



REMBRANDT



COROT



VAN DYCK



VELASQUEZ



REYNOLDS



WHISTLER

GREAT PAINTERS

who, while they were thoroughly American in their aspirations, were at the same time endowed with artistic qualities of a very high order. Gilbert Stuart [1755-1828] and John Trumbull [1756-1843], the two painters alluded to, have a right to be considered the best of the American painters of the past, and will always continue to hold a prominent place in the history of their art. . . . Trumbull must not be judged as an artist by his large paintings in the Capitol at Washington, the commission for which he did not receive until 1817. To know him one must study him in his smaller works and sketches now gathered in the gallery of Yale College."—S. R. Koehler, *American painters*, pp. 192-218.—At his death the aristocratic British quality was superseded by continental influence. William Morris Hunt (1824-1879) studied under Millet. The Hudson River school discovered an enthusiasm for native scenery, in which Inness (1825-1894), the most significant of the group, shows a spirit very similar to that of the Barbizon painters. All this, however was prior to the first World's Fair held in America in 1876. "On this occasion there were exhibited in this country collections of pictures from abroad, which made such a powerful impression on the native artists that 1876 is generally taken as the date when the third period of American art begins—a period during which the technical skill of the artists has been developed to such a degree that it may be said to be inferior to none. . . . After 1876 most art students went to France."—E. von Mach, *Art of painting in the nineteenth century*, p. 107.—Whistler (1834-1903) had already received his training under Courbet. Influenced somewhat by Velasquez and by Japanese art, he is nevertheless one of the most original artists of America or of Europe in the nineteenth century. Sargent (1856-) is the foremost portraitist. In mural painting Abbey (1852-1911), La Farge (1835-1910) and Blashfield (1848 —), as well as Sargent and many others, have been pioneers. In landscape and marine views Enneking (1841-), Martin (1836-1897), and Homer (1836-1910), are perhaps the best known of a large number of distinguished painters.—See also AMERICAN ACADEMY IN ROME; ART INSTITUTE, CHICAGO; NEW YORK CITY: 1870-1921.

Europe (19th century).—Modern tendencies.—Painting in the nineteenth century displays such variety and complexity that little more is possible than a mere enumeration of names. "In France, painting reflected social conditions more accurately, perhaps, than elsewhere. Following the collapse of Court influence [there] arose in art a cold classicism of which Louis David [1748-1825] stood at the head. This man, who was a child of the Revolution, became Court painter to Napoleon, and originated the 'Empire' or Neo-Greek style. . . . After the Restoration . . . Ingres [1780-1867] was at the head of the Classicist school which harked back to the antique and which put its trust in perfect draughtsmanship; while Delacroix [1798-1863], a great colourist of fine imagination, was at the head of the Romanticists. Battles raged between the two groups and their respective followers. This state of affairs was succeeded by the Barbizon revolt [headed by Rousseau, and including Tryon, Dupré, Jacque, Daubigny, Diaz, and others, besides the poet-painter, Corot (1796-1875) and the great interpreter of peasant-life, Millet (1814-1875)]. . . . Then arose the plein-airists, and at their front Bastien-Lepage, and finally the Impressionists . . . represented by such men as Monet and Manet and Degas. . . . The Academic school continued to

flourish in France during the nineteenth century as revealed in the work of such accomplished painters as Meissonier, Bouguereau, Delaroche, Fleury, Gérôme, and others almost as well known. A certain sub-group of this school, called Orientalists, went to the East for their subjects, colour, and general picturesque sumptuousness. Among these were Decamps, Fromentin, Marilhat, Gérôme. The most noted decorative wall painters were P. de Chavannes (1824-1898) and Besnard; and finally, among the so-called Intimists, Le Sidaner was first."—R. H. Bell, *Philosophy of painting*, pp. 192-193.—The work of the Post-Impressionists, Cezanne, Matisse, Picasso (Spanish) and Gauguin, which was vehemently fought over by the critics in the years immediately before the World War, was a return to primitive forms and methods, even so primitive as Negro and Polynesian art, in a search for "significant form." The movement has a considerable following, both in France and America. In England the century began with a new movement in landscape painting, in which the greatest names are those of Constable (1776-1837) and Turner (1775-1851). The former was "the prototype of the 1830 movement in France; indeed, he was the great leavening spirit of landscape art. . . . It was he who interpreted with profound sympathy the meaning of field and wood and the changing moods of weather. . . . Turner, in his turn, was the spiritual link between Lorrain and the French Impressionists."—*Ibid.*, pp. 169-171.—Aside from the landscapists there were also a number of genre and animal painters, Wilkie, Morland, Landseer, etc. But in general the level of art was very low when in 1848 Rossetti, Millais and Hunt formed the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. (See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1833-1909.) They believed that honesty of workmanship and truth were to be seen only in works antedating Raphael, and found their inspiration in medieval romance and legend. Later adherents of the school were Burne-Jones, Crane, whose illustrations are one of its finest products, and Watts. At the same time Scotch painting achieved distinction under Orchardson (1835-1910) and Lavery (1857 —). At present the best known painters are perhaps Frank Brangwyn (1867 —), illustrator, decorator and colorist, and Sir William Orpen (1878 —), the official portrait painter of the war, and of the peace conference. German painting has run a similar course to that in other countries. "The classic enthusiasm kindled among German artists in the eighteenth century by Carstens and Mengs continued in the early nineteenth century with Genelli, Preller, and Rottmann, all of whom sought inspiration in the study of the antique. . . . There is a strong similarity of aim between the German Classicists and those other Germans who did not go quite so far back for their inspiration, but sought it in the Middle Ages. These men are known as Romanticists, and since their leaders were deeply religious men, most of them Roman Catholics who loved to tell the story of Christ, they are also called Nazarenes. The best representative of the Nazarenes was Overbeck (1789-1869). . . . The pioneer Realist of Germany was Leibl (1846-1900). . . . A greater man than Leibl was Menzel (1815-1904). . . . Franz von Lenbach (1836-1904) vied with him in popular favor. . . . In recent years a school of open-air (*plein air*) painters has risen in Germany,—the so-called Impressionists, or, as they are better known, Secessionists, because since 1883 they have withdrawn from participation in official exhibitions. . . . Their point of view is very much akin to that prevalent in America. . . . Max Liebermann

(1849 —) may be said to be the father of the movement."—E. von Mach, *Art of painting in the nineteenth century*, pp. 38-56.—Painting in Spain, Flanders and Holland, has never regained its seventeenth century splendor. The modern Belgian school, however, has magnificent ease and beauty of execution. The Spanish Fortuny (1838-1874) and Zuloaga (1870 —) have had great influence. The Dutch Jozef Israels (1824-1911) has continued in the spirit of Millet. Russia and the Scandinavian countries show, especially brilliantly in the case of Sweden (Anders Leonard Zorn, 1860 —) the influence of the various French schools. Except perhaps for England, modern painting is acquiring an international character. The currents are less and less national, determined rather by individual ideals of art. In every country there are impressionists, classicists, realists. Not only Europe, but the older arts of Asia are experiencing this growth of cosmopolitan character. In this last case the result is probably merely a phase of decadence. Developed almost wholly independently of Europe, painting in Asia attained its climax centuries ago.

Asiatic.—India and Persia.—"The traditions of craftsmanship in the East are fixed and persistent. Everywhere, in India, in Turkestan, in China, in Japan, we find the same method of fresco-painting on lime, with a strong expressive outline and clear coloring. It corresponds to what is known of the earlier type of painting in Greece itself. The presumption of an Early Asiatic style of painting diffused as widely as the shores of the Mediterranean is one that is likely to win general acceptance. It was from this primitive style, we may presume, that the various countries of Asia developed each a national character of art, always however retaining a common base of character. In the greatest series of early Indian frescoes which are still preserved, art has become mature. . . . Ajanta is not less worthy of a pilgrimage than is Assisi; and these paintings are more important in the history of the art of Asia than is any one group of Italian frescoes in the history of the art of Europe. Indian painting here dawns in splendor. Besides Ajanta, there are a few other sites where frescoes, similar in style and inspiration, and belonging to the same period, have been found. But the destruction by Mohammedan invaders, one must surmise, has been immense, to say nothing of the ravages of time and neglect; for from the seventh century onward, so far as is known, practically nothing seems to have survived till the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when the art of painting reappears in a different form and on a smaller scale. Buddhist art was to flourish exceedingly outside the borders of India,—in Turkestan, in China, in Tibet, in Japan; but in the land of its birth it died out, like the religion itself. . . . [The later Indian style was derived from that of Persia.] Persian painting really begins with the fall of Bagdad and its destruction by the Mongols in the thirteenth century. The Mongols had conquered China in the same century. But now the invading Mongols brought in their wake Chinese artists, and China from that time exercised a constant influence on Persian painting. . . . Whatever the influence of China, the creative and essential part of Persian painting is truly Persian; and the race of Ivan seems always to have been gifted with a fine sense of color, and with the instinct for design. . . . Persian painting, as we know it in its purest and finest form, is an art of miniature. It is small in scale, whether in the form of illustrations to manuscripts or of albums of single drawings. The drawings are often

in outline of an exquisite quality, with perhaps a few touches of color. . . . But the most characteristic Persian painting is richly colored. And in certain qualities Persian color is unsurpassed. . . . The high horizon and bird's-eye-view perspective are common to Asiatic art and to much of the earlier art of Europe. But in Persia there is no development, as with the Chinese and Japanese, in the direction of a landscape art. . . . The painters remain content with a prescribed convention and their efforts seem wholly absorbed in getting the utmost possible richness from their chosen materials. Accepting these narrow limitations, they achieved wonderful things. . . . Persian painting corresponds most nearly, I suppose, to the popular conception of the East and Eastern art, founded on the glowing pages of the Arabian Nights. In the history of the world's art it is a kind of backwater; but it is certainly a chapter that we could ill afford to lose. The Persian style and Persian example were carried into India by the Mogul conquerors and the descendants of Tamerlane. The great emperor, Akbar, who died at the beginning of the seventeenth century, encouraged art at his court. Though the Persian tradition by this time was enfeebled and degenerate, it was taken up by the Hindus. The great majority of the Indian paintings generally seen belong to the Mogul school thus created. . . . But after all the Mogul school represents a hybrid art. It is neither wholly Indian nor wholly Persian. And there is more living interest in the purely Indian styles which existed side by side with the Mogul school. This genuine Indian painting, the product chiefly of valleys of the Himalayas to which the Mohammedan conquerors had not penetrated, is still very little known. . . . Untouched by Persian influence, these Indian drawings contrast strongly in their airy delicacy and intimate humanity with the extravagant, feverish effort, the loaded ornament and inchoate design, which mark so much of later Indian sculpture."—L. Binyon, *Art of Asia (Atlantic Monthly, Sept., 1915, pp. 349-357)*.—"Very recently there has been a revival of painting in Calcutta, led by Abanindronath and Gogonendronath Tagore, nephews of the poet, and their pupils. This new school is at once archaistic and eclectic, and marks a restoration in taste rather than a new development of creative power."—A. K. Coomaraswamy, *Arts and Decoration, Nov., 1918, p. 8*.

Chinese.—Antiquity.—Development to the close of the Ming dynasty.—Decadence under Manchu Tatars.—"Through a legend we learn that the art of China goes as far back as 4,500 years, when the Chinamen were ruled by the Yellow Emperor, from whose reign date the arts and crafts of mankind. . . . Already in 220 B.C. Chinese art attained such a degree of perfection that it was said of an artist of the name of Lieh Yü, that he painted phoenixes and dragons without pupils in their eyes lest they should fly away. . . . The Wei dynasty, 220-265 A.D., furnished only four painters, while that of the Chin, 265-420, produced twenty-two artists whose names have been handed down. Amongst those was Wang Hsi-chih, 321-379 A.D., China's greatest calligraphist, whose writing was 'light as floating clouds, vigorous as a startled dragon.' We see them—although we cannot judge the artistic value of the pictures of this period, for we do not know of any till we come to the fourth century—that there was an active and vigorous artistic movement in China; for we find names of artists, art criticism, and artistic allusions. The Chinese literature refers so often to art that we are able to

form a clear idea as to what kind of art flourished then. The favorite subjects were the phoenix, dragon, and lion; pictures of animals were common, and portrait-painting was prevalent. . . . It is plain that the art that was capable of producing such a masterpiece as [that] . . . painted by Ku K'ai-chih, entitled 'Admonitions of the Instructress in the Palace,' the greatest art treasure of the whole collection of the British Museum, . . . was not in its infancy. This unsurpassable masterpiece was painted between 364 and 405 A.D. . . . There is not one picture painted between the fourth and eighth centuries in existence—except perhaps somewhere in China—although history has on its roll a great many artists. But during this long period two symbolic conceptions were constantly reproduced; these were the Tiger and the Dragon—both emblems of power. The Dragon was the genius of water, producing mists and clouds; he represented also the power of the spirit of the infinite, of change. The Tiger was the genius of the mountains, whose roaring is heard in the wind; he represents the power of material forces. . . . The introduction of Buddhism brought into Chinese art numberless deities, not only various personifications of Buddha and Budhisattva, but hundreds of other forms, borrowed from Indian mythology, from which was also derived grotesqueness. . . . Such were the state and tendency of Chinese art, when, in 618, the era of the T'ang dynasty opened; it lasted until 905, and was not only the period of China's greatest political power, but also of her most vigorous, although not most perfect art, and of important poetry. The efforts of the artists of this period were to develop and to perfect the art of line—which was the ordinary Asiatic style—to make it express not only the forms of reality but also the much-desired rhythmical beauty. This union of painting with calligraphy was best effected by Wu Tao-Tzu, who is one of the most celebrated names in the history of Chinese art. . . . In 907 the T'ang dynasty succumbed to its destiny, and before the rise of the Sung house, which lasted from 960 to 1280, five unimportant dynasties emerged only soon to disappear. The Sung period of three hundred years is the one most splendid for art, which then reached its zenith, in spite of the dwindling power of the Empire. The love of Nature introduced by Lao Tzu, and developed by the Zen sect,—the Conversationalists,—into a doctrine of contemplation of the world, became the dominating thought of the age. . . . The characteristics of this period are a supreme refinement and most exquisite finish, the brush-line temperate and quiet, yet sensitive and alive; the space perfectly balanced; the coloring noble and harmonious, although subordinate, to form and very often eliminated. . . . The over-refined Sungs could not withstand the pressing power of the barbarous Mongols. . . . However, the civilizing power of the Chinese was so strong that the Mongols soon became imbued with it, and Kub-lai Khan, having elevated Peking to the dignity of his capital, fostered literature and art, and so continued the glorious Sung period. . . . The Mongols were expelled from China in 1368; the Ming dynasty sat on the throne of the Dragon until 1644. In the first part of this period art continued the tradition of the house of Sung, was flourishing and important, notwithstanding that Chinese artists forsook the loftiness of the eleventh and twelfth centuries for an external magnificence, and abandoned the simple beauty of monochrome for sensuous coloring. . . . The year 1644 witnessed the downfall of the house of Ming. . . . Pedantry,

which began to show its destructive power on literature and art during the Ming period, caused a decadence under the Manchu Tartars. . . . A Chinese art critic, named Chang Keng, describes what an unfortunate result was obtained by Chinese artists who wished to imitate the European manner of painting. 'He depicted,' says the Chinese *littérateur* of a European artist, 'a woman holding a little child, declaring that this last was a representation of God.' The projection and coloring of these were very fascinating; and the artist himself maintained that the Chinese could only paint flat surfaces, consequently there was no projection or depression—relief—on their pictures. "We, in our country," he said, "paint both the light and the dark, so that the result shows projection and depression. A man's full face is light, and the side parts are dark. If the side parts are colored dark in a picture the face will appear in relief." Chiao acquired this art, and modified his style accordingly, but the result was not refined or convincing. Lovers of antiquity would do well not to adopt this method.' This judicious advice, however, was not followed; and some Chinese artists took a fancy to European naturalism, with the result that modern Chinese art is in decay, especially with those artists who do not even follow their great old masters, if they are incapable of creative work."—Comte de Soissons, *Pictorial art of Asia* (*Living Age*, June 17, 1911, pp. 711-717).

Japanese.—Influence of China.—Development at the time of Hideyoshi.—Koyetsu and the Korin school.—Shijo and Ukiyo schools.—Painting in Japan, like nearly all the other arts, was originally derived from that of China. "The vogue of the Kano masters grew as that of Tosa waned, until the extravagant splendor of a Napoleonic conqueror, Hideyoshi, at the end of the sixteenth century gave to Japan an entirely new style of gorgeous decoration. This culminated with the grandson of Motonobu, Kano Yeitoku and his followers. Castles and palaces of hitherto unknown magnificence arose everywhere. They had to be furnished with pictures and wall paintings in keeping, heavy with gold and richly coloured. Screens in this style were set up along the road for miles when the great lord traveled. The reaction was quick in coming. Japan was closed once more by the Tokugawa Shoguns (1587-1867) and her artists turned again toward an earlier simplicity. Again Japan devoted herself to assimilating Chinese elements received during the preceding era, and giving them a new expression, with a richness of invention in the use of natural forms and a brilliancy of colour hitherto unknown. All through the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries the Kano academy remained the aristocratic school at the Shogun's court, with Tanyu, the last great master, as its leader. But there came several new developments in the native Japanese art. Another aristocratic school more characteristically Japanese, that of Korin, centered about the court of the Mikado, while equally important, among the lower classes, entirely new and different schools of art arose. The times were changing. The people were beginning to have a voice. The school of Korin, whose great master was Koyetsu, flourished during the seventeenth century, and united the splendor of gold leaf, colour and noble design, of Kano Yeitoku, with the more national spirit of the older Tosa painters. . . . Line was subordinated. Flat masses of colour, sometimes glowing and sometimes somberly revealing themselves in rare gleams, lent a refinement to screens which might otherwise have de-

generated into the merely gorgeous. Gold was used lavishly, in the delicate veining of a leaf as well as in great solid bands forming the backgrounds. It was an art which utilized as never before the decorative values of masses of flowers. Yet it was like nothing in nature. It was, rather, a new convention, a realization of the pure beauty of

tradition alive for many generations. Often it was by an undeniable streak of inherited genius, and when that failed, it was maintained by adoption. As official painters of the Fujiwara Shoguns (794-1186), the Tosa maintained a 'strange and sumptuous art far removed from Chinese impressionism,' in essence purely Japanese. Here we



GANKU (1798-1837)

colour, bold and yet refined, and of a composition in which decorative, rather than pictorial, values were emphasized. The main schools or styles into which Japanese painting is divided are . . . in general, . . . the Tosa, the Kano with its later development into the decorative school of Korin, and finally the more popular Shijo and Ukio-Ye schools. The earliest of these schools was a fusion of the early styles which, following the first impetus from China, flourished before the eleventh century. The name, Tosa, was that of one of those painter families which kept a single

see those interiors seen as though below the level of the eye, with the roofs off—rich with incrusts of gold. Flat masses represent conventional clouds and cut off the non-essential, affording a richly decorative whole, finely balanced and perfectly related to its architectural setting. Whenever Japanese art breaks with its Chinese antecedents it reverts to the principles of design which this style inaugurated. Following the early magnificence of the Tosa painters there came a return under the Ashikaga Shoguns (1368-1644) to the Chinese influence, particularly the landscape painters of the

Sung Dynasty in which Sesshu, perhaps Japan's greatest painter, was the leading spirit. This was the period of the idealism and chivalry of Zen Buddhism, which took a great hold upon the people, replacing the lofty abstractions of preceding sects. Chinese ideals were also powerful in painters of the Kano family, a style which has continued to the present from the era of Kano Masanobu, who lived in the latter part of the fifteenth century. For a time he was the single thread which continued the Chinese tradition, maintaining the classical style of Sesshu and his followers, but at the same time adding a certain freedom and intensity, born of a supreme need of self-control in an epoch of internal struggle. With his son, Kano Motonobu, classed with Sesshu among the great painters of Japan, there began a second general assimilation of the Chinese idealism with the freer, more vital spirit of Japan. Meanwhile the populace was becoming interested in art, heretofore a prerogative of the nobility [largely as a result of the perfecting of wood-block printing, a process which made art accessible to them]. Among the artificers and tradesmen of the two capitals, Kioto and Yedo (Tokio), there arose popular bourgeois schools, of which the best known are the Shijo and Ukio-ye. . . . Under Okio and his followers, the Shijo painters introduced a new realism. They chose familiar landscapes about Kioto, and the birds and beasts which their public knew, upon which to found a style, at once intimate and vigorous, even though it lacked in great part the spirituality and depth of earlier masters. Similarly, the Ukio-ye school was characterized by its scenes from the gay life of the people—the theatres and *yoshiwara*—and corresponds somewhat to the late growth of *genre* with us. This was the art of the East which first became recognized in the West."—*Japanese art (International Studio, Aug., 1917, pp. 34-35)*.—This popular art, which has received so much praise from other countries, is considered by the Japanese very inferior in conception and in delicacy of line. So also the recent adoption of western forms and ideals of painting, in which the Japanese have shown their characteristic facility, is considered a decadent movement. It must not be thought, however that the greatest painting of the world is already done. "The realm of the Art of Painting, so far from being exhausted, increases its domain in every century—at times by such small advances as almost to show no advance. But steadily, as man's sensations of the experience of life increase, so increases generosity of soul to share those sensations of experience with his fellows. His path thereto is through the faculty of the arts. Therefore it is by the arts alone that man shall reach to the fulness of life."—H. Macfall, *Concerning the art of painting*, pp. 7-8.—See also EDUCATION, ART: Modern: Japan.

ALSO IN: M. S. Anderson, *Study of modern painting*.—B. Berenson, *Central Italian painters of the Renaissance*.—Idem, *Florentine painters of the Renaissance*.—Idem, *North Italian painters of the Renaissance*.—Idem, *Venetian painters of the Renaissance*.—L. Binyon, *Flight of the dragon*.—Idem, *Painting in the Far East*.—P. Brown, *Indian painting*.—C. H. Caffin, *How to study pictures*.—K. Cox, *Masters, old and new*.—A. K. Coomaraswamy, *Rajput painting*.—J. A. Crowe and C. B. Cavalcaselle, *History of painting in Italy*.—J. A. Crowe and C. B. Cavalcaselle, *Early Flemish painters*.—Lady Dilke, *French painters of the eighteenth century*.—E. F. Fenollosa, *Epochs of Chinese and Japanese art*.—E. F. Fenollosa, *Masters of Ukiyo*.—E. Grosse, *Beginnings of art*.

—A. Holber, *Barbizon painters*.—J. G. Huneker, *Promenades of an impressionist*.—F. T. Kugler, *Handbook of painting*.—A. P. Laurie, *Materials of the painters' craft*.—W. Lübke, *History of art*.—H. McFall, *History of painting*.—E. Michel, *Great masters of landscape painting*.—C. Monkhouse, *British contemporary painting*.—J. Ruskin, *Mornings in Florence*.—Idem, *Modern painters*.—C. H. Stranahan, *History of French painting*.—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy*.—J. C. Van Dyke, *Meaning of pictures*.—A. Woltmann and K. Woermann, *History of painting*.—G. Vasari, *Lives of the painters*.

PAINTSVILLE, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1862 (January-February).

PAIONIANS, Thracian race. See ALBANIA: Medieval period.

PAKENHAM, Sir Edward Michael (1778-1815), British general. Commander of an expedition against American forces at New Orleans, 1814, during the Peninsular War. See U.S.A.: 1815 (January).

PALA, dynasty of Bengal in the ninth century A.D. See BENGAL.

PALACE, Origin of name.—The house of the first of the Roman emperors, Augustus, was on the Palatine hill, which has been appropriated by the nobility for their residence from the earliest age of the republic. The residence of Augustus was a quite ordinary mansion until A. U. C. 748 (6 B. C.) when it was destroyed by fire. It was then rebuilt on a grander scale, the people contributing, in small individual sums—a kind of popular testimonial—to the cost. Augustus affected to consider it public property, and gave up a large part of it to the recreation of the citizens. His successors added to it, and built more and more edifices connected with it; so that, naturally, it appropriated to itself the name of the hill, and came to be known as the Palatium, or Palace.—Based on C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 40.

PALACKY, Francis, or Ferencz (1798-1876), Bohemian historian. See HISTORY: 29; BOHEMIAN LITERATURE: Its significance.

PALÆOGRAPHY. See HISTORY: 10.

PALÆOLITHIC PERIOD. See STONE AGE; EUROPE: Prehistoric: Stone Age; Paleolithic art, etc.

PALÆOLOGOI, family that occupied the Greek imperial throne, at Nicæa and at Constantinople, from 1260, when Michael Palæologus seized the crown, until the empire was extinguished by the Turks in 1453.—Based on E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 62.

ALSO IN: J. E. Tennant, *History of modern Greece*.

PALÆONTOLOGY. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.

PALÆPOLIS. See NEAPOLIS AND PALÆPOLIS.

PALÆSTRA, Greek gymnasium. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece; GYMNASIA, GREEK.

PALÆ-TYRUS, ancient Tyre. See TYRE.

PALAIS ROYAL, former French royal residence in Paris. See FRANCE: 1642-1643.

PALATINATE OF THE RHINE.—The Palatine Electorate or Palatinate (Pfalz in German), arose in the breaking up of the old Duchy of Franconia. See FRANCONIA; PALATINE, COUNTS; GERMANY: 1125-1272.

1214.—Acquisition by Wittelsbach or Bavarian House.—The House of Wittelsbach (or Wesselbach), which acquired the Duchy of Bavaria in 1180, came also into possession of the Palatinate of the Rhine in 1214. (See BAVARIA: 1180-1356.)

In the next century the two possessions were divided. "Rudolph, the elder brother of Louis III [the emperor, known as Louis the Bavarian] inherited the County Palatine, and formed a distinct line from that of Bavaria for many generations. The electoral dignity was attached to the Palatine branch."—A. Halliday, *Annals of the House of Hanover*, v. 1, p. 424.

1512.—Formation of the circle. See GERMANY: 1493-1519.

1518-1572.—Protestant Reformation.—Ascendancy of Calvinism.—"The Electors Palatine of the Rhine might be justly regarded, during the whole course of the 16th century, as more powerful princes than those of Brandenburg. The lower Palatine, of which Heidelberg was then the capital, formed a considerable tract of country, situate on the banks of the Rhine and the Neckar, in a fertile, beautiful, and commercial part of Germany. . . . The upper Palatinate, a detached and distant province situated between Bohemia, Franconia, and Bavaria, which constituted a part of the Electoral dominions, added greatly to their political weight, as members of the Germanic body. . . . Under Louis V., Luther began to disseminate his doctrines at Heidelberg, which were eagerly and generally imbibed; the moderate character of the Elector, by a felicity rare in that age, permitting the utmost freedom of religious opinion, though he continued, himself, to profess the Catholic faith. His successors, who withdrew from the Romish see, openly declared their adherence to Lutheranism; but, on the accession of Frederic III., a new ecclesiastical revolution took place. He was the first among the Protestant German princes who introduced and professed the reformed religion denominated Calvinism. As the toleration accorded by the 'Peace of religion' to those who embraced the 'Confession of Augsburg,' did not in a strict and legal sense extend to or include the followers of Calvin, Frederick might have been proscribed and put to the Ban of the Empire; nor did he owe his escape so much to the lenity of friendship of the Lutherans, as to the mild generosity of Maximilian II., who then filled the Imperial throne, and who was an enemy to every species of persecution. Frederic III., animated with zeal for the support of the Protestant cause, took an active part in the wars which desolated the kingdom of France under Charles IX., protected all the French exiles who fled to his court or dominions; and twice sent succours, under the command of his son John Casimir, to Louis, Prince of Condé, then in arms, at the head of the Hugonots."—N. W. Wraxall, *History of France*, v. 2, pp. 163-165.—See also PAPACY: 1570-1597.

1608.—Elector at head of Evangelical Union. See GERMANY: 1608-1618.

1619-1620.—Acceptance of crown of Bohemia by the elector. See GERMANY: 1618-1620.

1621-1623.—Elector placed under ban of empire.—Devastation and conquest of his dominions.—Electoral dignity transferred to duke of Bavaria. See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

1631-1632.—Temporary recovery by Gustavus Adolphus.—Obstinate bigotry of the elector. See GERMANY: 1631-1632.

1632-1633.—Death of Frederick V.—Treaty with Swedes.—Nominal restoration of young elector. See GERMANY: 1632-1634.

1648.—Division in Peace of Westphalia.—Restoration of Lower Palatinate to old electoral family.—Annexation of Upper Palatinate to Bavaria.—Recreated electorate. See GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia; Map: At peace of Westphalia.

1674.—In coalition against Louis XIV.—Rav-

aged by Turenne. See NETHERLANDS: 1672-1674; 1674-1678.

1679-1681.—Encroachments by France upon territory of the elector. See FRANCE: 1679-1681.

1686.—Claims of Louis XIV in name of duchess of Orleans. See GERMANY: 1686.

1689.—Second devastation and War of the League of Augsburg. See FRANCE: 1689-1690, to 1695-1696.

1697.—Peace of Ryswick.—Restitutions by France. See FRANCE: 1697.

1705.—Upper Palatinate restored to the elector. See GERMANY: 1705.

1709-1710.—Emigration of inhabitants to England, thence to Ireland and America. See PALATINES: 1709-1710.

1714.—Upper Palatinate ceded to elector of Bavaria in exchange for Sardinia. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1755-1756.—In alliance against Prussia.—Seven Years' War. See GERMANY: 1755-1756.

1801-1815.—Division by treaties of Lunéville and Vienna.—The Palatinate was made a pawn of war during the Napoleonic period. By the Treaty of Lunéville (1801) it was divided between France (to whom the territory on the right bank of the Rhine was ceded), Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, Leiningen and Nassau. The right bank was returned by France under the terms of the Treaty of Vienna (1815), but was divided between Bavaria, Hesse-Darmstadt and Prussia, and the Palatinate as a political entity ceased to exist.—See also GERMANY: 1801-1803.

PALATINATES, American, royal grants with royal privileges in American colonies. See MARYLAND: 1632; NEW ALBION; MAINE: 1639; NEW-FOUNDLAND: 1610-1655; NORTH CAROLINA: 1669-1693.

PALATINE, Counts.—In Germany, under the early emperors, after the dissolution of the dominion of Charlemagne, an office came into existence called that of the "comes palatii"—count palatine. This office was created in the interest of the sovereign, as a means of diminishing the power of the local rulers. The counts palatine were appointed as their coadjutors, often with a concurrent and sometimes with a sole jurisdiction. Their "functions were more extensive than those of the ancient 'missi dominici.' Yet the office was different. Under the Carolingian emperors there had been one dignitary with that title, who received appeals from all the secular tribunals of the empire. The missi dominici were more than his mere colleagues, since they could convoke any cause pending before the ordinary judges and take cognizance of more serious cases even in the first instance. As the missi were disused, and as the empire became split among the immediate descendants of Louis le Debonnaire, the count palatine (comes palatii) was found inadequate to his numerous duties; and coadjutors were provided him for Saxony, Bavaria, and Swabia. After the elevation of Arnulf, however, most of these dignities ceased; and we read of one count palatine only—the count or duke of Franconia or Rhenish France. Though we have reason to believe that this high functionary continued to receive appeals from the tribunals of each duchy, he certainly could not exercise over them a sufficient control; nor, if his authority were undisputed, could he be equal to his judicial duties. Yet to restrain the absolute jurisdiction of his princely vassals was no less the interest of the people than the sovereign; and in this view Atho I. restored, with even increased powers, the provincial counts palatine. He gave them not only the appellat jurisdiction of the ancient comes palatii, but the primary one

of the *missi dominici*. . . . They had each a castle, the wardenship of which was intrusted to officers named *burggraves*, dependent on the count palatine of the province. In the sequel, some of these *burggraves* became princes of the empire."—S. A. Dunham, *History of the Germanic empire*, v. 1, pp. 120-121.

PALATINE, Elector. See GERMANY: 1125-1272; PALATINATE OF THE RHINE.

PALATINE, English counties.—"The policy of the Norman kings stripped the earls of their official character. They ceased to have local jurisdiction or authority. Their dignity was of a personal nature, and they must be regarded rather as the foremost of the barons, and as their peers, than as a distinct order in the state. . . . An exception to the general policy of William [the Conqueror] as to earldoms was made in those governments which, in the next century, were called palatine. These were founded in Cheshire, and perhaps in Shropshire, against the Welsh, and in the bishopric of Durham both to oppose the Scots, and to restrain the turbulence of the northern people, who slew Walcher, the first earl-bishop, for his ill government. An earl palatine had royal jurisdiction within his earldom. So it was said of Hugh, earl of Chester, that he held his earldom in right of his sword, as the king held all England in right of his crown. All tenants-in-chief held of him; he had his own courts, took the whole proceeds of jurisdiction, and appointed his own sheriff. The statement that Bishop Odo had palatine jurisdiction in Kent may be explained by the functions which he exercised as justiciary."—W. Hunt, *Norman Britain*, pp. 118-119.—"The earldom of Chester has belonged to the eldest son of the sovereign since 1396; the palatinate jurisdiction of Durham was transferred to the crown in 1836 by act of Parliament, 6 Will. IV, c. 19."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, ch. 9, sect. 98, footnote.

PALATINE, Hungarian. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

PALATINE, Irish counties.—"The franchise of a county palatine gave a right of exclusive civil and criminal jurisdiction; so that the king's writ should not run, nor his judges come within it, though judgment in its courts might be reversed by writ of error in the king's bench. The lord might enfeoff tenants to hold by knights' service of himself; he had almost all regal rights; the lands of those attained for treason escheated to him; he acted in every thing rather as one of the great feudatories of France or Germany than a subject of the English crown. . . . In Ireland this dangerous independence was permitted to Strongbow in Leinster, to Lacy in Meath, and at a later time to the Butlers and Geraldines in parts of Munster. Strongbow's vast inheritance soon fell to five sisters, who took to their shares, with the same palatine rights, the counties of Carlow, Wexford, Kilkenny, Kildare, and the district of Leix, since called the Queen's County. In all these palatinates, forming by far the greater portion of the English territories, the king's process had its course only within the lands belonging to the church."—H. Hallam, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 3, ch. 18.

PALATINE GUARD, guard of honor in the papal service. See VATICAN: 1744.

PALATINE HILL: Palatine city.—Seven mounts.—"The town which in the course of centuries grew up as Rome, in its original form embraced according to trustworthy testimony only the Palatine, or 'square Rome' (*Roma quadrata*), as it was called in later times from the irregularly quadrangular form of the Palatine hill. The gates

and walls that enclosed this original city remained visible down to the period of the empire. . . . Many traces indicate that this was the centre and original seat of the urban settlement. . . . The 'festival of the Seven Mounts' (*'septimontium'*), again, preserved the memory of the more extended settlement which gradually formed round the Palatine. Suburbs grew up one after another, each protected by its own separate though weaker circumvallation and joined to the original ring-wall of the Palatine. . . . The 'Seven Rings' were, the Palatine itself, the *cermalus*, the slope of the Palatine in the direction of the morass that in the earliest times extended between it and the *Capitoline* (*velabrum*); the *Velia*, the ridge which connected the Palatine with the *Esquiline*, but in subsequent times was almost wholly obliterated by the buildings of the empire; the *Fagatal*, the *Oppius*, and the *Cispus*, the three summits of the *Esquiline*; lastly, the *Sucusa*, or *Subura*, a fortress constructed outside of the earthen rampart which protected the new town on the *Carinae*, in the low ground between the *Esquiline* and the *Quirinal*, beneath *S. Pietro in Vincoli*. These additions, manifestly the result of a gradual growth, clearly reveal to a certain extent the earliest history of the Palatine Rome. . . . The Palatine city of the Seven Mounts may have had a history of its own; no other tradition of it has survived than simply that of its having once existed. But as the leaves of the forest make room for the new growth of spring, although they fall unseen by human eyes, so has this unknown city of the Seven Mounts made room for the Rome of history."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 4.—See also *PALLIA*; *QUIRINAL*; *ROME*: Ancient kindgom: B. C. 753-510; *SEVEN HILLS OF ROME*.

PALATINE LIBRARY. See LIBRARIES: Ancient: Rome.

PALATINES: 1709-1710.—Migration to Ireland and America.—"The citizens of London [England] were astonished to learn, in May and June, 1709, that 5,000 men, women and children, Germans from the Rhine, were under tents in the suburbs. By October the number had increased to 13,000, and comprised husbandmen, tradesmen, school teachers and ministers. These emigrants had deserted the Palatinate, owing to French oppression and the persecution by their prince, the elector John William, of the House of Newburgh, who had become a devoted Romanist, though his subjects were mainly Lutherans and Calvinists. Professor Henry A. Homes, in a paper treating of this emigration, read before the Albany Institute in 1871, holds that the movement was due not altogether to unbearable persecutions, but largely to suggestions made to the Palatines in their own country by agents of companies who were anxious to obtain settlers for the British colonies in America, and thus give value to the company's lands. The emigrants were certainly seized with the idea that by going to England its government would transport them to the provinces of New York, the Carolinas, and Pennsylvania. Of the latter province they knew much, as many Germans were already there. . . . Great efforts were made to prevent suffering among these poor people; thousands of pounds were collected for their maintenance from churches and individuals all over England; they were lodged in warehouses, empty dwellings and in barns, and the Queen had a thousand tents pitched for them back of Greenwich, on Blackheath. . . . Notwithstanding the great efforts made by the English people, very much distress followed this unhappy heira. . . . Numbers of the younger men enlisted in the British army serving

in Portugal, and some made their own way to Pennsylvania. . . . The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland petitioned the Queen that some of the people might be sent to him, and by February, 1710, 3,800 had been located across the Irish Sea, in the province of Munster, near Limerick. . . . Professor Homes recites in his monograph that they 'now number about 12,000 souls, and, under the name of Palatines, continue to impress a peculiar character upon the whole district they inhabit.' . . . According to 'Luttrell's Diary,' about one-tenth of the whole number that reached England were returned by the Crown to Germany.' A Swiss land company, which had bought 10,000 acres of land from the lords proprietors of Carolina, "covenanted with the English authorities for the transfer of about 700 of these poor Heidelberg refugees to the colony. Before the end of the year they had arrived with them at a point in North Carolina where the rivers Neuse and Trent join. Here they established a town, calling it New Berne, in honor of Berne, Switzerland. . . . It has not been found possible to properly account for all the 13,000 Palatines who reached England. Queen Anne sent some of them to Virginia, settling them above the falls of the Rappahanock, in Spottsylvania County, from whence they spread into several adjoining counties, and into North Carolina. . . . After the Irish transportation, the largest number that was moved in one body, and probably the final one under government auspices, was the fleet-load that in the spring of 1710 was despatched to New York. . . . A fleet of ten ships set sail with Governor Hunter in March, having on board, as is variously estimated, between 3,000 and 4,000 Germans. . . . The immigrants were encamped on Not, now Governor's Island, for about three months, when a tract of 6,000 acres of the Livingston patent was purchased for them, 100 miles up the Hudson, the locality now being embraced in Germantown, Columbia County. Eight hundred acres were also acquired on the opposite side of the river at the present location of Saugerties, in Ulster County. To these two points most of the immigrants were removed. [But dissatisfaction with their treatment and difficulties concerning land titles impelled many of these Germans to move off, first into Schoharie county, and afterwards to Palatine Bridge, Montgomery county and German Flats, Herkimer county, N. Y., to both of which places they have affixed the names. Others went into Pennsylvania, which was for many years the favorite colony among German immigrants.]"—A. D. Mellick, Jr., *Story of an old farm*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: C. B. Todd, *Robert Hunter and the settlement of the Palatines (Memorial history of the city of New York, v. 2, ch. 4.)*

PALATINI.—"Diocletian . . . was the first to raise a huge Imperial guard. . . . the *Palatini*, who practically superseded the Old Praetorians, a body which Diocletian rightly distrusted, as having for the last century been far too much given to making and unmaking of emperors. . . . How numerous the *Palatini* were at their creation we cannot say; but by the end of the century they appear . . . as a very considerable body. . . . This was, no doubt, a very much stronger force than the original Palatine regiments raised by Diocletian. Each of his successors had added new units to it, as the names 'Honorian,' 'Theodosian,' etc., show. . . . By the end of the century the Imperial guard mustered about twelve thousand horse and eighty thousand foot."—C. Oman, *History of the art of war*, p. 10.

PALATINUS, viceroy of Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

PALAWAN, one of the Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Geographical features.

PALE, English.—"That territory within which the English retreated and fortified themselves when a reaction began to set in after their first success [under Henry II] in Ireland," acquired the name of the Pale or the English Pale. But "that term did not really come into use until about the beginning of the 16th century. In earlier times this territory was called the English Land. It is generally called Galdacht, or the 'foreigner's territory,' in the Irish annals, where the term Galls comes to be applied to the descendants of the early adventurers, and that of Saxons to Englishmen newly arrived. The formation of the Pale is generally considered to date from the reign of Edward I. About the period of which we are now treating [reign of Henry IV—beginning of fifteenth century] it began to be limited to the four counties of Louth, Meath, Kildare, and Dublin, which formed its utmost extent in the reign of Henry VIII. Beyond this the authority of the king of England was a nullity."—M. Haverty, *History of Ireland*, pp. 313-314, foot-note.—See IRELAND: 1169-1200; 1327-1367; 1413-1467; 1513-1535; 1541-1555; 1641.

Irish. See DUBLIN: 12th-14th centuries.

Jewish, in Russia. See JEWS: 1727-1890; 19th century; RUSSIA: 1917 (March-April).

PALE FACES (Ku Klux Klan). See U. S. A.: 1866-1871; KU KLUX KLAN.

PALENQUE, Ruins of. See MEXICO: Ancient; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in Mexico and Central America: Maya area.

PALEOLOGUE, Maurice George (1859-), French diplomat. Ambassador at St. Petersburg, 1914. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 12.

PALÉOLOGUE-SAZONOF AGREEMENT (1916). See ARMENIA: 1919-1920.

PALEOZOIC CONTINENT. See ÆQUINACTIA.

PALERMO, capital of the province of the same name, Sicily, in the western part of the north coast. In 1921 the population was 400,348. It was taken by the Romans from the Carthaginians in 254 B. C., and Augustus established a colony here. In 535 it passed from the Goths into the possession of the Byzantines. It was taken by the Saracens in 835, and became the Moslem capital under the name of Bulirma. In 1071 Palermo, or as it was then known, Panormus, was captured by the Normans, who made it their capital. In 1146 silk culture was introduced (see BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1146). In 1104 the city passed to the Hohenstaufens, and Frederick II evoked a premature Renaissance at his southern court which became one of the most brilliant in Europe. Palermo was the scene of revolts in 1820, 1848-1849 and 1860. In 1890 a national exposition was held here.—See also ITALY (SOUTHERN): 1282-1300; 1848-1849; 1859-1861; PANORMUS.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *History of Sicily*.

PALESTINE: Land.—"Palestine lies between the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea and the Arabian desert. Its northern boundary is the southern slope of Mount Hermon and the River Litany, as it turns abruptly to flow westward into the Mediterranean. Palestine begins where the Lebanons and Anti-Lebanons break into a series of elevated plateaus. Its southern boundary is the varying line drawn east from the southeastern end of the Mediterranean a little south of the Dead Sea at the point where the hills of Judah and the South Country descend to the desert. Palestine therefore lies between 33° 30' and 31° north lati-

tude and 34° and 37° east longitude. Its approximate width is about a hundred miles and its length from north to south only about a hundred and fifty miles. It is, therefore, about the size of the State of Vermont. . . . Palestine is sharply divided by nature into four divisions or zones, which extend in parallel lines from north to south. Along the Great Sea lie the narrow coast plains which broaden in the south into the plains of Sharon and Philistia. The second zone is the central plateau, with hills three or four thousand feet in height in the north, which sink by stages to the large Plain of Esdraelon. South of this

NITES; ESSENES; HITTITES; JEWS: Early Hebrew history; MOABITES; PHILISTINES; PHœNICIANS.

Present-day inhabitants.—“Before the . . . [World War], the country now known as Palestine . . . formed part of the province of Syria under a Turkish Governor-General at Beyrout, together with the small *sanjak* of Jerusalem, corresponding roughly with the ancient Juæa, under a Turkish prefect in direct relation with the central government at Constantinople. There are no physical or ethnical boundaries separating it from Syria. . . . In their origin the people present almost as amazing a kaleidoscope as Palestine



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SHORE OF GALILEE, PALESTINE

great plain lie the fertile hills of Samaria which in turn merge into the stern hills of Judah. These again descend into the low, rocky, rolling hills of the South Country. The third zone is the Jordan and Dead Sea valley which begins at the foot of Mount Hermon and rapidly sinks, until at the Dead Sea it is one thousand two hundred and ninety-two feet below the surface of the ocean. The fourth zone includes the elevated plateaus which extend east of the Jordan and Dead Sea out into the rocky Arabian desert.”—C. F. Kent, *Biblical geography and history*, pp. 13-15.—See also CHRISTIANITY: Map of Palestine in the time of Christ; HOLY LAND.

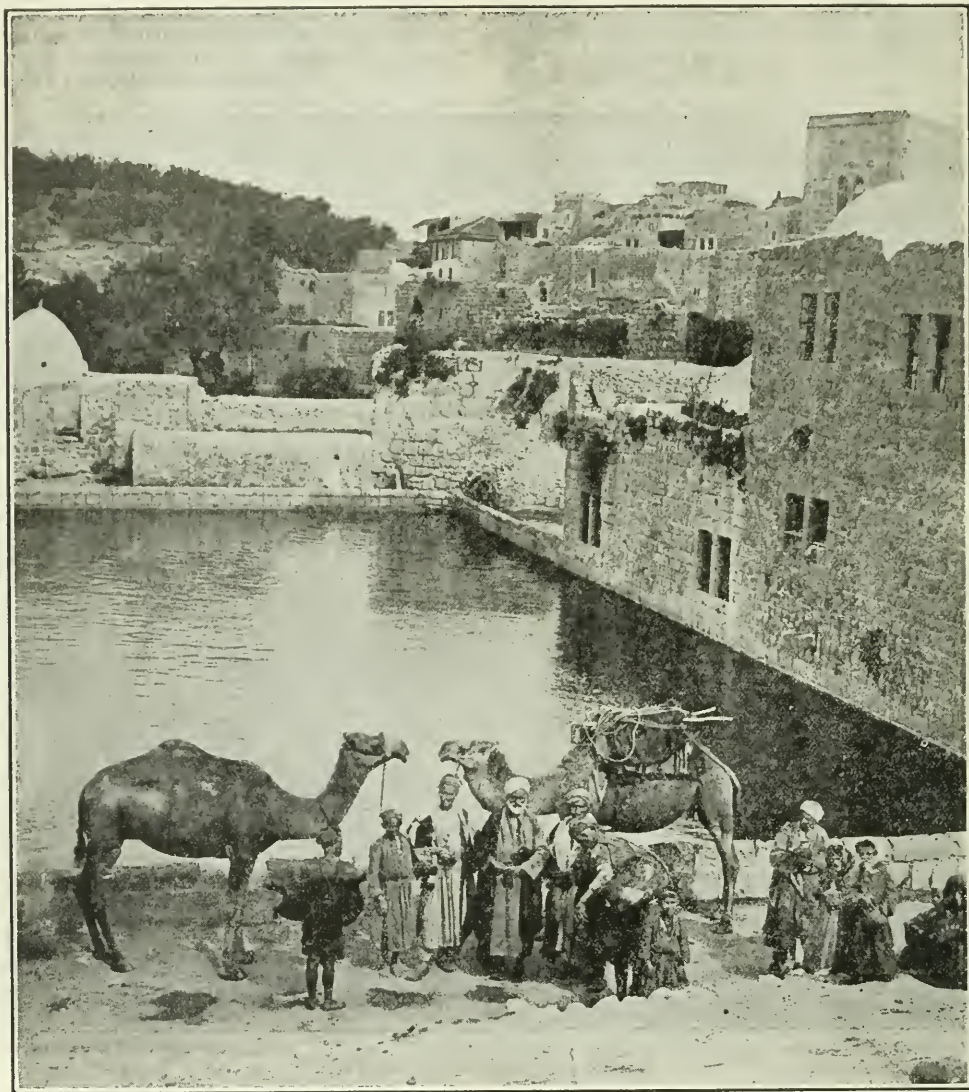
Early Inhabitants. See AMALEKITES; AMMO-

itself. Old Phœnician blood enters largely into their composition with that of Italian, English, and French crusaders; and they are proud of their long pedigrees. There is an Arab strain from the east, and a Philistine-Egyptian from the south. At the cross-roads between north and south and east and west all these elements have conspired to form a type that is refined and beautiful as it is intellectually intelligent. From the language that they speak the [majority of the] people are known collectively as Arabs. They are of a docile, frugal and law-abiding disposition, and are very easily governed by anyone who wins and holds their confidence. . . . The total number at the present time is between 750,000 and 800,000

or about 100 to the square mile. . . . Over 80 per cent. are Moslem, [1921] over 10 per cent. Christian, and the remainder Jews. To the whole of this population the outstanding feature of the country lies in the Holy Places, and they feel responsibility as the people of the Holy Land. . . . The Jews in Palestine are divided into three groups. The first consists of Jews who have lived

Troubles of the Holy Land (Edinburgh Review, Jan., 1922).

Name.—After the suppression of the revolt of the Jews in 130 A.D., by Hadrian, the name of their province was changed from Judæa to Syria Palæstina, or Syria of the Philistines, as it had been called by Herodotus six centuries before. Hence the modern name, Palestine. See JEWS:



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KING'S POOL, HEBRON

Where David hanged the murderers of the sons of King Saul

for centuries in the country, many being of Spanish origin and still speaking Spanish among themselves. The second is a more recent importation, mostly fugitives from Central European persecution in the period before the war, speaking German and Yiddish among themselves. The third group, also from Central Europe and Russia, has immigrated under the auspices of the Zionist organizations during the time of Sir Herbert Samuel . . . [subsequent to the British acceptance of a mandate from the Peace Conference].”—V. Gabriel,

Early Semitic migrations; 130-134.—“The name Palaistina, which Josephus himself uses only of Philistia, was employed by the Greeks to distinguish all Southern Syria, inclusive of Judæa, from Phœnicia and Cœle-Syria. They called it Syria Palaistiné, using the word as an adjective, and then Palaistina, the noun alone. From this the Romans got their Palestina, which in the second century was a separate province, and later on divided into Palestina Prima, Secunda, Tertia. It still survives in the name of the Arab *gund* or

canton—Filistin.”—G. A. Smith, *Atlas of the historical geography of the Holy Land*, p. 4.—See also CANAAN; JERUSALEM; PHILISTINES.

Early history. See EGYPT: About B. C. 1500-1400; JERUSALEM: B. C. 2100-1400; JEWS: Formation of Hebrew nation; Early Hebrew history; Conquest of Canaan; B. C. 537; B. C. 332-167; B. C. 166-40; MOABITES; PHILISTINES; PHENICIANS: Origin.

Ancient architecture.—Solomon's temple. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Palestine; TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented by temple architecture.

Ancient education. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 14th-A. D. 6th centuries.

Ancient historiography. See HISTORY: 14.

B. C. 5th century.—War with Samaritans. See SAMARIA: After the exile.

c. B. C. 165-c. A. D. 33.—**Under Roman dominion.**—“Palestine in Jesus' time was extremely different from what it is now. It was a fat and fertile land, and intensively cultivated, for the ancient Hebrews had a passion for agriculture. Its diverse altitudes, which gave it a varied climate, also made it yield a vast variety of products. It was well watered and timbered and crossed by the great caravan routes between Africa and Asia. It was rather densely populated (one writer estimates five million inhabitants) although we have no reliable data on this point. [See CENSUS: Ancient.] It was indeed a land of plenty, flowing with milk and honey. It was beautiful, and its people were very industrious. Of old it was the land promised to their fathers, and had been looked forward to through all the forty years in the wilderness. To see the Children of Israel established in it was the goal of Moses' endeavour, and under Joshua their blood had been poured out to take the land from the corrupt Canaanites. Throughout the *diaspora* and in all the captivities their soul had yearned for and idealized it. Here they had multiplied and prospered. It had been given them as a patrimony by their deity, and no fatherland has ever been more passionately loved. It had been hallowed by associations with the theocracy and the great prophets, and the memory of the splendid kingdom under David and Solomon. Thus few lands and races in history have been so closely mated. Despite these great advantages the people at the dawn of our era were wretched, depressed, and miserable. Some three score years before, the Romans had feudalized the land and practically made the Hebrews captive in it. Liberty was gone. There were taxes on persons, income, cattle, roads, bridges, movable property, and market sales, and, worst of all, these taxes were farmed out to the highest bidders, who often sublet them and extorted more in the form of forced presents, if not by more aggressive means. These resources went to sustain the Roman courts and armies. Thus the people were kept in bitter poverty in their own land of abundance. They were in perpetual dread of their creditors and venal judges who could enslave debtors, sell their wives and children, and even put them to death. There was thus great economic as well as political tension, and there were occasional outbreaks of revolt, while the strong and long-repressed hope of a great deliverer, which had flamed up in the days of Judas Maccabeus . . . had in the two centuries since this event almost died out. Not only was their kingdom lost, but their religion had reached perhaps its lowest ebb.”—G. S. Hall, *Jesus Christ in the light of psychology*, pp. 288-289.

A. D. 26-70.—Political situation at time of

Christ.—Revolt against Rome. See JEWS: A. D. 26; 66-70.

100-300.—Growth of Christianity. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Syrian churches.

637-1171.—Conquest of Jerusalem by Moslems. See CALIPHATE: 908-1171; JERUSALEM: 637; 637-1099.

1104-1299.—Conquests of Crusaders.—Sack and massacre of Jerusalem. See CRUSADES: 1104-1111; 1299; JERUSALEM: 1099-1131; 1144-1187; 1187; 1244.

1799.—Napoleon's battles against Turks in northern Palestine. See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-August).

19th century.—Beginning of missionary work. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Near East.

1897-1921.—Zionist movement for Jewish colonization. See JEWS: Zionism: Definition; 20th century; 1908-1921.

1914-1919.—During World War.—Military government.—Crane commission.—Friction between Arabs and Jews.—“During the war, the people of Palestine suffered very badly. They were treated by the Turks as an alien hostile race, for their pro-Ally sympathies were well known: they were robbed and starved; their crops were seized, their fields cut up for trenches; their businesses were ruined and their able-bodied men were forcibly conscripted, even after three payments of exemption tax; tens of thousands of them died from pestilence or famine. When therefore the British and Allied forces over-ran the Holy Land, they were welcomed with such joy as had not been known before. . . . The retiring Turks and Germans took with them in their flight not only the personnel but even the most elementary material of government, and they rifled all the treasure chests. So complete was the evacuation that the British who came in had to send to Oxford for copies of the Turkish code, and with much difficulty were only able to find a few old retired officials who knew what had been done before. A new government had to be made from nothing. . . . As peace had not been signed, this government was obliged to reintroduce the old Turkish laws. . . . Taxes collected were only those estimated to be necessary for the essential functions of the State, and the incidence came to about sixteen shillings a head. The country revived so quickly however under the policy of fiscal moderation, fiscal security and fiscal equity thus introduced that after the first two years the [British] Chancellor of the Exchequer was able in the House of Commons to point to Palestine as the only State within his estimates that had cost nothing, and even had a surplus. All the ordinary functions of government were provided from the revenues, including free education, sanitation and an anti-malaria campaign, the improvement of the ports and roads, the conservation of antiquities, reforestation on a gradual scheme, the administration of justice, and the enrollment and training of a civil gendarmerie and police. Loans were granted to assist recovery from the devastation of the war, farm animals and implements were supplied, and in addition the revenues had to bear some heavy charges that were specifically military. . . . [Friction unfortunately developed between the Arabs and the Zionist leaders, especially after the arrival of the Zionist commission, under Dr. C. Weizmann.] Difficulties were still further increased by the formation and location in Palestine of two Jewish battalions of the Royal Fusiliers, which wore Zionist badges on British uniforms. . . . The people also resented the introduction of Hebrew as an official language [in 1918]. . . .

They found cause of grievance likewise in the suspension of developments on the ground that the Zionists had an option to undertake the work. . . . Matters reached such a pass towards the end of 1918 that the chief administrator of Palestine was compelled to ask either for a military force to repress the civil population, or for a definite pronouncement of policy that would enable him to allay the popular excitement. On 7th November, 1918, therefore, the British and French Governments issued a Proclamation, which was published in every village throughout Palestine, declaring that the object of England and France 'In carrying on in the Near East the war let loose by Germany's ambitions is to assure the complete and final liberation of the people so long oppressed by the Turks and the establishment of governments and administrations deriving their authority from the initiative and free choice of the native populations.' [Feeling was not allayed, however, and, by March, 1919, it was only by calling in troops that a serious revolt was averted. The chief administrator asked for instructions, and was informed] . . . that an international commission would come out to Palestine to ascertain what government the country now desired. Eventually, in April, 1919, a commission consisting of two Americans, Mr. Ambassador Crane and Dr. King, arrived and made a most careful and minute enquiry, hearing delegates from every village. . . . There was further friction over the grant of agricultural loans for the relief of those who had been ruined in the war. The chief administrator resigned and the financial adviser went to London, and, although the question was settled in accordance with his advice, he was actually superseded by Sir Herbert Samuel, who was sent out 'to advise on the finances and administration of Palestine.'—V. Gabriel, *Troubles of the Holy Land* (*Edinburgh Review*, Jan., 1922).

1916.—Put under international control. See SYRIA: 1908-1921; WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: c, 3.

1917.—British campaigns.—Attacks on Gaza.—Occupation of Jerusalem by Allenby. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c; c, 1, ii; c, 1, iv; c, 2; c, 2, viii; c, 3.

1918.—British campaigns.—Activities in Hejaz and Jordan regions. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c.

1918.—British war aims stated by Lloyd George. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: a.

1919.—Results of Treaty of Versailles. See ARABIA: 1919: Results of the Treaty.

1919.—Plan for Zionist state.—"The project of the Zionists again to form a nation of Jews after two thousand years has received the enthusiastic support of President Wilson; France, Italy, and Japan have also indorsed the declaration of Balfour on Nov. 2, 1917, which is the modern Jewish charter. . . . As nearly as possible, the new Palestine under the Union Jack is intended to be coterminous with the territory from 'Dan to Beersheba' of the Old Testament. Thus no foreign power can wedge itself between Lebanon and the Egyptian border. The territory extends on both sides of the Jordan, but it does not include the desert, though that belonged to ancient Palestine. It stops short at the Hedjaz Railway as a recognition of Arab rights. Nor does it take in Damascus, which is regarded as the Arab capital. For practical purposes, therefore, it is the old historic Palestine, with certain adjustments of an economic order, such as complete possession of the essential waterways."—*New York Times Current*

History, Mar., 1919.—See also JEWS: Zionism: 20th century.

Also in: H. B. Samuel, *Palestine government* (*Fortnightly Review*, Aug., Sept., 1921).

1920.—British mandate.—Continued friction between Jews and Arabs.—The Supreme Council of the Allied Powers, on April 25, 1920 gave a mandate for Palestine to the British government, with the object of establishing a national home there for the Jewish people, in accordance with the terms of the declaration made in November, 1917, by Lord Balfour, as follows: "His Majesty's Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of that object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country." See SÈVRES, TREATY OF 1920: Part III: Political clauses: Palestine; JERUSALEM: 16th-20th centuries; 1920.

"The key-problem of modern Palestine is that of the relations of the Jews with the local Christian and Moslem inhabitants. . . . But the problem presents itself in Palestine in a distinctive form, owing to the Zionist Movement with its ideal of a return of a proportion of Jews from all countries to found a 'national home' in a regenerated Palestine and of the ultimate creation of a Jewish national state in that land. These aspirations, which found diplomatic expression in Mr. Balfour's famous pronouncement in 1917, received formal recognition in the San Remo agreement of the Great Powers [see SYRIA: 1908-1921], and the consequent appointment of the Jewish Sir Herbert Samuel as High Commissioner. The Zionist ambitions are stoutly and fiercely resisted by the Palestinian Christian and Moslem communities. The resulting clash of interests and feelings is a factor of the gravest import for the preservation of law and order in those parts—as indeed the riots of Easter at Jerusalem in 1920 (resulting in nearly 200 casualties) and the . . . disturbances in Haifa offer some indication."—A. E. Prince, *Palestine in transition from war to peace*, pp. 12-13.

1920.—Secretary Colby's note to Great Britain concerning equality in oil fields. See U.S.A.: 1920 (November).

1921-1922.—Appointment of Sir Herbert Samuel.—Report of Disturbances Commission.—Arab demands.—Civil administration in 1922.—Sir Herbert Samuel, who was appointed high commissioner in 1921, was not favorably received by the native Arab population, who identified him with the Zionist movement. Statements made by some Zionist leaders again provoked discontent, and the Palestine Disturbances Commission, sent out in 1921, to enquire into the situation, "reported their view 'that the attitude of prominent Zionists is one of the irritant causes of the present discontent.' . . . The military garrison had again to be augmented . . . and there was a serious outbreak in Jerusalem in 1920 . . . [and another at Jaffa in 1921. Fear of the Zionist movement seemed to have overcome the Arab population, and in fact, in 1921, a judicial commission of three British officials reported that:] 'It is impossible to avoid the conclusion that practically the whole of the non-Jewish population was united in hostility to the Jews.' . . . [The main grievances, as summarized by the Disturbances Commission of 1921 were:] (1) That the policy adopted by Great Britain was directed towards the establishment of

a Jewish National Home and not to the equal benefit of all the people in Palestine; (2) that the official advisory body was a Zionist Commission bound by its ideals and its conception of its rôle to regard Jewish interests before all others, and constituted by its singular prerogatives into an *imperium in imperio*; (3) that there was an undue proportion of Jews in Government offices; (4) that the Zionist programme included an influx of Jews who would eventually obtain the upper hand over the rest of the population; (5) that the immigrants are an economic danger to the people because they are favoured in their competition; (6) that the immigrants offend by their arrogance and contempt of Arab social prejudices; (7) that Bolshevik Jew immigrants have endeavoured to introduce social strife and economic unrest in Palestine. [In August 1921, the Arabs refused an invitation to confer with Sir Herbert Samuel, but sent a delegation to London. An Arab congress, which had already met, enunciated the following demands:] (1) The formation of a Palestine national government, responsible, with the advice of a British High Commissioner, to a 'parliament elected by those inhabitants of Palestine who lived there before the war, Moslem, Christian and Jewish.' (2) The abandonment of the present partizan Zionist policy. (3) The regulation and control of immigration, in accordance with the capacity of the country, by the national government itself. (4) The freedom of the Holy Places, which should be left in the custody of their present guardians, from any interference by the national parliament or any other external authority. (5) The creation of a local force for internal purposes, subject to and at the expense of the national government, without any imposition of British regular troops, save if and when required for imperial defence."—V. Gabriel, *Troubles of the Holy Land* (Edinburgh Review, Jan., 1922).—Meantime, opinion as to the advisability of accepting the mandate was not unanimous in Great Britain. In the House of Lords, sixty of the members voted against it, as opposed to twenty-nine in its favor. The House of Commons, however, voted for it by a majority of 257, on July 4, and on July 24, it was approved by the Council of the League of Nations. [See ENGLAND: 1922 (July-September).] "The military administration had, admittedly, conferred many benefits upon the land, but much remained to be done. The local police, or gendarmerie, had been reorganized, the postal, telegraph and telephone systems had been somewhat extended, honesty had been brought into the collection of the taxes, tithes, and customs duties, improvements had been made in the native schools, railroad facilities were developed and some roads made passable for motor cars. The wholesome influence of the military administration had made itself felt in every town and village. Now the civil administration was called upon to enact a nationality law under which Jews from all over the world could acquire citizenship in Palestine, at the same time providing that no discrimination should be used against the nationals of any state belonging to the League of Nations. It decreed that English, Arabic and Hebrew should be the official languages of Palestine, and these three languages promptly appeared on the postage stamps as a sign which everybody could understand. The land registry, which had been kept hermetically sealed under the military administration, was opened, permitting sales and purchases of land and exciting the hope that excessive land values might drop. The railroad between Jerusalem and Jaffa was reopened as a

wide gauge road; new Jewish farming colonies were organized. The process of substituting native Palestinians for British employees of the government was carried forward, so that, . . . [in 1922 there were] 2,513 Palestinians and only 417 British so employed. The health statistics are improving steadily and schools are being established in many parts of the country, at one time at the rate of about one a week. More money . . . [at that time was] being spent on education by the government than on any other branch of administration, except that of public security. At the end of 1920, it was officially stated that of 134,000 children of school age in Palestine about 100,000 were receiving no education at all. What [had] been done so far by the government, . . . was mainly in behalf of the Arabs, who were in sore need of the most elementary general knowledge. Much needed girls' schools . . . had also been opened for the Arabs. The use of public school funds for the Arabs alone, seems hardly in accordance with strict justice to the Christians and Jews, but the Christians and Jews . . . [had] been asked to exercise patience, because the need of bringing up the generation of young Arabs out of the dangerous condition of illiteracy in which they were plunged, . . . [was] really a matter of public safety for the whole country, and in the meantime the Christians and Jews . . . [had] well provided themselves with a great variety of educational institutions."—M. D. McCrackan, *New Palestine*, pp. 365-367.

PALESTRINA, Giovanni Pierluigi da (c. 1526-1594), Italian composer. Chapel master at St. John Lateran, 1555; appointed composer to the pontifical chapel, 1565; succeeded Animuccia as master of St. Peter's, 1571, and remained there till his death. Palestrina's works mark the highest development of church music of strict contrapuntal composition. See MUSIC: Modern: 1535-1674.

PALESTRO, Battle of (1859). See ITALY: 1856-1859.

PALFREYS, or **Palafreni**. See **DESTRIERS**.

PALI.—"The earlier form of the ancient spoken language [of the Aryan race in India], called Pali or Magadhi, . . . was introduced into Ceylon by Buddhist missionaries from Magadha when Buddhism began to spread, and is now the sacred language of Ceylon and Burmah, in which all their Buddhist literature is written. [The Pali language is thought to represent one of the stages in the development of the Prakrit, or common speech of the Hindus, as separated from the Sanskrit, or language of the learned.]"—M. Williams, *Indian wisdom, introduction*, pp. xxix-xxx, footnote.—See also **SANSKRIT**.

PALIKAO, Charles Guillaume Marie Appollinaire Antoine Cousin Montauban, Comte de (1796-1878), French general and statesman. Formed a ministry in France, on the resignation of Ollivier, 1870. See FRANCE: 1870 (September).

PALILIA, Festival of.—"The festival named Palilia [at Rome] was celebrated on the Palatine every year on the 21st April, in honour of Pales, the tutelary divinity of the shepherds, who dwell on the Palatine. This day was held sacred as an anniversary of the day on which Romulus commenced the building of the city."—H. M. Westropp, *Early and imperial Rome*, p. 40.

PALIMPSESTS. See **BIBLE**, **ENGLISH**: Modern Biblical research.

PALISSY, Bernard (1510-1589), French potter. See **FERTILIZERS**: Origin.

PALLA, garment worn by Roman women. See **STOLA**.

PALLADIO, Andrea (1518-1580), Italian architect. Designed the two-story arcade around the basilica of Vicenza and the Teatro degli Olimpici, also many buildings at Venice, and two in England; left several works on architecture, based upon the principles of Roman architecture.

PALLADIUM.—"The Palladium, kept in the temple of Vesta at Rome, was a small figure of Pallas, roughly carved out of wood, about three feet high. Ilos, King of Troy, grandfather of Priam, after building the city asked Zeus to give him a visible sign that he would take it under his special protection. During the night the Palladium fell down from heaven, and was found the next morning outside his tent. The king built a temple for it, and from that time the Trojans firmly believed that as long as they could keep this figure their town would be safe; but if at any time it should be lost or stolen, some dreadful calamity would overtake them. The story further relates that, at the siege of Troy, its whereabouts was betrayed to Diomed, and he and the wily Ulysses climbed the wall at night and carried it off. The Palladium, enraged at finding itself in the Grecian camp, sprang three times in the air, its eyes flashing wildly, while drops of sweat stood on its brow. The Greeks, however, would not give it up, and Troy, robbed of her guardian, was soon after conquered by the Greeks. But an oracle having warned Diomed not to keep it, he, on landing in Italy, gave it to one of Æneas' companions, by whom it was brought into the neighbourhood of the future site of Rome. Another legend relates that Æneas saved it after the destruction of Troy, and fled with it to Italy, where it was afterwards placed by his descendants in the Temple of Vesta, in Rome. Here the inner and most sacred place in the Temple was reserved for it, and no man, not even the chief priest, was allowed to see it except when it was shown on the occasion of any high festival. The Vestals had strict orders to guard it carefully, and to save it in case of fire, as the welfare of Rome depended on its preservation."—F. Nösselt, *Mythology, Greek and Roman*, p. 3.

PALLESCHI, Florentine political party. See FLORENCE: 1498-1500.

PALLIUM.—"The pallium, or mantle of the Greeks, from its being less cumbersome and trailing than the toga of the Romans, by degrees superseded the latter in the country and in the camp. When worn over armour, and fastened on the right shoulder with a clasp or button, this cloak assumed the name of paludamentum."—T. Hope, *Costume of the ancients*, v. 1, p. 37.—See also COSTUME: Egyptian, etc.; PALUDAMENTUM.

PALM, Johann Philipp (1708-1806), German book-seller. Executed by Napoleon. See GERMANY: 1806 (January-August).

PALMA, Tomas Estrada (1835-1908), president of Cuba, 1901-1906. See CUBA: 1901-1902; 1902; 1906 (August-October).

PALMER, Alexander Mitchell (1872-), American cabinet officer. Elected to House of Representatives, 1909; alien property custodian, 1917-1919; attorney-general of the United States, 1919-1921. See U.S.A.: 1919 (September-December); 1919-1920; LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1919-1920.

PALMER, John McAuley (1817-1900), American soldier and political leader. Member of Illinois legislature, 1852-1855; served in the Federal army during the Civil War; governor of Illinois, 1860-1873; United States senator, 1891-1897; candidate for presidency, 1896. See U.S.A.: 1896; Party platforms and nominations: National Democrats.

PALMER, name given in the Middle Ages to a pilgrim to the Holy Land. "When the pilgrim reached the Holy Land, and had visited the usual round of holy places, he became entitled to wear the palm in token of his accomplishment of that great pilgrimage; and from this badge he derived the name of Palmer."—E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and characters of the Middle Ages*, p. 167.

PALMERSTON, Henry John Temple, 3rd Viscount (1784-1865), English statesman. Junior lord of the Admiralty, 1807; secretary of war, 1809-1828; foreign minister, 1830; premier, 1855-1858, 1859-1865. See ENGLAND: 1851-1852; 1855; 1858-1859; 1865-1868; CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: Great Britain: 1832-1855; FRANCE: 1841-1848.

Speech on Don Pacifico Affair. See ENGLAND: 1849-1850; GREECE: 1846-1850.

Denunciation of Austrian methods in Italy. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: b.

PALMETTO STATE, popular name for South Carolina. See SOUTH CAROLINA.

PALMI, division of lineal foot. See FOOT, ROMAN.

PALMITO, Battle of. See TEXAS: 1865.

PALMYRA, ancient city in an oasis in the Syrian desert, 150 miles northeast of Damascus, of which remarkable ruins still remain.

Earliest knowledge of.—"The outlying city of Palmyra—the name of which is first mentioned during the wars of M. Antony in Syria [41 B.C.]—was certainly at this period [of Augustus, 31 B.C.-14 A.D.] independent and preserved a position of neutrality between the Romans and Parthians, while it carried on trade with both. It does not appear however to have as yet risen to a place of great importance, as its name is not mentioned by Strabo. The period of its prosperity dates only from the time of Hadrian."—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, v. 1, ch. 20, sect. 1.

Rise and fall.—"Amidst the barren deserts of Arabia a few cultivated spots rise like islands out of the sandy ocean. Even the name of Tadmor, or Palmyra, by its signification in the Syriac as well as in the Latin language, denoted the multitude of palm-trees which afforded shade and verdure to that temperate region. The air was pure, and the soil, watered by some invaluable springs, was capable of producing fruits as well as corn. A place possessed of such singular advantages, and situated at a convenient distance between the gulf of Persia and the Mediterranean, was soon frequented by the caravans which conveyed to the nations of Europe a considerable part of the rich commodities of India. [It has been the opinion of some writers that Tadmor was founded by Solomon as a commercial station, but the opinion is little credited at present.] Palmyra insensibly increased into an opulent and independent city, and, connecting the Roman and the Parthian monarchies by the mutual benefits of commerce, was suffered to observe an humble neutrality, till at length, after the victories of Trajan, the little republic sunk into the bosom of Rome, and flourished more than one hundred and fifty years in the subordinate though honourable rank of a colony. On the occasion of the invasion of Syria by the Persian king, Sapor, when the Emperor Valerian was defeated and taken prisoner (260-261), the only effectual resistance opposed to him was organized and led by a wealthy senator of Palmyra, Odenathus (some ancient writers call him a Saracen prince), who founded, by his exploits at that time, a substantial military power. Aided and seconded by his famous wife, Zenobia, who is one of the great heroines of history, he extended his authority over the Roman East and defeated the Persian king in several campaigns. On

his death, by assassination, in 267, Zenobia ascended the Palmyrenian throne and ruled with masculine firmness of character. Her dominions were extended from the Euphrates and the frontiers of Bithynia to Egypt, and are said, with some doubtfulness, to have included even that rich province for a time. But the Romans, who had acquiesced in the rule of Odenathus, and recognized it, in the day of their weakness, now resented the presumption and the power of his widowed queen. Perhaps they had reason to fear her ambition and her success. Refusing to submit to the demands that were made upon her, she boldly challenged the attack of the warlike emperor, Aurelian, and suffered defeat in two great battles, fought 272 or 273, near Antioch and near Emesa. A vain attempt to hold Palmyra against the besieging force of the Roman, an unsuccessful flight and a capture by pursuing horsemen, ended the political career of the Brilliant 'Queen of the East.' She saved her life somewhat ignobly by giving up her counsellors to Aurelian's vengeance. The philosopher Linguinus was one who perished. Zenobia was sent to Rome and figured among the captives in Aurelian's triumph. She was then given for her residence a splendid villa at Tibur (Tivoli) twenty miles from Rome, and lived quietly through the remainder of her days, connecting herself, by the marriage of her daughters, with the noble families of Rome. Palmyra, which had been spared on its surrender, rashly rose in revolt quickly after Aurelian had left its gates. The enraged emperor returned and inflicted on the fated city a chastisement from which it never rose."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 10-11.

PALMYRÊNE, or Syrian Desert, tract lying between Cele-Syria on the one hand and 'the valley of the middle Euphrates on the other, and abutting towards the south on the great Arabian desert, to which it is sometimes regarded as belonging.

PALO ALTO, Battle of (1846). See MEXICO: 1846-1847.

PALOS, town in the province of Huelva, Spain, at the mouth of the Río Tinto. Columbus started from here on his voyage (1492) which resulted in the discovery of America.

PALSGRAVE, Anglicized form of Pfalzgraf, Palatine count. See PALATINE, COUNTS.

PALUDAMENTUM.—"As soon as the [Roman] consul entered upon his military career, he assumed certain symbols of command. The cloak of scarlet or purple which the emperor threw over his corslet was named the paludamentum, and this, which became in later times the imperial robe, he never wore except on actual service."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 31.—See also PALLIUM.

PALUS MÆOTIS, or Mæotis Palus, ancient Greek name of the sea of Azov.

PAMIR.—"There are . . . in one sense many 'Pamiras,' and as a *tout-ensemble*, one 'Pamir,' or geographically, the 'Pamir,' . . . Indeed, the obvious and popular idea which has always attached to the word 'Pamir,' is the correct one, whether it is the geographical 'roof of the world,' the 'Bām-i-dunya' of the poet, or the 'Pamir-dunya' of the modern journalist. We have . . . to deal with a series of plateaux, the topographical limits of which coincide with linguistic, ethnographical, and political limits. To the North, the Pamirs have the Trans-Altaic mountain range marking the Turki element, under Russian influence; the Panja river, by whatever name, on the West, is a Tadjik or Iranian Frontier [Afghan]. The Sarikol on the East is a Tibetan, Mongolian, or Chinese Wall, and the South

is . . . the Hindukush."—G. W. Leitner, *Hunza, Nagyr, and other Pamir regions* (*Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review*, Jan., 1892).—"The Pamir and Tibet, which converge north of India and east of the Oxus, form jointly the culminating land of the continent. Disposed at right angles, and parallel, the one to the equator, the other to the meridian, they constitute the so-called 'Roof,' or 'Crown of the World,' though this expression is more usually restricted to the Pamir alone. With its escarpments, rising above the Oxus and Tarim plains west and east, the Pamir occupies, in the heart of the continent, an estimated area of 30,000 square miles. . . . It completely separates the two halves of Asia, and forms an almost impassable barrier to migration and warlike incursions."—E. Reclus, *Earth and its inhabitants: Asia*, v. 1, ch. 3, sect. 2.—During the latter part of the nineteenth century, Russian influence increased in the Pamir, and the boundaries of Bokhara and Turkestan were made to include that region in the Russian sphere. (See also AF-GHANISTAN: 1895.) To the south the British Indian government occupied Chitral, but between the latter and the Russian dependencies was a tongue of Afghan territory. This narrow strip of the buffer state of Afghanistan was intended as a permanent barrier between the rival empires. After the Russian Revolution (1917), there were reports of Bolshevik activity in the Pamir and throughout central Asia.

ALSO IN: R. Michell, *Ban-i-Dunia* (*Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review*, Oct., 1892).

PAMLICOS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

PAMPANGAS, natives of central Luzon, Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: People.

PAMPAS, LLANOS.—"In the southern continent [of America], the regions which correspond with the prairies of the United States are the 'pampas' of the La Plata and the 'llanos' of Columbia [both 'pampa' and 'llano' having in Spanish the signification of 'a plain']. . . . The llanos of Venezuela and New Granada have an area estimated at 154,000 square miles. . . . The Argentine pampas . . . have a much more considerable extent, probably exceeding 500,000 square miles."—E. Reclus, *Earth and its inhabitants*, ch. 15.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area; PAMPAS TRIBES.

PAMPAS TRIBES.—"The chief tribe of the Pampas Indians was entitled Querandía by the Spaniards, although they called themselves Pehuelches [or Pueltes—that is, the Eastern]. Various segments of these, under different names, occupied the immense tract of ground, between the river Parana and the republic of Chili. The Querandis . . . were the great opponents to settlement of the Spaniards in Buenos Ayres. . . . The Ancas or Araucanos Indians [see CHILE: Origin of the name; Aborigines] resided on the west of the Pampas near Chili, and from time to time assisted the Querandis in transporting stolen cattle across the Cordilleras. The southern part of the Pampas was occupied by the Balchitas, Uhilches, Telmelches, and others, all of whom were branches of the original Quelches horde. The Guarani Indians were the most famous of the South American races. . . . Of the Guayanas horde there were several tribes— independent of each other, and speaking different idioms, although having the same title of race. Their territory extended from the river Guarai, one of the afluentes into the Uruguay, for many leagues northwards, and stretched over to the Parana opposite the city of Corpus Christi. They were some of the most vigorous opponents of the Spanish in-

vaders. . . . The Nalicurgas Indians, who lived up to near 21° S. lat. were reputed to dwell in caves, to be very limited in number, and to go entirely naked. The Gausarapos, or Guuchies dwelt in the marshy districts near where the river Gausarapo, or Guuchie, has its source. This stream enters from the east into the Paraguay, at 19° 16' 30" S. lat. . . . The Cuatos lived inside of a lake to the west of the river Paraguay, and constituted a very small tribe. . . . The Orejones dwelt on the eastern brows of the mountains of Santa Lucia or San Fernando—close to the western side of Paraguay river. . . . Another tribe, the Niniquillas, had likewise the names of Potrerros, Simanos, Barcenos, and Lathanos. They occupied a forest which began at about 19° S. lat., some leagues backward from the river Paraguay, and separated the Gran Chaco from the province of Los Chuitos in Peru. . . . The Guanas Indians were divided into eight separate segments, for each of which there was a particular and different name. They lived between 20° and 22° of S. lat. in the Gran Chaco to the west of Paraguay, and they were not known to the Spaniards till the latter crossed the last-named river in 1673. . . . The Albaias and Payaguas Indians . . . in former times, were the chief tribes of the Paraguay territory. . . . The Albaias were styled Machicuis and Enimgas by other authors. At the time of the Spaniards' arrival here, the Albaias occupied the Gran Chaco side of the river Paraguay from 20° to 22° S. lat. Here they entered into a treaty offensive and defensive with the Payaguas. . . . The joined forces of Albaias and Payaguas had managed to extend their territory in 1673 down to 24° 7' S. on the eastern side of Paraguay river. . . . The Albaias were a very tall and muscular race of people. . . . The Payagua Indians, before and up to, as well as after, the period of the conquest, were sailors, and domineered over the river Paraguay. . . . The Guaiacarus lived on the Chaco side of Paraguay river and subsisted entirely by hunting. From the barbarous custom which their women had of inducing abortion to avoid the pain or trouble of child-bearing, they became exterminated soon after the conquest. . . . The Tobas, who have also the titles of Natecet and Yncanabaite, were among the best fighters of the Indians. They occupy the Gran Chaco, chiefly on the banks of the river Vermejo, and between that and the Pilcomayo. Of these there are some remains in the present day. . . . The Mocovis are likewise still to be found in the Chaco. . . . The Abipones, who were also styled Ecusgina and Quiabanabaite, lived in the Chaco, so low down as 28° south. This was the tribe with whom the Jesuits incorporated, when they erected the city of San Geronimo, in the Gran Chaco, and nearly opposite Goya, in 1748."—T. J. Hutchinson, *Parana*, ch. 6-7.—"The Abipones inhabit [in the 18th century] the province Chaco, the centre of all Paraguay; they have no fixed abodes, nor any boundaries, except what fear of their neighbours has established. They roam extensively in every direction, whenever the opportunity of attacking their enemies, or the necessity of avoiding them renders a journey advisable. The northern shore of the Rio Grande or Bermejo, which the Indians call Iniaté, was their native land in the last century [the 17th]. Thence they removed, to avoid the war carried on against Chaco by the Spaniards . . . and, migrating towards the south, took possession of a valley formerly held by the Calchaquis. . . . From what region their ancestors came there is no room for conjecture."—M. Dobrizhoffer, *Account of the Abipones*, v. 2, ch. 1.—"The

Abipones are in general above the middle stature, and of a robust constitution. In summer they go quite naked; but in winter cover themselves with skins. . . . They paint themselves all over with different colours."—Father Charlevoix, *History of Paraguay*, v. 1, bk. 7.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN; Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area; TUPI.

ALSO IN: J. S. Kingsley, ed., *Standard natural history*, v. 6, pp. 256-262.

PAMPHILUS (c. 250-c. 309), Christian teacher and theologian. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Syrian churches.

PAMPHYLI, Dorian tribe at Sparta. See SPARTA: Constitution ascribed to Lycurgus.

PAMPLONA, or Pampeluna, capital of the province of Navarre, Spain, on the left bank of the Arga, sixteen miles from the French frontier. Pamplona was the scene of many battles in the Gothic, Frankish, Moorish, French and Carlist wars. See NAVARRE: Origin of the kingdom: 1442-1521.

PAMPTICOKES, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

PANÆTIUS (c. 185-c. 100 B. C.), Greek philosopher. Founder of Roman stoicism. See HELLENISM: Hellenism and the Romans.

PANAMA: Geographic description.—"The Republic of Panama occupies the center of the American continent. It is a thin strip of land which unites Central America, of which it forms part, with South America. . . . Panama extends from 6° 50' to 9° 41' of North Latitude, and from 77° 15' 45" West to the limit line with Colombia in South America to 83° 32' of Western Longitude on the Costa Rican frontier. [See CENTRAL AMERICA: Map.] Its greatest extension is 435 miles; its widest part measures 114 miles and the narrowest between Gulf of San Blas and the mouth of the river Bayano, 30 miles. From the city of Panama to the city of Colon it is 42 miles in a straight line, and following the course of the Canal from Balboa on the Pacific to Christobal on the Carribean sea, the distance is 48 miles. The configuration of the Isthmus is extremely interesting. Through it pass the chain of the Andes whose numerous foothills fall away some near the Atlantic and others near the shores of the Pacific. Nevertheless, Panama is not so mountainous as would seem at first sight. The lowest part of the famous chain of the Andes is in Panamanian territory and by means of the great engineering work done by the United States, through this point which is situated at the Culebra Cut, daily pass the great transatlantic steamers which carry the traffic of the world and to-day it only remains 40 feet above the level of the sea. . . . Panama has 88,500 square kilometers of territory of which 62,700 are mountainous, 18,500 meadows, and the islands have an area of 7,500 kilometers. Of this total it is necessary to deduct 1,269 square kilometers which are under the jurisdiction of the Canal Zone authorities which depend on the government of the United States."—S. A. Villegas, *Republic of Panama*, pp. 9-10.

1501-1502.—Discovery by Bastidas.—Coasted by Columbus. See AMERICA: 1498-1505, 1500.

1509.—Settlement on Gulf of Uraba. See AMERICA: 1509-1511.

1513-1517.—Balboa and the discovery of the Pacific.—Rule of Pedrarias Davila. See AMERICA: 1513-1517.

1519.—Name and origin of city.—Originally, Panama was the native name of an Indian fishing village on the Pacific coast of the Isthmus, the word signifying "a place where many fish are

taken." In 1519 the Spaniards founded there a city which they made their capital and chief mart on the Pacific coast.—Based on H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 1, ch. 10-11, 15. See TIERRA FIRMA.

1524-1528.—**Founding of city.** See AMERICA: 1524-1528.

1668.—**Attacked by English buccaneers.** See BUCCANEERS: English buccaneers.

1671-1680.—**Capture, destruction and recapture of city of Panama by buccaneers.** See AMERICA: 1630-1700.

1695-1699.—**Darien project.** See SCOTLAND: 1695-1699.

1700-1821.—**Condition during end of 18th century.—Revolt against Spain.**—"On the 30th of November of the . . . year [1699] another expedition arrived [at Darien] with 1300 men and after sustaining a primitive campaign against the Spaniards who in increasing numbers came from Panama and Cartagena, surrendered on April 24th, 1700, and abandoned the colony with military honors. The situation of the Isthmus became considerably worse on account of the attacks of the pirates, the uprisings of Indians and negroes and the paralización of commercial operations, as Spain no longer communicated with her other colonies by way of Panama. This state of affairs lasted for some time, practically through all of the seventeenth century until the new ideas of liberty which the French revolution brought [began to penetrate among the people]. Owing to the moral decadence which Spain suffered, independent ideas surged up in the colonies and took shape in 1809 when the first cry of liberty was given in Quito. During the second fifteen years of the nineteenth century the remainder of the Spanish Colonies on this continent rose in arms but the Isthmus remained faithful. The Spaniards thereupon made it a centre for the provisioning of troops who defended the royalists' cause in Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru, and organized here expeditions the last of which left on October 22nd, 1821, for the coast of Ecuador. . . . The promotion of Fabrega at the moment when Spain had practically lost all her colonies in America gave great hopes to the Panamanians who wished for independence and the chiefs of the movement started to provoke desertions amongst the Spanish garrison in the capital. On November 13th, 1821, liberty was proclaimed in Los Santos, and a short time afterwards the same was done in Pese and Nata, which contributed to raise up the patriotic spirit in the rest of the country. The plan of getting the Spanish soldiers to desert gave such good results that at the end of November only the troops necessary for the custody of the jails remained in the city of Panama, and as on the night of the 27th, 60 soldiers deserted taking their arms with them, the government took precautions to prevent the impending blow, placing the troops in strategic places around the city. The people, however, invaded the Cathedral plaza and asked the municipal body to meet and to decide the fate of the Isthmus, with the result that a short time afterwards in the consistory house, the Governor, the captain General, the Bishop, the representatives of the provinces and a number of high military and civil authorities met and decided that Panama should be freed from the Spanish dominion and joined with Colombia. . . . This declaration of independence was favourably received throughout the Isthmus."—S. A. Villegas, *Republic of Panama*, pp. 17-18.

1826.—**Pan-American congress.** See COLOMBIA: 1826.

1840-1900.—**Revolution.—Independent State of the Isthmus.**—"In 1840 revolutions broke out in most of the provinces. An independent 'State of the Isthmus,' containing the provinces of Panama and Veragua, was proclaimed in 1841, but the Centralists were successful, the revolution was suppressed, and the old régime restored. The sentiment against this method of government steadily increased until, in 1855, by an act of the Congress of New Granada at Bogotá the autonomous state of Panama was erected out of the Isthmian provinces. But the sincerity of this act may well be questioned and its aim was probably political and the purpose to crush the Federalist party for good and all. But the attempt of the national government to revoke its act, and, it seems to provoke a revolution, and then in crushing that revolution to put a stop to all Federal agitation, overreached itself. The revolution in behalf of the new constitution was completely successful. For a score of years and more Panama, like the other states in the Colombian Union, enjoyed (more or less interruptedly) its individual regrets. A centralist uprising in 1885, however, effected a return to old conditions. The former state of Panama was again ruled from Bogotá, and became a department called Panama. This department was divided into four provinces, Chiriquí, Veraguas, Azuero, and Panama, the last named province occupied the eastern half, approximately, of the department of the same name, with which it is very easily confused. . . . After 1885 the relations of Panama with Colombia were no closer nor more familiar than before. Several revolts took place, and in July 1900 under the lead of Porras, later a leading candidate for the vice-presidency of the republic, a desperate but unsuccessful attempt was made by a Liberal army to get control of the city of Panama."—M. Wilcox, *Encyclopedia of Latin America*, pp. 591-592.

ALSO IN: C. L. Jones, *Caribbean interests of the United States*, pp. 193-195.

1855.—**Independence declared.** See COLOMBIA: 1830-1886.

1900.—**Boundary determined between Costa Rica and Panama.** See COSTA RICA: 1900.

1901.—**Represented at third international American congress at Mexico City.** See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1903.—**Secession from Colombia.—Recognized independence.—Treaty with the United States for building of Panama canal.**—"Two routes [for the canal] were considered, one across Nicaragua, the other at Panama. Opinion favored the Panama route, where a French company, which had begun work in 1883 and had sunk many millions of dollars in the enterprise, was anxious to sell its rights for \$40,000,000. Colombia, to which Panama belonged, also seemed willing to lease the necessary ground for the canal; but, after negotiations which continued throughout 1902, the terms offered by the United States were rejected by the Colombian Congress. The people of Panama were anxious to see the work of digging begin and in November, 1903, revolted against Colombia and set up the Republic of Panama. President Roosevelt at once recognized the new Republic and interfered by force to prevent Colombia from putting down the revolt. The Panama Republic ceded to the United States a strip of land ten miles wide extending across the Isthmus, for which they were to be paid \$10,000,000 down and \$250,000 a year, beginning in 1913."—J. P. O'Hara, *History of the United States*, pp. 378-379.—See also PANAMA CANAL: 1889-1903; COLOMBIA: 1902-1903; U.S.A.: 1914-1921.

ALSO IN: S. Bonsal, *American Mediterranean*, pp. 461-473.

1903.—Bombardment of Panama city. See U.S.A.: 1914-1921.

1904.—United States Bank begins work on Panama canal. See PANAMA CANAL: 1904-1905.

1904.—Manuel Amador Guerrero appointed president by national convention.—“On January 15th, 1904, the National Convention met which in acknowledgment of the valuable services rendered by Dr. Manuel Amador Guerrero to the cause of independence, unanimously appointed him President of the Republic, of which office he took possession February 20.”—S. A. Villegas, *Republic of Panama*, p. 21.

1904.—Constitution of republic.—First election.—The constitution of the new republic was promulgated on February 16, 1904, and the election of president and three vice presidents took place, resulting in the choice of the following: president, Dr. Manuel Amador; first vice-president, Dr. Pablo Arosemena; second vice-president, Don Domingo de Obaldia; third vice-president, Dr. Carlos Mendoza. The third article of the Constitution declares: “The territory of the Republic is composed of all the territory from which the State of Panama was formed by the amendment to the Granada constitution of 1853, on February 27, 1855, and which was transformed in 1886 into the Department of Panama, together with its islands, and of the continental and insular territory, which was adjudged to the Republic of Colombia in the award made by the President of the French Republic on September 11, 1900. The territory of the Republic remains subject to the jurisdictional limitations stipulated or which may be stipulated in public treaties concluded with the United States of North America for the construction, maintenance, or sanitation of any means of interoceanic transit. The boundaries with the Republic of Colombia shall be determined by public treaties.”

1906.—Visit of President Roosevelt.—“For the first time in the history of the United States,” said President Roosevelt, when he landed at Colon, November 14, 1906, preliminary to a visit and inspection of the Panama Canal, “it has become advisable for a President of the United States to step on territory not beneath the flag of the United States.” He received a most hospitable welcome and entertainment in the young republic.

1906.—Participation in third international conference of American republics. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1908.—Presidential election.—José Domingo de Obaldia.—In 1908 there were two candidates for the presidency, Ricardo Arias and José Domingo de Obaldia. On July 4 Arias withdrew from the contest, his withdrawal being dictated he said, by a patriotic desire to prevent the military occupation of the republic of the United States and to enable the re-establishment of a union of political parties. The election was held on July 12, the supporters of Arias refraining from voting. The ballots were almost unanimous for Obaldia. On August 1, the electors met in the capitals of the provinces and officially declared the election of Obaldia as president. He assumed office in October.

1909.—Proposed tripartite treaty with Colombia and the United States. See COLOMBIA: 1909.

1910.—Death of President Obaldia.—“The President of Panama, Señor Obaldia, died in March, and was succeeded temporarily by the Vice President, Dr. C. H. Mendoza. The new President of

the Republic is Señor Arosemena.”—*Annual Register*, 1910, p. 467.

1910.—Protocol signed by Costa Rica and Panama. See COSTA RICA: 1910.

1910.—Represented at fourth international American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.

1913.—Arbitration treaty with the United States. See LATIN AMERICA: 1913.

1913-1914.—Opening of Panama canal. See PANAMA CANAL: 1913-1914.

1914.—New constitution.—“The Constitution adopted February 13, 1914, and . . . now in force, provides for a Chamber of Deputies of 33 members, one for every 10,000 inhabitants, which meets bi-annually on September 1, and for a President of the Republic, elected for 4 years, and not eligible for re-election. There are three Vice-Presidents and a Cabinet of five ministers. Each of the provinces into which the Republic is divided, is under a Governor.”—*Latin American Year Book*, 1920, p. 540.

1914.—Panama Blackmail Treaty. See U.S.A.: 1914-1921.

1914-1921.—Hay-Herran Treaty with the United States.—Revolution.—Declaration of Independence and recognition.—United States takes Canal Zone. See U.S.A.: 1914-1921.

1915.—Panama-California Exposition, San Diego. See U.S.A.: 1915 (January-December).

1915.—Panama-Pacific International Exposition, San Francisco. See CALIFORNIA: 1915; U.S.A.: 1915 (January-December); SAN FRANCISCO: 1915.

1916.—Presidential election.—Ramon V. Valdez chosen.—In the presidential elections held in 1916, former vice-president Ramon Valdez, the government candidate, who had at one time been minister to the United States, was elected president. During the elections riots occurred in which three persons were killed.

1918.—Death of President Ramon V. Valdez.—Ciro Urriola assumes office.—President Ramon V. Valdez, who was elected in 1916, died in 1918, and was succeeded by Cirio Urriola.

1919.—Represented at Paris conference. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VER-SAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1921.—Boundary dispute with Costa Rica. See COSTA RICA: 1921.

See also MASONIC SOCIETIES: Central and South America.

PANAMA BLACKMAIL TREATY (1914). See U.S.A.: 1914-1921.

PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION, San Diego. See U.S.A.: 1915 (January-December).

PANAMA CANAL: Geographic description.—Plan of canal.—“The curve of the isthmus of Panama between the canal zone and the South American mainland becomes narrower at one point, measuring at San Blas only thirty-one miles [see CENTRAL AMERICA: Map]. The divide or water-parting of Panama is not the lowest on the continent, moreover. Its least elevation above mean tide, before the cutting of the Canal, was 290 feet, at the Culebra Pass, on the site of the Canal. The lowest point in Central America is in Nicaragua, some 500 miles to the northwest of Panama, and is only 153 feet. The problem of the canal, then, apart from matters of climate and disease, was to cut through thirty-six miles of ground, with a height at one point of 290 feet. Taking into account the windings of the route and the dredging necessary in the sea-bed of the approaches,

this thirty-six miles was increased to fifty; but . . . it has not, in the canal as now built, been necessary to excavate for more than a part of this length. . . . A large river, the Chagres, flowing into the sea near Colon, affords a valley which leads more than half-way across the isthmus towards the Pacific Ocean. This broad, alluvial valley, at a point twenty-six miles from the head of Limon Bay, upon which Colon is situated, turns suddenly at right angles to its general course and becomes narrow and steeper, and ceases to be of service. But this point is only nine miles from the low valley of another river, the Rio Grande, which flows into the Pacific. The water-parting or intervening ridge between the two is about 300 feet above sea-level, and is known as the Culebra Pass, and the huge excavation through it is the famous Culebra Cut, [now known as the Gaillard Cut], the greatest piece of earthwork that has ever been undertaken in the history of engineering. To utilize these two river valleys, cutting through the ridge to connect them, was in principle the plan of the Canal. . . . At the Atlantic side an enormous dam creates an artificial lake twenty-three miles long, forming part of the waterway—a vast economy of excavation. . . . It was not the time and expense of cutting through the ground only that determined the choice of a lock canal. . . . The Chagres . . . is a river subject to heavy floods, and at certain periods has been known to rise as much as thirty-five feet in twenty-four hours. This means an enormous body of water and a swift current, which would have flowed into the canal in the form of a huge cascade—an impossible condition. . . . Under any system of canal at Panama two features were necessary—the cutting through of the Culebra Ridge, and the dredging out of a channel, about five miles along, at each end of the waterway, to give depth for ships to enter. These two pieces of work were begun by the French engineers, and much of what they carried out in that connection was of subsequent utility and value. . . . Under its present type the canal is a 'water-bridge' rather than a canal, and the first of its kind in the history of the world. Vessels are lifted up three water-steps at one end, propelled across the connecting waterway, and lowered again three steps at the other end."—R. Enock, *Panama canal*, pp. 15-18, 20.

Projects for building canal prior to 1800.—"It appears that the honour of first conceiving and proposing the project of an artificial waterway through the isthmus [of Panama] belongs to Alvaro de Saavedra Ceron, a cousin of Cortez, who had been with Balboa at Panama. Ceron had been for twelve years engaged in the search for the strait, [which was believed to exist] and had finally begun to doubt its existence. His thoughts turned to the isthmus at Panama, where the narrowness and low elevation of the land seemed to offer the likeliest chance of an artificial canal. We learn from the old historian Galvano that Ceron prepared plans for the construction of a waterway there—almost precisely along the route chosen for the American canal nearly four hundred years later. Ceron's death, however, put an end to this early project. It is interesting to find the Portuguese historian Galvano, who flourished in the middle of the sixteenth century, mentioning four possible routes for the canal—namely, Darien, Panama, Nicaragua, and Tehuantepec. The choice, however, quickly confined itself to the Panama and Nicaraguan lines. The reader may feel some surprise that at such an early date as this an engineering project should be seriously considered which was

only accomplished in the end by the wealth and mechanical resources of one of the greatest of modern Powers. The explanation is that the tiny vessels of the early sixteenth century could have taken advantage of the natural rivers and lakes in the isthmus, especially those on the Nicaraguan route, and that far less artificial construction would have been necessary than in these days of the mammoth liner and warship. Charles V., King of Spain, seems to have been quite alive to the importance of these canal projects. In 1534 he directed the Governor of Costa Firme, the old name for the Panama district, to survey the valley of the Chagres, the river which supplies the water for the upper reaches of the American canal. This gentleman, however, seems scarcely to have shared the royal enthusiasm. He may be supposed to have known the isthmus at these points very well, and his scepticism about the prospect of canal construction there in those days was not wholly groundless. The Spanish historian Gomara, who wrote a history of the Indies in 1551 and dedicated it to Charles V., declared a canal to be quite feasible along any of the four routes mentioned by Galvano. . . . But Charles V. died without making any practical advance in this enterprise, and a rather remarkable reaction took place under his successor, Philip II. It should be noted that by this time a permanent roadway had been established across the isthmus from Panama to Porto Bello, along which the Spanish treasure-convoys passed from sea to sea without much interruption. The rapidly growing power of the English at sea made Philip fear that, if a canal were built, he would be unable to control it, and would probably lose his existing monopoly of isthmian transit. So he issued a veto against all projects of canal construction. He even persuaded himself that it would be contrary to the Divine purpose to link together two great oceans which God had set asunder, and that any such attempt would be visited by a terrible nemesis. . . . The project of a canal across the isthmus was never allowed entirely to disappear. In 1694 a very determined attempt was made to plant a British colony on the isthmus at Darien, a little east of the Panama route. The Pioneer was William Paterson, a Scotsman, who founded 'the Company of Scotland Trading to Africa and the Indies.' . . . 1,200 settlers set sail from Leith in July 1698, no doubt with a high hope and courage. In November the expedition arrived and established itself at a point of the coast still called Puerto Escoces, or Scotch Port, in Caledonian Bay, also named from the same event. 'New Edinburgh' and 'New St. Andrews' were founded, but the settlers soon got into difficulties. The climate was intolerable, and the project was opposed from the outset by the English and Dutch East India Companies, who were alarmed on the score of their own exclusive rights, while Spaniards and Indians were a perpetual menace. Broken down by these adversities the original settlers left the place, but were succeeded at once by another company which, after some successful fighting with the Spaniards, were compelled by the superior forces of the enemy to evacuate the settlements in the year 1700. . . . Paterson, who had personally surveyed the isthmus, positively declared that the construction of a canal was a feasible undertaking. During the eighteenth century, though surveying was carried out in many parts of the isthmus by European engineers, the project of a canal was never seriously taken up."—J. S. Mills, *Panama canal*, pp. 23-30.

1800-1850.—Humboldt on future of projected canal.—French projects.—Treaty of the United

States with New Granada.—British and American controversy apropos of Nicaragua route.—Clayton-Bulwer Treaty.—“With the nineteenth century, . . . events began to move at the isthmus. The great scientist, Alexander von Humboldt, spent the first few years of the new century in Mexico and Central America. . . . Humboldt described six routes in Central America where a canal would be practicable, including that which was afterwards adopted at Panama. He investigated and discussed many physiographical questions in connection with the subject. There had arisen a general belief that the level of the Pacific was much higher than that of the Atlantic, and that a sea-level canal would therefore be impossible. Humboldt declared against this theory. But it is curious to find him favouring the idea that the construction of a tide-level canal might have the effect of diverting the Gulf Stream, . . . and thus making the climate of . . . [the] British islands much more rigorous and inhospitable. . . . In 1825 [after the Spanish-American provinces had achieved independence] the Central American envoy to the United States urged the American government to co-operate in the canal enterprise with the states he represented. The result was that Henry Clay, the American Secretary of State, ordered an official survey at Nicaragua, and scheme followed scheme in quick succession. In 1829 the King of Holland was granted a canal concession by the Nicaraguan government. This enterprise was frustrated by the outbreak of the revolution in the Netherlands and Belgium. It would be tedious to enumerate the many projects started during the following years. But it is worth recalling that Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, who was then a prisoner in the fortress of Ham, became interested in the subject, and while still a captive obtained a concession and franchise for a canal company from the Nicaraguan government. . . . The idea of a trans-isthmian canal seemed likely in the ‘fifties’ of last century to prove a cause of discord, if not of war, between England and the United States. Under the rather ‘pushful’ foreign policy of Lord Palmerston, England rapidly increased her influence and possessions in Central America. In 1835 ‘British Honduras’ was practically constituted a British colony, and British influence was subsequently extended into Nicaragua and Mosquitia, thus covering the favourite route for an isthmian waterway. The United States were establishing themselves on the Pacific . . . and naturally began to attach more importance to the canal project and to feel more sensitive as regards rival ambitions in Central America. Soon after they had acquired their Pacific territories, began the great rush for gold to California, and some shorter way from east to west became necessary than the sea-trail round the Horn or the weary wagon-trek over the broad North American continent. Already in 1846, before the Mexican War and the discovery of gold in California, the United States had made a treaty with New Granada, by which the former secured rights of transit over the isthmus ‘upon any modes of communication that now exist or may hereafter be constructed,’ and by which they guaranteed the sovereignty of New Granada over all the territories at the isthmus. It was under this treaty that the Panama Railway was constructed which brought the town of Colon (formerly Aspinwall) into existence, and was subsequently taken over by the United States government. This railroad made the isthmus for the first time a highway of world-traffic. It had a monopoly of isthmian transportation, and was able to make any charges it

pleased. Steamship services to the southern and northern coasts of America from Panama were developed, and the railway succeeded so well that it paid down to 1895 an average dividend of 15 per cent. It was bought [in 1881] by the first French Panama Company for the outrageously high sum of £5,100,000 [\$18,094,000 or \$250 a share for sixty-eight seventieths of the capital stock.] The existence of the railway really determined De Lesseps’ choice of the Panama route, and the immense amount of excavation done by the French had a great deal to do in turn with the American choice of the same route, so that the construction of the Panama Railway was a highly important event at the isthmus. The United States took over the railroad from the French with the unfinished canal, together with a steamship service from Colon to New York, owned by the railroad. The rivalry between England and the United States along the Nicaraguan route became so acute and dangerous that a very important treaty was concluded between the two countries in 1850, when we may say that the Panama Canal question entered the domain of modern politics. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, so-called from Mr. John M. Clayton, the American Secretary of State, and Sir Henry Bulwer, British Minister at Washington, who negotiated it, held the field for fifty years, and became the subject of endless discussion between England and the United States.”—J. S. Mills, *Panama canal*, pp. 32-33, 36, 38-41.—The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty guaranteed that the projected canal, whether at Panama or Nicaragua, should be neutral.—See also NICARAGUA: 1850.

1869-1894.—Panama Canal Company.—Beginning of work.—Bankruptcy of company and trial of officers.—Organization of new Panama Canal Company.—The opening of the Suez canal again stirred Great Britain, France, and the United States to an interest in the Panama canal. In 1879 an international congress, representing the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and France, but mainly composed of French delegates, met in Paris to consider plans for the canal. This resulted in the organization of the Panama Canal Company under French law, with Ferdinand de Lesseps as president. “In adopting a sea-level instead of a lock canal, de Lesseps and his associates had run counter to the deliberate opinion of many experienced engineers, and some of those most competent to judge thought they saw danger ahead. But all warnings were lost in the vortex of the popularity of the hero of Suez. With exuberant confidence de Lesseps waved every obstacle aside, and his reputation was so great and his optimism so infectious that the public gladly followed his lead. Hundreds of thousands of his fellow-countrymen rushed to invest their savings in the company at the head of which was the great Frenchman. The construction of the canal [which was begun in 1882] was thus entered on with great enthusiasm and high hopes. Several causes, however, conspired to militate against its success. The principal of these may briefly be described as lack of foresight, inability to cope with disease, extravagance, and bribery and corruption. . . . Finally, as investigation afterwards brought out, there was so much money spent on secret commissions and in other corrupt ways that it has been said with some show of truth that not more than one-third of the total amount expended was actually laid out on the canal. In 1887 it became evident that a sea-level canal could not be built at a reasonable

cost nor within a reasonable time, and accordingly there was substituted a plan for a lock canal, estimated to cost \$300,000,000. Work was continued along the latter line until December, 1888, when the company suspended payment and became bankrupt. It was dissolved by a judgment of the Tribunal Civil de la Seine on February 4, 1889, and a receiver was appointed by the court to take charge of its affairs. A sum of \$262,000,000 had been spent, and in eight and a half years less than a quarter of the canal had been constructed. There was naturally a great scandal and a great outburst of popular indignation in France. Criminal charges were brought against de Lesseps, and in 1893 he was condemned to five years' imprisonment—a sentence which, owing to his advanced age and honorable record, was never enforced. Many others were also brought to trial; some committed suicide, others were fined and sent to prison. Investigation proved that between 1881 and 1887 seven different directors-general had been appointed; that white mechanics had been paid \$5 a day, skilled black laborers \$2.50 a day, and unskilled black laborers \$1.75 a day. . . . The Dutch company which had contracted to do the work of excavation agreed to remove 793,000 cubic yards a month for the first eighteen months and 429,000 cubic yards a month thereafter. It was never able to handle more than 130,000 cubic yards a month. The trial in Paris disclosed the fact that \$400,000 had gone to the genius who proposed a lottery for the purpose of keeping the canal company afloat; \$400,000 went for 'publicity'; \$580,000 was charged to 'banking expenses'; and \$280,000 was paid to politicians, journalists, and members of the chamber of deputies. The Minister of Public Works had demanded \$200,000 for his services, and was paid \$75,000. Baron Reinach was paid \$1,200,000 to float a loan of \$120,000,000, and only half of this loan was subscribed. M. Eiffel, builder of the famous Eiffel tower, was drawn in as the new contractor for the lock-type canal, and a lottery loan was floated. But the money was soon gone, and the collapse followed. It was shown that of the \$262,000,000 raised by the French people, less than \$100,000,000 had been expended at Panama. Salaries and office expenses consumed \$80,000,000; it cost \$32,000,000 to float the loans; and the expenses in Paris were over \$75,000,000. The receiver having finally suspended the works in May, 1889, applied his energies to saving whatever was possible from the wreck, and for that purpose assisted in the reorganization of another company. But this was now by no means easy to do, and it was not until 1894 that the new Panama Canal Company with a capital of \$10,000,000 was successfully established. In the meantime a fresh concession for ten years had been obtained from Colombia in 1890, and in 1893 a further extension had been granted on the understanding that the canal should be completed by October 31, 1904. [See also COLOMBIA: 1895-1900.] In 1900 this term was finally extended to 1910 by the President, but not by the Congress of Colombia—a fact which at a critical juncture in a later period was seized upon to make the concession appear invalid. The New Panama Canal Company did excellent work, and with a comparatively small capital excavated about 11,400,000 cubic yards, as well as making engineering surveys which were afterwards found to be of the greatest value."—I. E. Bennett, *History of the Panama canal*, pp. 102-104.

ALSO IN: J. B. Bishop, *Panama, past and present*, pp. 128-129.—*Appleton's Annual Cyclopaedia*,

1893, p. 321.—*Cyclopedic Review of Current History*, 1893, v. 3, no. 1.

1889-1903.—Evolution of American projects.—Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua.—Purchase of Panama franchises from French Company.—Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.—Treaty with Colombia.—Revolt of Panama.—Treaty with Republic of Panama.—At that time the proposed Nicaragua route was principally contemplated, for the reason that the rights in Panama held by the bankrupt French Company of de Lesseps seemed unobtainable, on any terms which the American Government could accept. A commission appointed by President McKinley to investigate the situation had reported to that effect in November, 1900, and had recommended the building of a canal on the Nicaragua route. "In their study of the Panama route the American Commission had made a valuation of the French works and property, which they placed at 40,000,000 dollars. . . . (The French official receiver had conservatively placed the value at 90,000,000.) [The French company owners valued the property at \$109,000,000.] But deeming it their only wise course, the company in Paris cabled an offer to Washington to sell out at that figure [\$40,000,000]. Consequent upon this turn of affairs, the Commission issued a supplementary report, reversing its former conclusion, and advising the adoption of the Panama route and the purchase of the property of the French company. A few days before, a bill had been carried in the American House of Representatives by a large majority, authorising the construction of the Nicaragua canal at a cost of 180,000,000 dollars. When it reached the Senate, however, an amendment was moved, the so-called 'Spooner Bill,' authorising the President to acquire the French property at Panama; and this became law in June, 1902. The sum of 40,000,000 dollars was to be paid in purchase, which was to include not less than 66,869 shares of the Panama Railroad Company. Further a strip of land was to be obtained from Colombia, in perpetual control by the United States, as the Canal Zone. The President was authorised, in the event of these measures not being successful, to enter into a treaty with Nicaragua and Costa Rica for the territory necessary for a Nicaragua canal."—C. R. Enock, *Panama canal*, pp. 76-77.—Meantime the Hay-Pauncefote treaty with Great Britain which modified the Clayton-Bulwer treaty in such a way as to grant the United States the right to build the canal, and which the American Senate had amended in a manner objectionable to the British Government, was modified to the satisfaction of the latter, and the enterprise was cleared of questions except those between Colombia and the United States. The next ensuing events can be told in the words of President Roosevelt's report of them to Congress, in his message at the opening of the session convened on the 7th of December, 1903: "By the act of June 28, 1902," (known as the Spooner Act) wrote the President, "the Congress authorized the President to enter into treaty with Colombia for the building of the canal across the Isthmus of Panama; it being provided that in the event of failure to secure such treaty, after the lapse of a reasonable time, recourse should be had to the building of a canal through Nicaragua. It has not been necessary to consider this alternative, as I am enabled to lay before the Senate a treaty providing for the building of the canal across the Isthmus of Panama. This was the route which commended itself to the deliberate judgment of the Congress, and we can now acquire by Treaty the right to

construct the canal over this route. The question now, therefore, is not by which route the isthmian canal shall be built, for that question has been definitely and irrevocably decided. The question is simply whether or not we shall have an isthmian canal. When the Congress directed that we should take the Panama route under treaty with Colombia, the essence of the condition, of course, referred not to the Government which controlled that route, but to the route itself; to the territory across which the route lay, not to the name which for the moment the territory bore on the map. The purpose of the law was to authorize the President to make a treaty with the power in actual control of the Isthmus of Panama. This purpose has been fulfilled. In the year 1846 this Government entered into a treaty with New Granada, the predecessor upon the Isthmus of the Republic of Colombia and of the present Republic of Panama, by which treaty it was provided that the Government and citizens of the United States should always have free and open right of way or transit across the Isthmus of Panama by any modes of communication that might be constructed, while in return our Government guaranteed the perfect neutrality of the above-mentioned Isthmus with the view that the free transit from the one to the other sea might not be interrupted or embarrassed. The treaty vested in the United States a substantial property right carved out of the rights of sovereignty and property which New Granada then had and possessed over the said territory. The name of New Granada has passed away and its territory has been divided. Its successor, the Government of Colombia, has ceased to own any property in the Isthmus. A new Republic, that of Panama, which was at one time a sovereign state, and at another time a mere department of the successive confederations known as New Granada and Colombia, has now succeeded to the rights which first one and then the other formerly exercised over the Isthmus. But as long as the Isthmus endures, the mere geographical fact of its existence, and the peculiar interest therein which is required by our position, perpetuate the solemn contract which binds the holders of the territory to respect our right to freedom of transit across it, and binds us in return to safeguard for the Isthmus and the world the exercise of that inestimable privilege. The true interpretation of the obligations upon which the United States entered in this treaty of 1846 has been given repeatedly in the utterances of Presidents and Secretaries of State. . . . Attorney-General Speed, under date of November 7, 1865, advised Secretary Seward as follows: 'From this treaty it can not be supposed that New Granada invited the United States to become a party to the intestine troubles of that Government, nor did the United States become bound to take sides in the domestic broils of New Granada. The United States did guarantee New Granada in the sovereignty and property over the territory. This was as against other and foreign governments.' For four hundred years, ever since shortly after the discovery of this hemisphere, the canal across the Isthmus has been planned. For two score years it has been worked at. When made it is to last for the ages. It is to alter the geography of a continent and the trade routes of the world. We have shown by every treaty we have negotiated or attempted to negotiate with the peoples in control of the Isthmus and with foreign nations in reference thereto our consistent good faith in observing our obligations; on the one hand to the peoples of the Isthmus,

and on the other hand to the civilized world whose commercial rights we are safe-guarding and guaranteeing by our action. We have done our duty to others in letter and in spirit, and we have shown the utmost forbearance in exacting our own rights. Last spring, under the act above referred to, a treaty concluded between the representatives of the Republic of Colombia and of our Government was ratified by the Senate. This treaty was entered into at the urgent solicitation of the people of Colombia and after a body of experts appointed by our Government especially to go into the matter of the routes across the Isthmus had pronounced unanimously in favor of the Panama route. In drawing up this treaty every concession was made to the people and to the Government of Colombia. We were more than just in dealing with them. Our generosity was such as to make it a serious question whether we had not gone too far in their interest at the expense of our own; for in our scrupulous desire to pay all possible heed, not merely to the real but even to the fancied rights of our weaker neighbor, who already owed so much to our protection and forbearance, we yielded in all possible ways to her desires in drawing up the treaty. Nevertheless the Government of Colombia not merely repudiated the treaty, but repudiated it in such a manner as to make it evident by the time the Colombian Congress adjourned that not the scantiest hope remained of ever getting a satisfactory treaty from them. The Government of Colombia made the treaty, and yet when the Colombian Congress was called to ratify it the vote against ratification was unanimous. It does not appear that the Government made any real effort to secure ratification. Immediately after the adjournment of the Congress a revolution broke out in Panama. [See also COLOMBIA: 1902-1903.] The people of Panama had long been discontented with the Republic of Colombia, and they had been kept quiet only by the prospect of the conclusion of the treaty, which was to them a matter of vital concern. When it became evident that the treaty was hopelessly lost, the people of Panama rose literally as one man. Not a shot was fired by a single man on the Isthmus in the interest of the Colombian Government. Not a life was lost in the accomplishment of the revolution. The Colombian troops stationed on the Isthmus, who had long been unpaid, made common cause with the people of Panama, and with astonishing unanimity the new Republic was started. The duty of the United States in the premises was clear. In strict accordance with the principles laid down by Secretaries Cass and Seward . . . the United States gave notice that it would permit the landing of no expeditionary force, the arrival of which would mean chaos and destruction along the line of the railroad and of the proposed canal, and an interruption of transit as an inevitable consequence. The de facto Government of Panama was recognized in the following telegram to Mr. Ehrman: 'The people of Panama have, by apparently unanimous movement, dissolved their political connection with the Republic of Colombia and resumed their independence. When you are satisfied that a de facto government, republican in form and without substantial opposition from its own people, has been established in the State of Panama, you will enter into relations with it as the responsible government of the territory and look to it for all due action to protect the persons and property of citizens of the United States and to keep open the isthmian transit in accordance with the obligations of existing treaties governing the relations of the United

States to that territory.' The government of Colombia was notified of our action by the following telegram to Mr. Beaupré: 'The people of Panama having, by an apparently unanimous movement, dissolved their political connection with the Republic of Colombia and resumed their independence, and having adopted a Government of their own, republican in form, with which the Government of the United States of America has entered into relations, the President of the United States, in accordance with the ties of friendship which have so long and so happily existed between the respective nations, most earnestly commends to the Governments of Colombia and of Panama the peaceful and equitable settlement of all questions at issue between them. He holds that he is bound not merely by treaty obligations, but by the interests of civilization, to see that the peaceful traffic of the world across the Isthmus of Panama shall not longer be disturbed by a constant succession of unnecessary and wasteful civil wars.' When these events happened, fifty-seven years had elapsed since the United States had entered into its treaty with New Granada. During that time the Governments of New Granada and of its successor, Colombia, have been in a constant state of flux. [The President then gives a list, by date, of 53 more or less serious disturbances of the public peace on the isthmus which United States consuls had reported to the government at Washington between May, 1850, and July, 1902. From this he proceeds:] The above is only a partial list of the revolutions, rebellions, insurrections, riots, and other outbreaks that have occurred during the period in question; yet they number 53 for the 57 years. It will be noted that one of them lasted for nearly three years before it was quelled; another for nearly a year. In short, the experience of over half a century has shown Colombia to be utterly incapable of keeping order on the Isthmus. Only the active interference of the United States has enabled her to preserve so much as a semblance of sovereignty. Had it not been for the exercise by the United States of the police power in her interest, her connection with the Isthmus would have been sundered long ago. In 1856, in 1860, in 1873, in 1885, in 1901, and again in 1902, sailors and marines from United States war-ships were forced to land in order to patrol the Isthmus, to protect life and property, and to see that the transit across the Isthmus was kept open. In 1861, in 1862, in 1885, and in 1900, the Colombian Government asked that the United States Government would land troops to protect its interests and maintain order on the Isthmus. . . . The control, in the interest of the commerce and traffic of the whole civilized world, of the means of undisturbed transit across the Isthmus of Panama has become of transcendent importance to the United States. We have repeatedly exercised this control by intervening in the course of domestic dissension, and by protecting the territory from foreign invasion. In 1853 Mr. Everett assured the Peruvian minister that we should not hesitate to maintain the neutrality of the Isthmus in the case of war between Peru and Colombia. In 1864 Colombia, which has always been vigilant to avail itself of its privileges conferred by the treaty, expressed its expectation that in the event of war between Peru and Spain the United States would carry into effect the guaranty of neutrality. There have been few administrations of the State Department in which this treaty has not, either by the one side or the other, been used as a basis of more or less important demands. It was said

by Mr. Fish in 1871 that the Department of State had reason to believe that an attack upon Colombian sovereignty on the Isthmus had, on several occasions, been averted by warning from this Government. In 1886, when Colombia was under the menace of hostilities from Italy in the Cerruti case, Mr. Bayard expressed the serious concern that the United States could not but feel, that a European power should resort to force against a sister republic of this hemisphere, as to the sovereign and uninterrupted use of a part of whose territory we are guarantors under the solemn faith of a treaty. The above recital of facts establishes beyond question: First, that the United States has for over half a century patiently and in good faith carried out its obligations under the treaty of 1846; second, that when for the first time it became possible for Colombia to do anything in requital of the services thus repeatedly rendered to it for fifty-seven years by the United States, the Colombian Government peremptorily and offensively refused thus to do its part, even though to do so would have been to its advantage and immeasurably to the advantage of the State of Panama, at that time under its jurisdiction; third, that throughout this period revolutions, riots, and factional disturbances of every kind have occurred one after the other in almost uninterrupted succession, some of them lasting for months and even for years, while the central government was unable to put them down or to make peace with the rebels; fourth, that these disturbances instead of showing any sign of abating have tended to grow more numerous and more serious in the immediate past; fifth, that the control of Colombia over the Isthmus of Panama could not be maintained without the armed intervention and assistance of the United States. In other words, the Government of Colombia, though wholly unable to maintain order on the Isthmus, has nevertheless declined to ratify a treaty the conclusion of which opened the only chance to secure its own stability and to guarantee permanent peace on, and the construction of a canal across, the Isthmus. Under such circumstances the Government of the United States would have been guilty of folly and weakness, amounting in their sum to a crime against the Nation, had it acted otherwise than it did when the revolution of November 3 last took place in Panama. This great enterprise of building the interoceanic canal can not be held up to gratify the whims, or out of respect to the governmental impotence, or to the even more sinister and evil political peculiarities, of people who, though they dwell afar off, yet against the wish of the actual dwellers on the Isthmus, assert an unreal supremacy over the territory. The possession of a territory fraught with such peculiar capacities as the Isthmus in question carries with it obligations to mankind. The course of events has shown that this canal can not be built by private enterprise, or by any other nation than our own; therefore it must be built by the United States. 'Every effort has been made by the Government of the United States to persuade Colombia to follow a course which was essentially not only to our interests and to the interests of the world, but to the interests of Colombia itself. These efforts have failed; and Colombia, by her persistence in repulsing the advances that have been made, has forced us, for the sake of our own honor, and of the interest and well-being, not merely of our own people, but of the people of the Isthmus of Panama and the people of the civilized countries of the world, to take decisive steps to bring to an end a condition of affairs which had become

intolerable. The new Republic of Panama immediately offered to negotiate a treaty with us. This treaty I herewith submit. By it our interests are better safeguarded than in the treaty with Colombia which was ratified by the Senate at its last session. It is better in its terms than the treaties offered to us by the Republics of Nicaragua and Costa Rica. At last the right to begin this great undertaking is made available. Panama has done her part. All that remains is for the American Congress to do its part and forthwith this Republic will enter upon the execution of a project colossal in its size and of well-nigh incalculable possibilities for the good of this country and the nations of mankind. By the provisions of the treaty the United States guarantees and will maintain the independence of the Republic of Panama. There is granted to the United States in perpetuity the use, occupation, and control of a strip ten miles wide and extending three nautical miles into the sea at either terminal, with all lands lying outside of the zone necessary for the construction of the canal or for its auxiliary works, and with the islands in the Bay of Panama. The cities of Panama and Colon are not embraced in the canal zone, but the United States assumes their sanitation and, in case of need, the maintenance of order therein; the United States enjoys within the granted limits all the rights, power, and authority which it would possess were it the sovereign of the territory to the exclusion of the exercise of sovereign rights by the Republic. All railway and canal property rights belonging to Panama and needed for the canal pass to the United States, including any property of the respective companies in the cities of Panama and Colon; the works, property, and personnel of the canal and railways are exempted from taxation as well in the cities of Panama and Colon as in the canal zone and its dependencies. Free immigration of the personnel and importation of supplies for the construction and operation of the canal are granted. Provision is made for the use of military force and the building of fortifications by the United States for the protection of the transit. In other details, particularly as to the acquisition of the interests of the New Panama Canal Company and the Panama Railway by the United States and the condemnation of private property for the uses of the canal, the stipulations of the Hay-Herran treaty are closely followed, while the compensation to be given for these enlarged grants remains the same, being ten millions of dollars payable on exchange of ratifications; and, beginning nine years from that date, an annual payment of \$250,000 during the life of the convention."

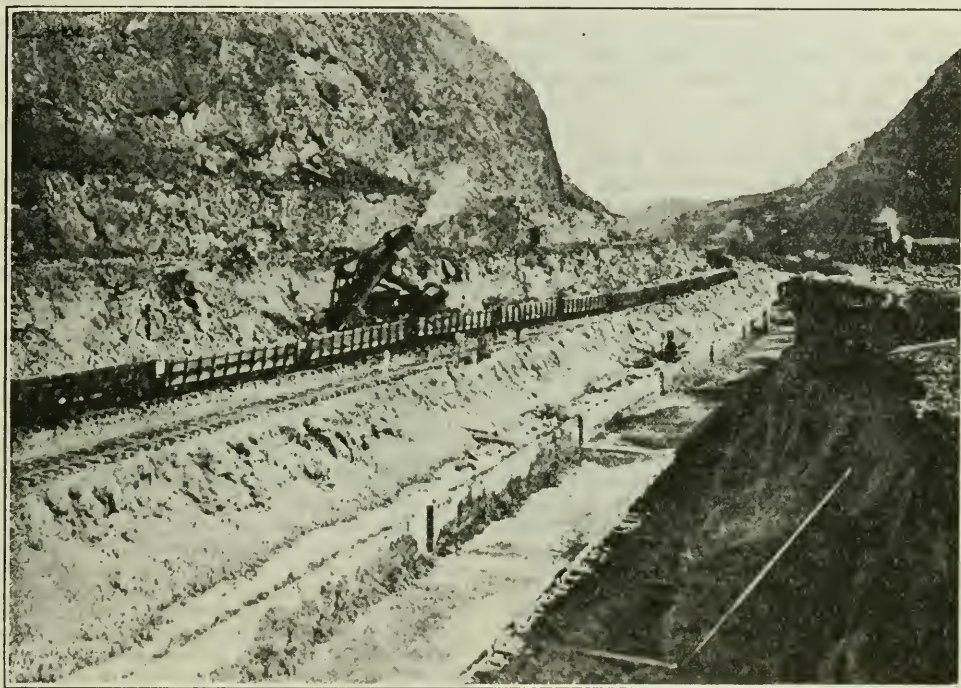
—*President's message, Dec. 7, 1903.*

1904-1905.—Assumption of control of canal by United States.—Administration of John F. Wallace as chief engineer.—Preliminary difficulties.—Achievements of first year.—Comparison of French and American methods in engineering and sanitation.—Reasons for American success.—"American control of the Canal . . . was taken over without any particular ceremony immediately after the payment to Panama of the \$10,000,000 provided for in the treaty. Indeed so slight was the friction incident to the transfer of ownership from the French to the Americans that several hundred laborers employed on the Culebra Cut went on with their work serenely unconscious of any change in management. But though work was uninterrupted the organization of the directing force . . . demanded the testing out of men in high place and the rejection of the unfit; patient experimenting with methods and the

abandonment of those that failed to produce results. There was a long period of this experimental work which sorely tried the patience of the American people before the canal-digging organization fell into its stride and moved on with a certain and resistless progress toward the goal. In accordance with the Spooner act President Roosevelt on March 8, 1904, appointed the first Isthmian Canal Commission with the following personnel: Admiral John G. Walker, U.S.N., Chairman, Major General George W. Davis, U.S.A., William Barclay Parsons, William H. Burr, Benjamin M. Harrod, Carl Ewald Gunsky, Frank J. Hecker. . . . The first commission visited the Isthmus, stayed 24 days, ordered some new surveys and returned to the United States. . . . It was accompanied to the scene of work by an army surgeon, one Dr. W. C. Gorgas, who . . . was not at this time a member of the Commission but had been appointed Chief Sanitary Officer. . . . [Neither was Col. Goethals] at this time associated with the canal work. Coincidentally with the Commission's visit the President appointed as chief engineer, John F. Wallace, at the moment general manager of the Illinois Central Railroad. His salary was fixed at \$25,000 a year. . . . Wallace at the very outset had to overcome one grim and unrelenting enemy which was largely subdued before his successors took up the work. Yellow fever and malaria ravaged the Isthmus, as they had done from time immemorial, and although Sanitary Officer Gorgas was there with knowledge of how to put that foe to rout the campaign was yet to be begun. . . . The new chief engineer tackled the job with energy. There was quite enough to enlist his best energies. It must be remembered that at this date the fundamental problem of a sea level *vs.* a lock canal had not been determined—was not definitely settled indeed until 1906. Accordingly Engineer Wallace's first work was getting ready to work. . . . While the French had left great quantities of serviceable machinery it had been abandoned in the open and required careful overhauling before being fit for use; the railroad was inadequate in track mileage and in equipment. Above all the labor problem was yet to be successfully solved. In his one year's service Wallace repaired 357 French houses and built 48 new ones, but the task of housing the employees was still far from completed. Men swarmed over the old French machinery, cutting away the jungle, dousing the metal with kerosene and cleaning off the rust. Floating dredges were set to work in the channel at the Atlantic end. . . . Meanwhile the surveying parties were busy in the field collecting the data from which after a prolonged period of discussion, the vexed question of the type of canal should be determined. Two factors in the situation made Wallace's job the hardest. The Commission made its headquarters in Washington, 2,000 miles or a week's journey away from the job, and the American people, eager for action, were making the air resound with cries of 'make the dirt fly!' . . . No thought was given to the obstacles in the path, or the wisdom of preparing fully for the campaign before it was begun. . . . Red tape immeasurable wound about the Chief Engineer and all his assistants. Requisitions had to go to the Commission for approval and the Commission clung to Washington tenaciously. . . . Allowing for the disadvantages under which he labored Mr. Wallace achieved great results in his year of service on the Isthmus. . . . He complained bitterly, persistently and justly about the conditions in which he was compelled to work and found in

President Roosevelt a sympathetic and a reasonable auditor. Indeed, moved by the Chief Engineer's appeals, the President endeavored to secure from Congress authority to substitute a Commission of three for the unwieldy body of seven with which Wallace found it so hard to make headway. Failing in this, the President characteristically enough did by indirection what Congress would not permit him to do directly. He demanded and received the resignations of all the original commissioners and appointed a new board with the following members: Theodore P. Shonts, Chairman, Charles E. Magoon, Governor of the Canal Zone, John F. Wallace, Chief Engineer, Mordecai T. Endicott, Peter C. Hains, Oswald H. Ernst, Benjamin M. Harrod. . . . The commission, though similar in form, was vastly different in fact from its predecessor. The President in ap-

Isthmus. . . . [Mr. Wallace's] work had been good, so far as it went. In office a little more than a year, he had spent more than three months of the time in Washington or at sea. But he had made more than a beginning in systematizing the work, in repairing the railroad, in renovating the old machinery and actually making 'the dirt fly.' Of that objectionable substance . . . he had excavated 744,644 yards. Not much of a showing judged by the records of 1913, but excellent for the machinery available in 1905. The first steam shovel was installed during his régime and before he left nine were working. The surveys, under his direction, were of great advantage to his successor, who never failed to acknowledge their merit."—W. J. Abbot, *Panama and the canal*, pp. 170-170, 182-184.—"When we compare the excavation equipment of the French with that assembled



SECTION OF THE PANAMA CANAL UNDER AMERICAN CONSTRUCTION

pointing it had directed that its first three members should constitute an executive committee, and that two of these, Gov. Magoon and Engineer Wallace, should reside continuously on the Zone. To further concentrate power in Mr. Wallace's hands he was made Vice-President of the Panama Railroad. The President thus secured practically all he had asked of Congress, for the executive committee of three was as powerful as the smaller commission which Congress had refused him. . . . It was therefore with the utmost amazement that the President received from him, shortly after his return to the Isthmus, a cable requesting a new conference and hinting at his resignation. . . . Probably the rather savage letter of dismissal with which Secretary Taft met the Chief Engineer's letter of resignation, and the instantaneous appointment in his place of John F. Stevens, long associated with James J. Hill in railroad building, at a salary of \$5,000 a year greater, was the best tonic for the tired feeling of those on the

by the Americans a quarter of a century later the picturesque simile of Mr. Stevens—'as a baby carriage to an automobile'—does not seem far out of the way. The French, like all construction workers of the time, used hand-work mainly. The Americans, with all the remarkable improvements and developments of mechanical science at their command, were able to substitute for hand-work machines which did the work of hundreds, and in some instances, of thousands, of men. The four great instruments of excavation in the American plant were steam-shovels, unloaders, spreaders, and trackshifters. None of these, except the first in crude form, was known to the French. The greatest of the four is the steam-shovel, capable in its most powerful form of removing in an eight-hour day 4,823 cubic yards of rock and earth, or 8,395 tons. This was the highest record attained during American work, and it was accomplished by a 60-ton shovel with a 5-cubic-yard dipper. . . . During the busiest season of work

in Culebra Cut there was a daily average of 43 of these shovels in operation, and the monthly output of each averaged 36,786 cubic yards, or a daily average of 1,415 cubic yards. . . . It is estimated that from two to three times as much drilling was required under the French conditions, twice as large a quantity of explosives, and three times as many men as under American conditions. The average amount of dynamite used by the Americans in the Culebra Cut is about one-half pound for every cubic yard of material blasted, while the French used not less than a pound for every cubic yard. . . . Most of the material excavated in Culebra Cut consisted of rock varying from very soft, which readily disintegrates on exposure to the atmosphere, to very dense rock of great hardness. It was necessary before excavating this material to drill and blast it. Two kinds of drills were used—tripod and well. . . . The maximum number of drills in use at any one time in Culebra Cut was 377, of which 221 were tripod and 156 well. With these over 90 miles of holes have been drilled in a single month. With the modern unloader, the second of the great American excavation instruments, the saving in labor was greater than in the case of the steam-shovels. This machine was unknown to the French. It consists of a steel plough, weighing about $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons, which is drawn from one end of a train of flat cars to the other by means of a cable which is wound on a steam-driven drum. The flat cars upon which it is operated have one high and one open side, and are connected by steel aprons which convert their floor into a continuous surface throughout the train's entire length. As the wedge-shaped plough, which has a surface sloping backward on the open side of the car, moves forward, the material runs off in a continuous stream. . . . Another machine, also unknown to the French, is the spreader, which is a car operated by compressed air, which has steel wings on each side that can be raised and lowered and when lowered reach out from the rails with a backward slope, for a distance of $11\frac{1}{2}$ feet. As the car moves forward the material left in a ridge along the side of the track by the unloader is spread out on a level with that on which the tracks rest. . . . [Finally] there comes still another labor-saving machine, also unknown to the French, the track-shifter, . . . [the invention of W. G. Bierd, the general manager of the Panama Railroad Company which] was first put in service in January, 1907. It consists of a flat car from which a steel truss boom extends 35 feet in front over the track, and a second boom extends 30 feet from the side parallel to and above the level of the track. A cable running over the end of the first boom lifts a section of the track, rails and ties together, and a cable running through the end of the second boom pulls the raised section sidewise. As first operated the machine carried its own engine, and swung a section of track five feet to one side. It now takes its steam from a locomotive and is capable of swinging track a distance of 9 feet. . . . There was removed from Culebra Cut in March, 1913, 1,183,290 cubic yards of material. The highest monthly total of the French at the same time point was 282,528 cubic yards. The American force in the Cut in March, 1913, was about 7,000 men. The working French force, thirty years earlier, was about 9,000 as nearly as can be ascertained. The monthly results per man, as shown by these figures, were for the American 176 cubic yards and for the French 32 cubic yards, or more than five to one in favor of the Americans.”—J. B. Bishop, *Panama*

gateway, pp. 335-340.—“The general impression seems to be that the French accomplished practically nothing on the Isthmus of Panama, and that the \$40,000,000 we paid them was money thrown away. The fact is that we got more in value than we paid. According to an estimate made by a board of engineers in 1908 the work done in the twelve-mile excavation by the French was worth to us more than \$25,000,000 at our own yardage rates. The same experts valued the Panama Railroad at \$9,500,000; the plant and material, used and sold for scrap, the buildings along the line of the Canal, the surveys, plans, maps, and records, at \$6,000,000, and land, clearings, and roads with four years' use of the ship channel in Panama Bay at another \$1,500,000. The maps on which we built the Canal were made by the French, the surveys on which they were founded having previously been verified by our engineers. And, in addition to the twelve miles of excavation in the present waterways, the French had completed two-thirds of the fourteen-mile canal that was to divert the water of the Chagres River under the sea-level plan. . . . There was inefficiency and there was extravagance under the French régime undoubtedly, but the reports as to the enormous salaries paid French Canal officials—said to range from \$50,000 to \$100,000 per year—have been shown to be without foundation. M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla, who was Chief Engineer and General Manager in 1885 and 1886, has made public and unrefuted statements, to the effect that the highest salary paid to a Canal official during the French administration was \$20,000, that sum being received by M. Dinger, the first Director General of the work on the Isthmus. M. Bunau-Varilla's own salary was only \$10,000 per year at first, being later increased to \$12,000. Moreover, the fact that the official valuation of what the Americans obtained for the \$40,000,000 paid the French Company shows it to be worth over \$43,000,000 is seldom recorded.”—W. L. Pepperman, *Who built the Panama canal?* pp. 36-37, 43.—“It has been a pleasing feature of the building of the canal by the Americans that the work of the French, which had been held up to derision largely, has been shown in actual experience to have been effective and necessary, and praise has taken the place of former ignorant censure. Where the French failed was in lack of sanitary measures and funds, and in extravagance and corruption in disposing of funds, and in efficient mechanical appliances—not in their engineering knowledge.”—C. R. Enock, *Panama canal*, p. 21.—“Plans were adopted by the first commission almost immediately after its appointment for the construction of reservoirs to supply the cities of Panama and Colon with water, and later similar plans were adopted for all labor centres along the line of the canal. At the same time plans were adopted for a system of sewers for the cities and the paving or resurfacing of their streets. This work, which was begun in the first six months of American occupation, . . . was performed by the Division of Municipal Engineering, which . . . was in existence till August 1, 1908, when, its work having been completed, it was abolished. During the four years of its activity it expended nearly \$6,000,000, of which about \$2,250,000 was for water-works, sewers, and pavements in the cities of Panama and Colon, and about \$3,500,000 was for work in the Canal Zone. Subsequent expenditures in Colon and Panama brought the total cost of improvements made in them by the commission up to nearly \$3,500,000. All of this, in accordance with the treaty between the United States and Panama,

will be paid back to the United States, through water and sewerage rates, within a period of fifty years, at the expiration of which the system of water-works and sewers within city limits will revert to the cities. . . . Through these expenditures pure water was supplied to the cities of Panama and Colon and all settlements in the Canal Zone, the cities were converted from hotbeds of disease, without water-supply or decent pavements or sewers, into the best-paved, best-watered, and best-sewered cities in Central or South America. Moving side by side with the work of the Division of Municipal Engineering, though separate and distinct from it, was the work of the Sanitary Department. The new methods of fighting disease, which had been shown to be effective by the mosquito tests in Cuba, were put into operation. . . . When the Americans took possession of the Canal Zone in 1904 there were a few scattered cases of yellow fever, but as this was the usual condition between periodic epidemics of the disease, little concern was felt. In January, 1905, however, there was an increase in cases to 19. . . . Eight died, among them a canal employee. There were 14 cases in February, 11 in March, and 9 in April, and of these 18 were employees, 6 of whom died. The 7 cases in April were among employees in the French administration building, which had become the headquarters of the commission in Panama, where about 300 Americans were engaged. When 3 of them died a panic arose among Americans on the isthmus, and all steamers outward bound were laden to the full capacity with frightened employees. An increase of the number of cases in May to 33, including 22 employees, 3 of whom died, and a further increase in June to 62, including 34 employees, 6 of whom died, added to the panic, and nothing except lack of sailing accommodations prevented the scattering of the entire force. In July the number of cases began to decline, showing that the progress of the disease had been checked. . . . By the first of September the disease was shown to be under control, and in December the last case was registered and there was no death. There had been among employees of the commission and Panama Railroad employees 133 cases and 35 deaths."—J. B. Bishop, *Panama gateway*, pp. 241-243.

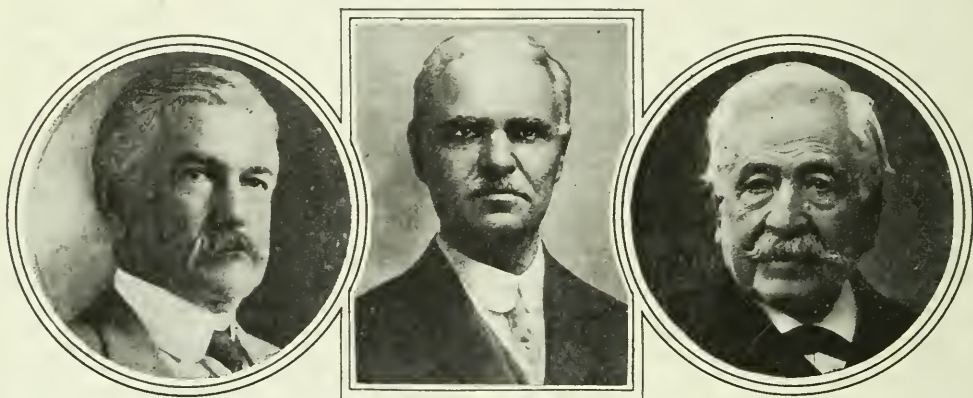
1905-1907.—Administration of John F. Stevens.—Discussion of type of canal to be adopted.—International board of engineers.—Decision in favor of lock canal.—"Mr. Stevens, . . . [the new chief engineer] adopted at the outset the wise determination to reduce construction work to the minimum and concentrate effort on completing arrangements for housing and feeding the army of workers which might be expected as soon as the interminable question of the sea level or lock canal could be finally determined. . . . At the same time Gov. Magoon was working over the details of civil administration, the schools, courts, police system and road building. The really fundamental work of Canal building, the preparation of the ground for the edifice yet to be erected, made great forward strides at this period. But the actual record of excavation was but small. One reason for this was the hesitation over the type of canal to be adopted."—W. J. Abbott, *Panama and the canal*, p. 184.—"As a consequence of the difficulties and discussions attending the work, it was found advisable to appoint a board of consulting engineers, of an international character, to consider the positive plan to be followed. Five of these engineers were Europeans, including the chief engineers of the Kiel and the Manchester Ship canals, the directors of the Suez Canal, and

the state waterways of Holland, and of the French *Ponts et Chaussées*; with eight eminent American engineers. The question to be decided by these thirteen gentlemen was: Should the canal be a sea-level or lock canal? Majority and minority reports were given in. The first was signed by eight of the consultants, including all the Europeans, and was in favour of a sea-level canal. The minority report, by five American engineers, was for a lock canal. Both reports agreed that the sea-level type would probably cost double, both in money and time, that of the lock type; but the majority report held that the advantages of their plan warranted the outlay. The canal engineer, Mr. Stevens, voted for the lock canal. The arguments for the lock canal were that it would be as safe and useful as the other type, that it would provide the best solution of the problem of the Chagres River flood waters, that its enlargement, if necessary, would involve much less expense, that the cost of operation and maintenance would be less, and the time and cost of construction only half that of the sea-level canal. The reports were considered by the regular Isthmian Canal Commission, who, with the exception of one member, indorsed the lock type."—C. R. Enock, *Panama canal*, pp. 109-110.—"The action of his Advisory Board put President Roosevelt for the moment in an embarrassing position. A swinging majority declared for a sea-level canal, and even when the influence of Engineer Stevens, who was not a member of the Board, was exerted for the lock type it left the advocates of that form of canal still in the minority. . . . [The president] threw his influence for the lock type, sent a resounding message to Congress and had the satisfaction of seeing his views approved by that body June 29, 1906. . . . The Americans on the Isthmus now got fairly into their stride. Determination of the type of canal at once determined the need for the Gatun Dam, spillway and locks. It necessitated the shifting of the roadbed of the Panama Railroad, as the original bed would be covered by the new lake. The development of the commissary system which supplied everything needful for the daily life of the employee, the establishment of quarters, the creation of a public-school system were all well under way. Then arose a new issue which split the second Commission and again threatened to turn things topsy-turvy. Chairman Shonts, himself a builder of long experience and well accustomed to dealing with contractors, was firmly of the opinion that the Canal could best be built by letting contracts to private bidders for the work. In this he was opposed by most of his associates, and particularly by Mr. Stevens, who had been working hard and efficiently to build up an organization that would be capable of building the Canal without the interposition of private contractors looking for personal profit. . . . The President approved of the Chairman's plan, and directed the Secretary of War, Mr. Taft, to advertise for bids. Mr. Stevens was discontented and showed it. . . . His complaints to the Secretary of War were many, and not of a sort to contribute to that official's peace of mind. When the bids came in from the would-be contractors they were all rejected on the ground that they did not conform to the specifications, but the real reason was that the President at heart did not believe in that method of doing the work, and was sure that the country agreed with him. This . . . offended Chairman Shonts, who stood for the contract system, and when the bids were rejected and that system set aside, promptly resigned. The President thereupon

consolidated the officers of Chairman of the Commission and Chief Engineer in one, Mr. Stevens being appointed that one. Given thus practically unlimited power Mr. Stevens might have been expected to be profoundly contented with the situation. Instead he too resigned on the first of April, 1907. . . . Two weeks before Stevens resigned the other members of the Commission, excepting Col. Gorgas, in response to a hint from the President had sent in their resignations."—W. J. Abbot, *Panama and the canal*, pp. 187-190.

1907-1914.—Completion of canal under administration of Colonel G. W. Goethals.—Construction of locks.—Culebra cut.—Gatun dam.—"Mr. Roosevelt had determined that henceforward the work should be done by army and navy officers, trained to go where the work was to be done and to stay there until recalled; men who had entered the service of the nation for life and were not looking about constantly to 'better their conditions.' He had determined further that the government should be the sole contractor, the only employer, the exclusive paymaster, landlord and purveyor of all that was needful on the Zone. In short he

date. By December, 1907, . . . dredging in the Atlantic and Pacific entrances of the canal had gone ahead steadily, though not extensively, the amount removed in the Atlantic entrance being 1,732,712 yards, and in the Pacific entrance, 1,956,895 yards, from 1904 to April 1, 1907. In August, four months after Col. Goethals arrived, the organization in the department of construction had developed such a momentum that it was necessary to ask authority from the President to exceed the regular appropriation by \$8,000,000 for the fiscal year to end in June, 1908. The fall of 1907 and the month of October presented a new problem in the canal construction which ever since has been one of the most formidable and uncertain factors in the project. A slide began at Cucaracha on the east side of the Cut near the town of Culebra and suddenly filled the Cut, closing it for transportation. In 1884, the French had noted this earth movement, and during Col. Goethals' first years on the canal it involved an area of forty-seven acres. Before dirt trains could move through the Cut, steam shovels had to work night and day for several weeks, and from that time onward the



WILLIAM C. GORGAS

GEORGE W. GOETHALS

FERDINAND DE LESSEPS

had planned for the Canal Zone a form of administration which came to be called socialistic and gave cold chills to those who stand in dread of that doctrine. To carry out these purposes he appointed on April 1, 1907, the following commission: Lieut.-Col. George W. Goethals, Chairman and Chief Engineer, Major D. D. Gaillard, U.S.A., Major William L. Sibert, U.S.A., Mr. H. H. Rousseau, U.S.N., Col. W. C. Gorgas, U.S.A., Medical Corps, Mr. J. C. S. Blackburn, Mr. Jackson Smith, Mr. Joseph Bucklin Bishop, Secretary. . . . With the creation of this commission began the forceful and conclusive administration of Col. Goethals, the man who finished the Canal."—W. J. Abbot, *Panama and the canal*, pp. 101-102.—"Taking a survey of the conditions when he took charge, Col. Goethals found that 80 per cent of the plant for finishing the canal was on the ground or ordered. The preliminary work for relocating the Panama Railroad had been done, and actual construction of the new line was begun in June, 1907, shortly after his arrival. Excavations in the lock sites were uncompleted, and it was two years later, in 1909, before any concrete was laid. In April, the month he arrived, nearly 900,000 yards were removed from the Culebra cut, the best month's work to that

slides . . . [were] the bugbear of the organization, not because they were insuperable, but from the extra work they involved and the possibility that they might delay the completion of the project."—W. R. Scott, *Americans in Panama*, pp. 133-135.—"The special wonder of the canal, its spectacular show piece, was and still is the Culebra Cut . . . [afterwards named the Gaillard Cut for the man in charge of the work]. To stand at the southern end of the Cut, between the towering, majestic hills of the Great Divide, was an experience which few who had ever had it could easily forget. On either side were the grim, forbidding, perpendicular walls of rock, and in the steadily widening and deepening chasm between—the first man-made canyon of the world—a swarming mass of men and rushing railway trains, monster-like machines, all working with ceaseless activity, all animated seemingly by human intelligence, without confusion or conflict anywhere. Throughout the eight miles of the Cut the scene varied only in the setting. The rock walls gave place here and there to the ragged sloping banks of rock and earth left by the great slides, covering many acres and reaching far back into the hills, but the ceaseless human activity prevailed everywhere. . . . Instead of detracting from the spectacular or picturesque

effects of the natural setting of the work, the slides enhanced them by adding a distinct touch of awe, possibly of terror. They revealed more clearly than ever the tremendous difficulties of the task and the magnitude of the victory which was being achieved in surmounting them. . . . During 1907 work was prosecuted with such vigor at all points along the line of the canal that a grand total of 15,765,290 yards of excavation was accomplished. In March the million cubic-yard limit was reached for the first time and passed. There was a decrease in May and June, due partly to the rainy season and partly to temporary trouble with steam-shovel operators over the question of wages, but in August a total of 1,274,000 yards was reached. . . . There was a large increase in September, October, and November, and in December the 2,000,000 mark was reached and passed in a total of 2,200,000 cubic yards, making the grand total for the year 15,765,290, or an average of over, 1,300,000 a month. This was more than double the amount excavated during the preceding three years, which had aggregated less than 7,000,000 cubic yards. . . . The total excavation of 1908 exceeded 37,000,000 cubic yards, and the average for each month of the year, wet or dry, was about 3,090,000 cubic yards. The highest total for a single month in 1908 was that of March, 1909, when for the first and only time during canal construction the four-billion mark was reached, with a total of 4,062,632 cubic yards. This was the record-mark in excavation. The monthly totals began to drop after that date, for the reason that in several localities the work had been completed and the field of operation had been narrowed. From that time forward excavation ceased to be the primary and became the secondary element in canal work, the construction of locks and dams passing into the first position. . . . Credit for the first suggestion of Gatun as the site for a great dam belongs to Godin de Lépinay, chief engineer of bridges and roads, who was one of the French delegates to the Lesseps International Congress at Paris, in 1879. . . . The Gatun suggestion had evidently attracted attention in the United States, for in 1880 it was advanced by Ashbel Welch, an American engineer, in a paper before the American Society of Civil Engineers, and again by C. D. Ward before the same society in 1904. It was not included in the lock-canal project adopted by Lesseps and the new Panama Canal company in 1887, when he was compelled to abandon his sea-level plan, for that project included one dam at Bohio and another at Bas Obispo, on the Atlantic side, with a double flight of two locks at each point, and duplicate single locks at Paraiso, Pedro Miguel, and Miraflores, on the Pacific side, with a summit elevation of about one hundred feet above sea-level. The Isthmian Canal Commission of 1899-1901 . . . followed the suggestion of the new Panama Canal company and recommended Bohio as the site for a dam. . . . When the first commission that was appointed to it was proceeding under the authority of the Spooner Act of 1902, which provided merely for the construction of a 'canal of sufficient capacity and depth as shall afford convenient passage for vessels of the largest tonnage and greatest draft now in use, and such as may be reasonably anticipated.' No specific type of canal was designated, but the general expectation was that the lock type would be adopted. Operations were begun with that type in view, and the engineers in charge showed that they had the Gatun site in mind by making surveys and soundings at that point as well as at Bohio. These had been under way for some

weeks when the first chief engineer, Mr. Wallace, took charge on July 1, 1904. He continued the work during the eleven months of his administration, but he had in the meantime reached the conclusion that a sea-level canal was preferable to one with locks and took little interest in the investigations and did not make them sufficiently thorough to be decisive. Mr. Stevens, who succeeded him in July, 1905, was impressed on his first careful study of the field by the superior advantages of the Gatun site, and had such additional borings made as convinced him of its suitability. He recommended it earnestly both to canal commission and to the International Board of Consulting Engineers when that body visited the isthmus, in 1905. Its adoption by the minority members of that board in the plan recommended by them and approved subsequently by Congress was due largely to his advocacy. . . . [On the Pacific side] the task was much simpler than at Gatun. It is a curious fact that the most vulnerable feature of the original plan for an eighty-five foot level canal was assailed scarcely at all by the opponents of the project. They directed their assault upon the Gatun site, paying little or no heed to the fact that at the Pacific end a site for two great dams and a double flight of two locks had been selected which had far more questionable features. Work had only begun at this site when it was demonstrated that no suitable foundations for the proposed dams could be secured save at much larger expense than had been estimated."—J. B. Bishop, *Panama gateway*, pp. 193, 195-196, 198, 200, 202-205, 217.—The decision, in June, 1906, in favor of the lock type of canal "did not put an end to the discussion, nor the attacks on the dams and the foundations of the Gatun locks; the latter were passed upon as sufficient for the purpose in April, 1907, by a board consisting of Alfred Noble, Frederick P. Stearns, and John R. Freeman. In 1908, a slip occurred in a rock pile which formed part of the Gatun dam, and revived the question of the sea level versus the lock type of the canal. A rock pile was being constructed to elevation 60 on the upstream side, to form the south toe of the dam, and was being carried across the old French canal, when, because of the steepness of the slope on the downstream side and the amount of silt and soft material in the canal, a movement downstream occurred, carrying with it part of the downstream side of the rock pile. . . . The whole question was gone over again early in 1909 by a board of engineers appointed by the President for the purpose of determining whether or not a change in plans should be made. The board consisted of Frederick P. Stearns, Arthur P. Davis, Henry A. Allen, James D. Schuyler, Isham Randolph, John R. Freeman, and Allen Hazen. . . . This board recommended adherence to the original project. By Executive Order [January, 1908] the dimensions of the locks were changed to a length in the clear of 1,000 feet and a width of 100 feet. These dimensions were criticised in the public press and by officers of the Navy. As the canal was for naval use it was thought that the Navy Department should pass upon the question. . . . In a memorandum dated October 29, 1907, the President of the General Board of the Navy submitted a memorandum stating it was their opinion that sound policy would dictate an increase to a clear width of 110 feet; that the length of the locks as then planned—1,000 feet—was deemed to be sufficient for all naval purposes for an indefinite time to come; the width of 110 feet was adopted. In recommending the lock type of canal to Presi-

dent Roosevelt, the Secretary of War, Mr. Taft, called attention to the exposed location of the locks on the Pacific side to hostile fire in case of war, and recommended their withdrawal, if practicable. . . . On recommendation of the Isthmian Canal Commission the Sosa Hill site with its adjacent dams was abandoned. [By the revised plan two of the locks were built seven miles inland, at Miraflores, instead of at La Boca, as originally intended. The Pedro Miguel locks are separated from the Miraflores locks by a small artificial lake a mile and a half across.] At the same time this change was adopted, the question of concentrating all the locks on the Pacific side in a flight at Miraflores was brought up and considered, but the plan was not adopted because of the extent and character of the foundations. The direction of the breakwaters was changed. These were intended to protect the channel as well as the harbor against the 'northers' that occur on the Atlantic coast, and to give a place of shelter and refuge for shipping. Breakwaters built practically parallel to the channel gave an area but little greater than the channel, in which waves could dissipate after their entrance between the breakwaters, so they could not accomplish the purpose for which they were intended. The west breakwater was projected from Toro Point, and the second one . . . was planned on the east side of the entrance running out from Coco Solo. . . . In 1908, the President, by Executive Order, increased the bottom width of the canal through Culebra Cut to 300 feet. The channel just north of Pedro Miguel was increased to 600 feet in width for a distance of 1,050 feet, gradually reducing to 300 feet in the next 1,600 feet, to provide for the draw that results from filling the locks. The Panama Railroad was relocated throughout its entire length. In 1910, when it became apparent that the available balance would permit the construction of dry docks, machine shops and coaling stations, these were advocated as adjuncts to the canal, but, as they were not authorized by Congress until the latter part of August, 1912, they are completed only in part. The Minority of the Board of Consulting Engineers estimated that nine years would be required to complete the summit-level canal, or to January 1, 1915; this date was accepted, and the work adjusted and prosecuted to this end. The result was that the work in all its parts was advanced to such a stage that the first ocean steamer was passed through the canal on August 3, 1914, and, but for the unexpected slide which occurred north of Gold Hill on October 14, 1914, the canal would have been completed in its entirety within the estimated time."—G. W. Goethals, *Introductory paper (Transactions of the International Engineering Congress, 1915, v. 1, pp. 23-28)*.—"The change of plan delayed somewhat the beginning of work on the Pacific side. There was much less clearing required than at Gatun, and this was begun early in January, 1908. . . . The lock site at Miraflores was crossed from the west by the Cocoli River, a tributary of the Rio Grande. It is quite a formidable stream in times of heavy rains. In order to divert it from the lock site during the period of construction, and to have the use of its waters afterwards in the Miraflores Lake, the dam on the west side, constructed in the same manner as that at Gatun, was run on a line nearly parallel to the axis of the locks from the head of them to Cocoli Hill, a distance of two thousand three hundred feet. By this means the river was made to enter the Miraflores Lake site at its upper end, flowing through it and out

through a diversion channel on the east side of the locks. When the lock work was finished this channel was closed with a concrete dam, extending from the lock walls to the hills. In the dam a spillway allows the surplus water of the lake to escape and be used to supply power to the electric plant near by."—J. B. Bishop, *Panama gateway, pp. 220-221*.—"The construction of the Panama Canal required the construction of three dams, two on the Pacific side [at Pedro Miguel and Miraflores] and one on the Atlantic side. The dam at Gatun [built where the hills converge] is so huge in its proportions, . . . that it eclipses the two dams on the Pacific side. . . . It is really nothing more or less than a hill thrown across the Chagres valley, so as to impound the waters of the Chagres River, converting them into a lake with an area of 164 square miles, and with a shore line of 1,016 miles. The Chagres River drains a watershed of 1,320 square miles. . . . As you approach Gatun, coming down the valley . . . [the hills] swing in toward the canal on both sides, and at that point are only a mile and a half apart. Midway across this valley there was a small hill with a foundation of rock. The problem was simply one of building a dam between the hills at the two sides of the valley, utilizing the small hill in the middle of the valley as a site for the spillway, through which the surplus waters in the lake should be passed over the dam into the sea. The dam which was built is a mile and a half long, half a mile wide at the base [388 feet at 85 feet above sea level—that is at the normal water level], and 100 feet at its crest. It is 105 feet high, making the crest twenty feet higher than the normal surface of the water in the lake. In the construction of the dam two parallel ridges of stone 1,200 feet apart were first thrown across the Chagres valley. . . . The central portion of this earth-dam is known as the hydraulic core. Huge dredges were put to work breaking loose the soft natural cement of the valley below the dam and pumping it into the great pond maintained on the surface of the dam as it rose upward. The material carried in suspension in the water was allowed to settle, and then the water was drawn off and sent back for another load of liquid silt. In this way there was built across the valley, in the heart of the dam, a wall of natural cement 850 feet wide at the base and as high as the dam itself."—I. E. Bennett, *History of Panama canal, p. 146*.—"The mammoth Gatun dam had been begun in 1906, and by 1908 was taking form under the constant dumping of rock and earth from the Culebra cut. On November 20, 1908, a toe of the great dam slipped, where the dam intersected the old French canal channel, carrying about 200 feet of the structure away. The six years from January 1, 1907, to January 1, 1913, constitute the main construction period of the Panama Canal. . . . By October, 1908, the preparatory work, substantially accomplished by Mr. Stevens, passed its highest point, and all energies were centered on the work of construction. Sixty-three steam shovels, in 1907, were increased to 100; the 284 locomotives were augmented to 315; cars of all kinds from 2,700 to 4,356; the mileage in the Canal Zone was increased from 185 to about 500 miles for the Panama Railroad and Commission tracks; the number of unloaders, bank spreaders, track shifters and pile drivers was increased from a third to three times the number left by Mr. Stevens; twenty dredges were put in service, 500 drills for blasting, fifty-seven cranes, twelve tow boats, eleven claps, seventy barges and lighters, fourteen launches, beside much other

machinery and equipment not so noteworthy. The foregoing figures do not include the Panama Railroad equipment. . . . Practically all repairs and creative mechanical work was concentrated in the Gorgona and Empire shops, with capacities commensurate with the equipment. Dredging had progressed in the Pacific entrance to a point where five miles of the canal could be opened to navigation on February 1, 1909. [This was part of the sea level, five hundred foot wide channel from Miraflores to the Pacific.] The first concrete for the Pacific side locks was laid at Pedro Miguel on September 1, 1909, seven days after the beginning of operations at Gatun. It was in February, 1910, that concrete work was started in the two locks at Miraflores, which in 1912, were the most backward feature of canal construction. . . . Three years after beginning the concrete work, or in August, 1912, the locks were more than 90 per cent completed, the one at Pedro Miguel being the nearest done with 95 per cent of the estimated concrete in place. The three locks at Gatun then had about 95 per cent in place and the two at Miraflores about 80 per cent."—W. R. Scott, *Americans in Panama*, pp. 144-145, 162.

1910-1914.—Fortification of the canal.—"The Hay-Pauncefote treaty, ratified December 16, 1901, makes the following provisions: First, abrogates the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. Second, gives the United States power to construct, operate and control a canal. Third, gives the United States a free hand over the canal in time of war. Fourth, forbids the blockading of the canal but does not forbid . . . [its fortification]. Thus ended the years of diplomacy leading up to the construction of the canal. . . . The matter of fortification was definitely settled in the spring of 1911, when the House of Representatives of the United States voted an appropriation of \$3,000,000 for that purpose. This action of the American Congress, and the steps since taken to stud the Isthmian ports with forts, settles forever the diplomatic question of whether or not we have actually acquired from England the right to fortify the canal. Even after the Hay-Pauncefote treaty was ratified and as late as the fall of 1910, there were people in the United States who insisted that the American government had bound itself not to fortify this great waterway. However a careful investigation of the diplomatic provisions of the Anglo-American treaty convinced the Administration and the Congress of the United States, that, by omitting all reference to the question of fortification, the makers of the treaty meant to leave the government of the United States free to do just as it chose in the matter. Naturally, it chose to fortify the canal."—F. A. Gause and C. C. Carr, *Story of Panama*, pp. 276-279.

"The radical view in favor of fortification was represented by ex-President Roosevelt and ex-President Taft. Mr. Roosevelt, it is asserted, had asked Mr. Hay at the time when the second proposal for a treaty with Great Britain was under consideration whether the dropping of the prohibition against fortification meant what it intimated—that the United States was to be free to fortify if it wished. He received an affirmative reply, which was one of the elements deciding him to forward the treaty to the Senate for its approval. President Taft declared, in 1910, that he was in favor of fortification and had been from the time he was Secretary of War. Colonel Goethals, in charge of the construction of the waterway, and General Leonard Wood, Chief of Staff, were among the other prominent men who believed we had the right to fortify and should do so. . . . The ques-

tion has now become academic. The British Government has recognized that the United States is free to use the canal as a military asset. Sir Edward Grey in a note to Secretary of State Knox, dated November 14, 1912, declared in discussing the Canal treaties, "now that the United States has become the practical sovereign of the canal, His Majesty's Government do not question its title to exercise belligerent rights for its protection."—C. L. Jones, *Caribbean interests of the United States*, p. 221.—"The right of the United States to fortify the canal was at first disputed, not only abroad, but by some Americans. The confusion of thought on this subject was caused, in part, by the ambiguous language of the first and second Hay-Pauncefote treaties. While the first treaty seemed to deny the right to fortify, which in part led to the amendment of the treaty by the Senate and its consequent rejection by Great Britain, the second treaty, now in effect, tacitly recognizes the right of the United States to erect fortifications. In the notes exchanged between the two governments Great Britain explicitly recognizes this right."—I. E. Bennett, *History of the Panama canal*, p. 174.

1912-1914.—Panama Canal Act.—Tolls provision.—Repeal.—"When eventually the work had so far advanced that Colonel Goethals and his associates advised the President that the opening of the canal might be expected along about July 1, 1915, the President, who at that time was Mr. Taft, suggested to Congress the propriety of preparing for the actual work of operation and government. The act [see also U.S.A.: 1912 (August); COMMERCE: Commercial age: 1789-1920] 'to provide for the opening, maintenance, protection, and operation of the Panama Canal, and the sanitation and government of the Canal Zone,' approved August 24, 1912, was the result. This act . . . evoked much discussion. It was argued at great length in Senate and House, the discussion centering largely upon the question of tolls,—a question which was destined to become an issue in the succeeding political campaign. The canal was opened nearly a year ahead of the predictions of the engineers, not formally, but sufficient for the passage of small boats connected with the work, and ultimately for regular vessels of commerce, from which, up to about the 1st of February, 1915, tonnage tolls were collected to the extent of about \$2,000,000. While the act approved by President Taft, August 24, 1912, embodied many preceding provisions of law with respect to the operations of the canal, it also contained a number of new provisions, some of them made necessary by the actual operation and maintenance of the property as a canal. . . . The first section defines the Canal Zone and distinguishes the canal by title as 'The Panama Canal.' It authorizes the President, by treaty with the Republic of Panama, to acquire any land above or under the water that may be desired in addition to the ten-mile strip. Section 2 gives validity to all laws, orders, regulations and ordinances heretofore adopted and promulgated in the Canal Zone by order of the President, and continues the courts, subject in each instance to the direction of Congress. Upon the discontinuance of the Isthmian Canal Commission, the President was authorized to complete, govern, and operate the canal and the Canal Zone, or to direct that it be done, 'through a governor of the Panama Canal and such other persons as he may deem competent to discharge the various duties connected with the completion, care, maintenance, sanitation, operation, govern-

ment, and protection of the Canal and Canal Zone.' The President, acting upon this authority, made Colonel Goethals governor of the canal. The formal opening of the canal . . . attaches to the administration of President Wilson, but owing to foreign war conditions and other considerations, action was deferred, although the canal was open for business. The tolls question was provided for in section 5, and this section, by the way, soon proved to be the most important in the bill. First the President was authorized 'to prescribe and from time to time change the tolls that shall be levied by the Government of the United States for the use of the Panama Canal: *Provided*, That no tolls, when prescribed as above, shall be changed, unless six months' notice thereof shall have been given by the President by proclamation. No tolls shall be levied upon vessels engaged in the coastwise trade of the United States.' The tolls question at once became the great bone of contention in Congress and outside. During the latter part of President Taft's term, and by reason of a plank in the Democratic platform, declaring for free passage of American ships using the canal, it continued to be a source of annoyance to President Wilson, who, shortly after he entered the White House . . . demanded of Congress the passage of a bill requiring the vessels of all nations, including our own, to pay tolls on equal terms with all other nations, in accordance with the contention of those who insisted that we were obligated, by the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, to treat ourselves in the matter of tolls exactly as we would treat the other nations. The discussion over the repeal of the tolls exemption clause was one of the most exciting of the Sixty-third Congress. Democrats and Republicans divided upon the question, but most of the former supported the repeal bill because of the attitude of President Wilson. Distinguished leaders like Speaker Clark and Mr. Underwood opposed the President in the House, while Senator O'Gorman, of New York, and others in the Senate fought earnestly for freedom from tolls. Senator Root made one of the most remarkable speeches of his career in the Senate, insisting that the United States was morally bound to repeal the free tolls exemption provision of the Panama Canal Act. In both houses, treaty provisions and diplomatic correspondence were raked over with a fine-tooth comb. All previous laws that had any bearing upon the subject were dragged into the discussion. This measure . . . gives a wide latitude to the President in authorizing the registry of ships and in suspending laws . . . hitherto regarded as protecting American interests with respect to ships and seamen."—I. E. Bennett, *History of the Panama canal*, pp. 237-238, 241, 243.—"Besides its bearing on our relation with other countries, President Wilson advocated the repeal on the ground that it involved an unwise domestic policy. Many had already argued this point. It was urged that the exemption would work out, not as a stimulus to independent steamship lines to enter the coastwise trade, but as a veiled subsidy to the shipping trust. When the bill for repeal came up in Congress, therefore, it no longer stood as a measure on which action was to be taken with a consideration only of our duties under our treaty with Great Britain, but our general diplomatic position was involved and its merits as a domestic measure were questioned. After a long contest in Congress in which some Democrats refused to support the President, because they believed in the programme advocated by the previous Administration, and some protested against the repeal as the breaking of a platform pledge, the

measure passed and received the approval of the President on June 15, 1914. [See also U.S.A.: 1914 (March-June). Before it took its final form, the Senate incorporated an amendment which declared] 'the passage of this act shall not be construed or held as a waiver or relinquishment of any right the United States may have under the treaty with Great Britain . . . or the treaty with the Republic of Panama . . . to discriminate in favor of its vessels by exempting the vessels of the United States or its citizens from the payment of tolls for passage through said canal.'"—C. L. Jones, *Caribbean interests of the United States*, pp. 214-216.—During the debate on the repeal of the tolls exemption, Representative F. C. Stevens made a long speech in which he reviewed the policy of the United States with respect to international rights in maritime canals, and freedom of the seas. In the course of this speech he said: "In many of . . . [the great straits and connecting waterways and canals in the world] the United States has asserted its right of equal treatment; and wherever any question has arisen, our Government has insisted upon its right of equal treatment for its commerce and its citizens in every one of those waterways. The first time there has been any departure by our country from this invariable rule as to equal treatment in the use of any of this class of waterways, was the enactment of this Panama bill of two years ago. . . . [The] great influence of the United States for an open and an equal sea began when it was only a little fringe of States, with a feeble Navy and almost no Treasury, and it has continued with the approval of all our people throughout all administrations of all parties. To-day, when the population and resources of this Nation of 100,000,000 people has enabled it to construct with glory the greatest work known to man, it is now proposed to reverse the policy which always has been both the profit and pride of our people. When this reversal is really understood it will not be permitted by a just and generous people. The very basis for the acquisition by our Government of the Canal Zone, and the acquiescence of the nations in such action, was that it was an act of international eminent domain for the welfare of the world and the equal benefit of the commerce of all nations, and not for our national and selfish purposes. That was the pledge given to the world at the time of our action and as contained in the diplomatic documents of our Government relating to that stirring episode. The other nations took us at our word, believed in our integrity and pledges, and recognized and adopted our action. By the discriminating tolls act of two years ago we repudiate the very basis for our proceedings in our treatment of Colombia and Panama. Instead of an act of international eminent domain for the equal benefit of the world's commerce, we now insist that 'might makes right,' and selfish citizens of ours under the plea that it is an 'American policy' shall be permitted to utilize for their own profit the generous forbearance and confidence of the other nations in the integrity and honor of the United States. No wonder President Wilson is finding it difficult to treat with the representatives of these powers on a basis of sincerity and fair-mindedness. The one document in which these facts are best set forth is the report of Senator Cushman K. Davis, of Minnesota, the chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, presenting to the Senate the first Hay-Pauncefote treaty, and I commend the reading of that remarkable report to everyone who is interested in a proper understanding and solution of this great

question. If the time shall come when it will be necessary for our Government to contend before an international tribunal concerning our rights and obligations and duties under these isthmian treaties, this report of Senator Davis will be the best evidence and almost conclusive evidence that by the terms of them the United States is bound to give equal rights to all nations and to all commerce and all citizens in the use of this transoceanic waterway. . . . If the time shall ever come—and it may—when the bulk of the commerce through the canal shall be for our domestic benefit, and it will be of greater advantage to us to make a free waterway at Panama, just as we have everywhere else, we have a perfect right to do it. But other nations can fairly claim to be included in our policy, just as we have included them in our policy as to treatment of our other canals and rivers and harbors. It is a business proposition as to whether we want the nations of the world to contribute their share to the cost of construction, maintenance, and upkeep of that tremendous project. Our contention is that as a business proposition it ought to be done; that our people ought not to pay it alone; and, if it ought to be done, then we must compel these nations, and if they do pay, then we ought to pay also. We have agreed to do so. We pursue that policy everywhere else. It is the only safe policy for us in our international dealings, and those who use the canal can very well afford to pay their share of its maintenance and the expense for the blessings which they directly receive.”—F. C. Stevens, *Speech in the House of Representatives*, Mar. 28, 1914 (*Congressional Record*, Apr. 6, 1914).—The Canal Zone is a military reservation, and is strongly fortified. “At the Atlantic side the entrance to Limon Bay is somewhat narrow, and the big guns mounted at Toro Point, on one side of the mouth of the canal, and at Margarita Island, on the other side, completely command this entrance from the sea. . . . At the Pacific end all the defenses are on the east side of the channel. Several islands, among them Naos, Flamenco, and Perico, are situated a little distance east of the Panama Bay section of the canal, and some three miles from the mainland. These islands rise precipitously out of the sea and afford excellent sites for heavy armament. They have been connected with the mainland by a breakwater built from Balboa to Naos Island. . . . A railroad and a driveway provide military communication between the mainland and the fortifications. The heaviest armament at each end of the canal consists of a 16-inch gun. . . . At an elevation of forty-five degrees the range is over twenty-four miles, but as mounted the range is something over eleven miles. . . . The secondary defenses on each side consist of six 14-inch guns, six 6-inch guns, sixteen 12-inch mortars, and eight 4 7/10-inch howitzers. The mortar shells have a range of 20,000 yards, or over eleven miles. . . . At extreme range the shell reaches an altitude of over eight miles, its target being the deck of the hostile warship. The small guns and howitzers will come into play only when an enemy approaches within a mile of the fortification and attempts to effect a landing. These howitzers may be moved from place to place to meet the needs of the mobile forces in case of attack by land. . . . The guns of the permanent forts are all mounted on disappearing carriages of the very latest models known to military science, which were especially designed and put through a most exacting test before being adopted. . . . Surprise attacks are guarded against by a complete searchlight equipment at the fortifications. There are 14 searchlights, each with a sixty-inch reflector, capable of

sweeping the entire horizon. . . . When it was decided to fortify the canal, it was generally agreed that the fortifications should be impregnable. The General Board believed that such fortifications would be an invaluable aid in the transfer of a United States fleet from one ocean to the other in the face of an opposing fleet. It pointed out that guns mounted on shore are on an unsinkable and steady platform.”—I. E. Bennett, *History of the Panama canal*, ch. 31, pp. 172-174.

ALSO IN: V. Cornish, *Strategic aspect of the Panama canal* (*Journal of Military Service Institution*, v. 54, pp. 262-265).

1913-1914.—Opening of the canal.—“On January 27, 1914, President Wilson signed an executive order putting into effect the Canal Act of August 24, 1914 . . . and thereby abolishing the Isthmian Canal Commission. On January 29, 1914, President Wilson nominated Colonel George W. Goethals first governor of the Canal Zone, under the new act, and on February 4 the nomination was confirmed by the Senate unanimously. . . . The first passage of the Gatun Locks was made on September 26, 1913, when the sea-going tug Gatun was lifted from the Pacific entrance to Gatun Lake. The first lockage on the Pacific side was made by the tug Miraflores on October 14, 1913. Water was admitted into Culebra Cut by the blowing up of the Gamboa Dike on October 10, 1913, the level of Gatun Lake at that time being about sixty-seven feet. The first use of the canal for commercial purposes was in May, 1914, when tugs began to tow from ocean to ocean barges laden with freight from vessels of the American-Hawaiian Steamship line which had been diverted to the isthmus by the interruption of traffic on the Tehuantepec Railway because of revolutionary troubles in Mexico. This continued until the opening of the canal to all vessels of commerce, and netted over eleven thousand dollars in tolls. The first test trip through the entire canal from ocean to ocean was made by the Panama Railroad steam-ship Cristobal, 9,606 tons, on August 3, 1914. The canal was opened to all vessels on August 15, 1914, when the Panama Railroad steamship Ancon, same tonnage as the Cristobal, made the official trip, carrying about two hundred guests of the Secretary of War. She made the passage in nine hours and forty minutes. During the first three months after the opening, two hundred and fifty-seven vessels were passed and tolls exceeding one million dollars in amount were collected.”—J. B. Bishop, *Panama gateway*, pp. 347-348.—See also U.S.A.: 1914 (August): Opening of Panama canal; CUBA: 1914-1918.

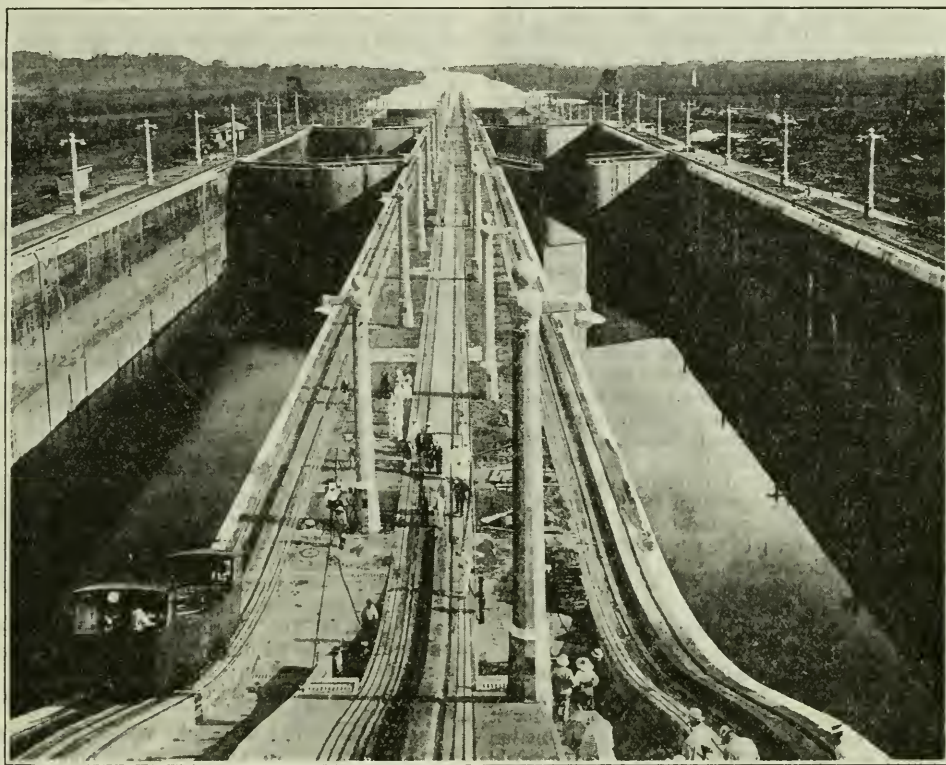
1914.—Description of completed canal.—Slides.—“The first evidence of this vast work . . . from the Atlantic side is the great rock breakwater, which has been built out from Toro Point into Limon Bay, or Colon Harbor, for a distance of over two miles to convert the bay into a safe anchorage, to protect shipping in the Harbor of Colon, and to shelter vessels which are making the Canal. To the left, extending from Cristobal, is a great artificial mole, from which six fine piers reach into the bay. Beyond the end of the lighthouse commences a channel with a depth of 45 feet and a width of 500 feet which extends in an almost straight line for 7½ miles to the Gatun locks. The locks are on the left side of the Chagres valley, and to the right of them the valley has been closed by . . . [the] huge dam. . . . The height of water in the lake is controlled by regulating gates, at the top of the spillway dam, which slide between vertical concrete piers. They are raised and lowered by electric power from a power plant at the spillway, which serves also to provide power for

the electric operation and lighting of the locks and the general plant throughout the full length of the Panama Canal. . . . On emerging from the upper lock, the ship passes into Gatun Lake and proceeds under its own power . . . 24 miles until it reaches the Continental Divide. . . . Here the hills begin to close in on the channel, and for the next eight miles or so, it passes through . . . [the Cut]. Emerging from the [winding channel of] Gaillard Cut, the ship arrives at the locks on the Pacific side known as Pedro Miguel. Here in a single flight the ship is lowered from the elevation of 85 feet of Gatun Lake, to Miraflores Lake which has an elevation of $54\frac{2}{3}$ feet. [Across the lake] . . . it reaches the Miraflores locks, where in two flights it is lowered to sea level. From Miraflores locks, it passed through a dredged channel some 8 miles in length, at the end of which it finds itself in deep water."—*Scientific American*, Mar. 27, 1920, p. 344.—Almost immediately after the opening of the canal it was closed again by one of the worst of the slides, which had caused so much trouble throughout the work. "The greatest difficulty in excavating Culebra Cut was caused by the slides, an unanticipated source of trouble. It is true that Cucaracha slide existed, beginning in 1884 during the French régime, but this was considered a movement of the surface clay, which could be easily overcome. The slide resumed its activity in January, 1905, and a very serious disturbance took place in the fall of 1907, when a large section of the surface of the hill moved entirely across the Cut. . . . By piping water from the Rio Grande reservoir, the material, consisting of clay, was sluiced, until traffic through the slide was opened and the shovels resumed work. Cucaracha in its earlier stages was a typical slide, in that it consisted of clay and other material moving on a surface inclined towards the prism, and it was believed that the removal from the prism of the overlying mass, as it moved in, would overcome all further trouble. These hopes were apparently realized when, except for an occasional slight surface sloughing, the slide ceased to be troublesome in the dry season of 1910-11. The bottom grade of the canal was secured and the widening cuts were progressive towards completion of the section, when, in January, 1913, the rock formation supporting the mass above and back of it gave way, completely closing the prism, reaching an elevation of 69 on the opposite face of the excavated area. In January, 1907, on the east side opposite the village of Culebra, a slide developed and though it was troublesome, nothing very serious was anticipated. . . . In October, 1907, a crack developed fifty or more feet from the face of the bank on the west side of the canal near the old railroad station at Culebra. . . . The masses moving into the Cut materially interfered with the work by overturning or blocking tracks, interrupting drainage, and putting shovels out of service. . . . [When the] canal was opened to commerce on August 15, 1914, . . . a channel 150 feet wide and 35 feet deep had been secured through Cucaracha slide, and there was every hope of maintaining it, . . . [but] on October 15, as work at Cucaracha was drawing to a close, the east bank of the Cut north of Gold Hill for a length of 2100 feet and extending back 1000 feet from the center line of the channel, settled down, and about 725,000 cubic yards of rock and earth were squeezed out and into the canal prism. When the movement occurred there were 45 feet of water; an hour later there were only nine inches in some parts. There were 22 slides at different points along the line, involving the removal of amounts of material varying

from 3300 cubic yards in the slide at Pedro Miguel to over 9,000,000 cubic yards from the West Culebra slide, before the admission of water in October, 1913. The total amount removed by steam shovels because of the slides was . . . 25.32 per cent of the total removed in the dry from the Cut."—G. W. Goethals: *Dry excavation of the Panama canal* (*Transactions of the International Engineering Congress*, 1915, v. 1, pp. 371-372, 376-377).—"A total of 200 miles of railroad track was covered up, destroyed, or dislocated in a single year by these slides. The very bottom of the cut itself was upraised sometimes as much as 18 feet, as if to recover the ground lost by the operation of the steam shovels and the dirt trains. It was more than the mere digging of a ditch that Colonel Goethals had to encounter when seventy-five acres of the town of Culebra broke away and moved foot by foot into the canal; carrying hotels and club houses with them until these buildings were removed. Cucaracha slide carried into the cut many millions of cubic yards of material, bottling up the channel, and sending its 'toe' sixty-odd feet up the other side. It was fight, fight, fight, now with dynamite, now with steam shovels, now with hydraulic excavators, and now with dredges. The campaign finally resolved itself into one of inviting the slides to do their worst, and then meeting them as they came. Some of them, like Cucaracha, were mere masses of material slipping by force of gravity into the channel; others, like the West Culebra slide, were breaks."—I. E. Bennett, *History of the Panama canal*, p. 144.—"There are twelve locks in the Canal, all in duplicate; three pairs in flight at Gatun, with a combined lift of 85 feet; one pair at Pedro Miguel, with a lift of $30\frac{1}{3}$ feet; and two pairs at Miraflores, with a total lift of $54\frac{2}{3}$ feet at meantime. The dimensions of all are the same—a usable length of 1,000 feet, and a usable breadth of 110 feet. Each lock is a chamber, with walls and floor of concrete, and water-tight gates at each end. The side walls are 45 to 50 feet thick at the surface of the floor; they are perpendicular on the face, and narrow from a point $24\frac{1}{3}$ feet above the floor, until they are eight feet wide at the top. The middle wall is 60 feet thick and 81 feet high, with vertical faces. At a point $42\frac{1}{2}$ feet above the surface of the floor, and 15 feet above the top of the middle culvert, this wall divides into two parts, leaving a U-shaped space down the center, which is 19 feet broad at the bottom and 44 feet broad at the top. In this space is a tunnel, divided into three stories or galleries. The lowest of these divisions is for drainage; the middle for the wires . . . [for] the electric current to operate the gate and valve machinery, which is installed in the central wall, and the upper division forms a passage-way for the operators. The lock chambers are filled and emptied through lateral culverts in the floors, connecting with main culverts, 18 feet in diameter in the walls, the water flowing in and out by gravity. The lock gates are steel structures, seven feet thick, 65 feet long, and from 47 to 82 feet high. They weigh from 300 to 600 tons each. Ninety-two leaves are required for the several locks, the total weighing 57,000 tons. Intermediate gates are . . . used, in order to save water and time, and permit of the division of each lock into two chambers, respectively, 600 and 400 feet long. In the construction of the locks there were used 4,500,000 cubic yards of concrete, which required about the same number of barrels of cement. The time spent in filling and emptying a lock average about fifteen minutes, without opening the valves so suddenly as to create disturbing currents in the

locks or approaches. The time required to pass a vessel through all the locks is estimated at 3 hours; one hour and a half in the three locks at Gatun, and about the same time in the three locks on the Pacific side. The time of passage of a vessel through the entire Canal is estimated as ranging from 10 to 12 hours, according to the size of the ship, and the rate of speed at which it can travel, since the twenty four mile passage of Gatun Lake may be made at full speed. . . . No ship is allowed to pass through the locks under its own power, but is towed through by electric locomotives operating on tracks on the lock walls, . . . at the rate of 2 miles an hour. The number of locomotives varies with the size of the vessel. The usual number required is 4: 2 ahead, 1 on each wall, imparting motion to the vessel, and 2 astern, 1 on

are made with watertight and airtight compartments, and thus, since they tend to float, the weight is diminished. The whole aspect of the massive towering walls with their colossal equipment of ponderous steel gates is very imposing. . . . In a building above the locks is situated a control-board, sixty-four feet long, with a complete model of the locks and their appurtenances. . . . A special machine was invented on the spot for opening and closing the gates. . . . The heavy doors, weighing from 400 to 700 tons each, open and close as steadily as an ordinary door, each movement occupying only two minutes. In addition to the safeguards against accidental ramming of the gates . . . there is a further device, known as an emergency dam; a structure in the form of a steel truss bridge of cantilever type . . . so disposed that it can be



PANAMA CANAL LOCKS AT GATUN.

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each wall, to aid in keeping the vessel in a central position and to bring it to rest when entirely within the lock chamber. . . . [To permit of examination and repair of] the lower guard gates of the locks, and the Stoney gates of the Spillway dam, and for access in the dry to the sills of the emergency dams, there have been provided floating caisson gates of the molded ship type. When their use is required the caissons are towed into position in the forebay of the upper lock, above the emergency dam, or between the piers of the Spillway, and sunk. The caissons are equipped with electric motor driven pumps for use in pumping out the caissons and for unwatering the locks."—L. Marshall, *Story of the Panama canal*, pp. 168-170, 174. —The gates, although presenting the appearance [of being] solid, "are in reality hollow. With the object of taking the enormous weight off the top hinge and bottom pivot supporting the gates, they

swung across the entrance to the lock in two minutes, and in the event of destruction of a gate . . . this emergency dam can be lowered to stop the flow. . . . The spillway to the Gatun Dam is in the form of an arc of a circle, 1,200 feet long and 85 feet wide, cut . . . through the centre of the hill of rock in the middle of the dam, with the convex side towards the lake. This heavy concrete structure comprises some 140,000 cubic yards of material. It rises to a point of 69 feet above sea-level, thus reaching to 16 feet below the 85-foot level of the lake."—C. R. Enock, *Panama canal*, pp. 138, 141-143.

1914-1915.—Traffic in first year of operation. —Cost of operation.—"The European War, which began just before the opening of the canal, greatly reduced the volume of ocean commerce and the tonnage of ships employed. . . . Then, as a second interference with the development of traffic during

the early years of the canal, came the slides that closed the waterway to all shipping from September 18, 1915, to April 15, 1916, a period of seven months. In spite of the fact that international trade was greatly reduced by the European war, the traffic through the canal had reached a relatively large volume before the waterway was closed by the slides that occurred September 18, 1915. During July of that year 170 vessels loaded with 705,000 tons of cargo were passed through the canal; and, although this was the largest traffic of any month preceding the closing of the canal, the volume for that month was not greatly above the monthly average which the traffic had attained. During June, July, and August 1915, 474 vessels, carrying 1,884,000 tons of cargo, made use of the waterway. The sudden stopping of so large a current of trade necessarily involved many expensive readjustments of industry and trade. The Culebra slides, with the consequent closing of the canal, could hardly have come at a more inopportune time. The industries and trade of the United States, after about three years of business depression, had entered upon a period of exceptional prosperity in August 1915."—E. R. Johnson, *Panama canal and commerce*, pp. 229, 276, 281.—"The Canal was opened for commercial traffic in the spring of 1914, and was used for over a year before the great slides in the latter part of August, 1915, closed the Canal. It is to be particularly noted that the figures for this first year are unusually conservative. Aside from the fact that commerce was just beginning to adjust itself to this new trade route, there must be taken into consideration the strong adverse influence of the first year of the great war. During the first twelve months of operation the Canal passed four million six hundred thousand tons, which earned five million two hundred thousand dollars. The cost of maintenance and operation during this period was four million one hundred thousand dollars. Included in this cost of operation is an item of one million four hundred thousand dollars for dredging the Gaillard [Culebra] Cut, which should properly be charged to 'Construction.' Making this allowance we find the net income from the Canal for the first year to be two and one half million dollars."—G. M. Bacon, *Panama canal* (*Journal of the Utah Society of Engineering*, July, 1917).

1919-1920.—Commercial value of canal.—Traffic statistics.—"It is evident that the Panama Canal is gradually reaching the point hoped for it during the years when it was under construction but which was immeasurably retarded by the world war. The war set the canal back at least three years and it is only now that the trade routes over which the commerce of the world will in the future be carried are being definitely mapped out. This situation lends interest to the report of the Canal authorities for the year 1920, in which canal traffic showed a steady and cumulative increase.

"Traffic through the Canal during the calendar year 1920 reached a new high record. The commercial ships passing through the Canal during the 12 months numbered 2,814, as compared with 2,478 during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, and 2,134 during the calendar year 1919. The gain was 13.56 per cent. in ships over the fiscal year 1920 and 31.87 per cent. over the calendar year 1919. There were 336 more vessels making the transit in commercial service in the calendar year 1920 than in the fiscal year, and 680 more than in the calendar year 1919. The fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, was the previous record period of 12 months of operation.

"The net tonnage of the commercial vessels in

the calendar year 1920 aggregated 10,378,265 tons, as compared with 8,546,044 net tons in the fiscal year 1920 and 6,919,149 net tons in the calendar year 1919. The gain was 1,832,221 tons, or 21.44 per cent., over the fiscal year; and 3,459,116 tons, or 49.44—practically 50—per cent. over the calendar year 1919.

"The tolls levied during the year aggregated \$10,295,392.96, as compared with \$8,513,933.15 in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, and \$6,992,218.39 in the calendar year 1919. This was a gain of \$1,781,459.81, or 20.92 per cent., over the fiscal year 1920, and \$3,303,174.57, or 47.24 per cent., over the calendar year 1919.

"The cargo carried through the Canal by the commercial vessels aggregated 11,236,119 tons of 2,240 pounds. The cargo in the fiscal year 1920 was 9,374,499 tons, and in the calendar year 1919 it was 7,468,167 tons. The gain was 1,816,620 tons, or 19.86 per cent., over the fiscal year 1920, and 3,767,952 tons, or 50.47 per cent., over the calendar year 1919.

"In summary, the gain over the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, was: Vessels, 13.6; net tonnage, 21.4; tolls, 20.9; and cargo, 19.9 per cent. Over the calendar year 1919 the gain was: Vessels, 31.9; net tonnage, 50; tolls, 47.2; and cargo, 50.5 per cent."—*The Americas*, Feb., 1921.

1920-1922.—Increase in traffic.—Proclamation of official opening.—Revenue in 1921.—Statistics for 1922.—Culebra slide 1922.—"The Canal was informally opened to traffic in August, 1914. On July 12, 1920, the President issued the following proclamation formally announcing the completion of the Canal and declaring it open to commerce:

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF
AMERICA
A PROCLAMATION

Whereas section 4 of the act of Congress entitled "An act to provide for the opening, maintenance, protection and operation of The Panama Canal, and the sanitation and government of the Canal Zone," approved August 24, 1912, . . . and known as the Panama Canal act, provides that upon the completion of The Panama Canal the President shall cause it to be officially and formally opened for use and operation; and

Whereas the canal is completed and is open for commerce;

Now, therefore, I, Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States of America, acting under the authority of the Panama Canal act, do hereby declare and proclaim the official and formal opening of The Panama Canal for use and operation in conformity with the laws of the United States.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done in the District of Columbia this 12th day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand nine hundred and twenty, and of the independence of the United States of America the one hundred and forty-fifth.

[Seal]

WOODROW WILSON

By the President

NORMAN H. DAVIS

Acting Secretary of State.

This formality was necessary in order to comply with the requirements of the Panama Canal act. During the six years of operation [1914-1920] there has been a marked increase in traffic through

the Canal notwithstanding the fact that the World War has everywhere prevented the normal development of ocean-going commerce. After the entry of the United States into the war there was a decrease in commercial traffic, due to the diversion of certain lines of ships to trans-Atlantic service, which was more than offset by the increase in traffic growing out of the war, chiefly on account of the development of the nitrate trade with the Pacific coast of South America."—C. Harding, *Annual report of the governor of the Panama canal, 1920*, p. 1.—"In terms of money [in the year ending June 1921], The Panama Canal had gross revenues of more than twenty-seven million dollars; increased investment in capital additions, stock, etc., of eight millions; gross operating expenses of twenty-four and one-half millions. The excess of revenues over operating expenses was two and three-fourths million dollars. No interest on capital cost of the canal is included in this. Vessels of the United States had a larger share than those of any other nation in canal traffic, and vessels of the British Empire followed. Japanese and Norwegian ships held third and fourth places, respectively. In cargo tons, American vessels carried approximately 45 per cent of the total; British vessels, 32 per cent; Japanese vessels 7 per cent; and Norwegian vessels, a little less than 6 per cent. The vessels of these four countries carried, between them, 89 per cent of all the cargo that passed through the canal. The most important trade served by the canal, rated on the basis of cargo tonnage, was that between the east coast of the United States and the west coast of South America. More than 900,000 tons of cargo moved in each direction in this trade."—J. J. Morrow, *Annual report of the governor of the Panama canal, 1921*, pp. 2-9.—"In spite of the fact that [in 1922] gross receipts from tolls and other miscellaneous receipts grouped under the head of 'transit revenue' were slightly less than in 1921, the net transit revenue of The Panama Canal in 1922 was \$3,466,574.69, as compared with \$2,711,816.56 in the previous year. This result was obtained by a material reduction in operating expenses. The number of vessels making the transit (2,736) was less than in the preceding year (2,892), and they carried less cargo (10,844,910 tons, as compared with 11,599,214 tons). Their aggregate net tonnage, however, was slightly greater, being 11,417,459, as compared with 11,415,876 in 1921. This denotes, of course, an increase in the average size of vessels using the canal. There was a decrease in the number of American vessels using the canal but an increase in their aggregate net tonnage. British vessels show a falling off both in number and tonnage, and the same is true of Norwegian, Danish, Italian, and Chilean vessels. The number of Japanese vessels increased from 136 to 180, and their aggregate net tonnage from 613,245 to 872,466. French, German, Dutch, and Swedish vessels register an increase. American vessels carried 45.5 per cent of the cargo moving through the canal, British vessels 30.5 per cent, Japanese vessels 9.5 per cent, and Norwegian vessels 3.7 per cent. This represents a relative increase for the Japanese and a loss for the Norwegians, while Americans and British hold approximately the same share in the traffic as in 1921. The paramount interest of the United States in Panama Canal business is indicated by the fact that 68.6 per cent of all westbound cargo moving through the canal in 1922 was shipped from our Atlantic ports, and 53.2 per cent of all eastbound cargo was shipped from our Pacific ports. Cargo moving in the United States coastwise trade represented 23.5 per cent of all cargo handled. The maintenance of the channel involves

the removal of silt and of material carried into the canal prism by slides in the Gaillard Cut. The Cucuracha slide and the Culebra slides showed intermittent movements during the year, but were controlled without difficulty . . . A general movement occurred on the afternoon of July 14, 1921, on the east side of the cut one-half mile north of the Culebra slides and opposite the barge repair station, carrying a mass of earth and rock into the channel amounting to 185,000 cubic yards. This slide caused such shoaling in the canal that a channel only 120 feet wide and 30 feet deep along the west bank was available for the passage of ships"—J. J. Morrow, *Annual report of the governor of the Panama canal, 1922*, pp. 1, 3-4, 6, 11.

ALSO IN: H. L. Abbott, *Problems of Nicaragua canal*.—A. E. Bullard, *Panama, the canal, the country and the people*.—R. E. Backenhus, H. S. Knapp and E. R. Johnson, *Panama canal*.—L. Nixon, *Canal tolls and American shipping*.—G. W. Goethals, *Government of Canal Zone*.—Idem, *Panama slides* (*Engineering News*, v. 74, p. 1009).—E. Root, *Obligations of the United States as to Panama canal tolls* (*Speech in Senate*, Jan. 21, 1913).

PANAMA CANAL TOLLS. See PANAMA CANAL: 1912-1914.

PANAMA CITY, Bombardment of (1903). See U.S.A.: 1914-1921.

PANAMA CONGRESS (1826). See LATIN AMERICA: 1822-1830; COLOMBIA: 1826.

PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION, San Francisco. See CALIFORNIA: 1915; U.S.A.: 1915 (January-December); SAN FRANCISCO: 1915.

PANAMA RAILROAD COMPANY. See NICARAGUA: 1850.

PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS (Panama congress). See COLOMBIA: 1826.

PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS. See U.S.A.: 1915 (August-October).

PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESSES: First (1889-1890). See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890; ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1889-1890; U.S.A.: 1889-1890.

Second (1901-1902). See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902; ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1902; CHILE: 1901-1902.

Third (1906). See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

Fourth (1910). See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.

Fifth (1923).—"The Fifth Pan-American Conference, which opened in Santiago, Chile, on March 25, closed its deliberations on May 4, 1923. No decision was reached on any of the principal subjects proposed for discussion. The sovereign status of each participating State, making it impossible to take any resolution without unanimous consent, prevented the solution of any question involving matters in which opposed points of view and conflicting interests were involved. Thus is explained the failure of the disarmament proposal made by Chile; of the plan for a Latin-American League, originated by Uruguay, but not even discussed; and of the momentous arbitration question."—*Results of the Pan-American congress* (*New York Times Current History*, June, 1923, pp. 500-501).—Among the practical achievements of the congress were the adoption of The Hague convention with regard to the drug traffic and a number of hygienic and commercial measures including provision for the protection of trademarks. "The changes effected by the conference in the present organization of the Pan American Union,

were as follows: 1. The creation of four permanent committees to assist the Pan American Union in the study of the following subjects: Economic and commercial relations between the American States; International organization of labor in America; questions of hygiene in the countries of the continent; and the development of intellectual cooperation, with special reference to cooperation between American universities. 2. The redrafting of the article providing for the composition of the governing board of the Pan American Union, so as to authorize an American Republic which may not have a diplomatic representative accredited to the Government of the United States to appoint a special representative on the governing board. It was also provided that the chairman of the governing board, who has heretofore been ex officio the Secretary of State of the United States, should be elected by the board."—*Brief summary of conference achievements (Pan American Union Bulletin, 5th International Conference of American States, Aug., 1923, p. 164).*

PAN-AMERICAN EXPOSITION. See **BUFFALO: 1901.**

PAN-AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR. See **LATIN AMERICA: 1916-1918.**

PAN-AMERICAN FINANCIAL CONFERENCE.—May, 1915, the Pan-American Financial Conference met in Washington. "The Ministers of Finance and prominent bankers of practically every one of the twenty southern countries, as well as the leading financiers of the United States, attended the conference. By it was established the International High Commission, a composite body with official representatives from each American republic. The program of the Commission, as laid down, covered a wide but well-considered range, embracing: (1) The establishment of a gold standard of value; (2) uniform customs regulations; (3) the international protection of trademarks, copyrights and patents; (4) the establishment of a uniform low rate of postage and the improvement of the money order and parcels post facilities between the countries of the Americas; and (5) the extension of the principle of arbitration to include the adjustment of commercial disputes. In addition to these subjects the International High Commission, at a later meeting in Buenos Aires, dealt with the extension of banking facilities and credits, international agreements for uniform labor legislation, and improved telegraph and transportation facilities between the American republics, including the use of wireless telegraphy for commercial purposes. The work of this Commission and other influences have had remarkable results in developing Inter-American commercial relations."—S. G. Inman, *Problems in Pan Americanism*, pp. 227-228.—"The International High Commission, at its meeting in Buenos Aires, besides dealing with questions of finance and administration, constituted a Central Executive Council for the purpose of systematizing and co-ordinating its work, carrying out its recommendations, and preparing the programs of future meetings. This council consists of three members—a president, vice-president, and a secretary-general. These three places are occupied by the chairman, vice-chairman, and secretary of the national section of the country chosen for the time being as headquarters of the International High Commission. On motion of a member from Argentina, Washington was unanimously designated as the headquarters of the commission till the next meeting, and the chairman, vice-chairman, and secretary of the United States section thus became the constituent members of the Central Executive Council.

The Central Executive Council, on entering upon its labors, decided that the best plan of procedure would be, while pressing the work of the conference as a whole, to select certain subjects for more immediate, definite treatment. With this view, it selected five subjects: (1) The establishment of an international gold clearance fund; (2) an international agreement to facilitate the work of commercial travellers; (3) legislation concerning negotiable instruments (including The Hague rules on bills of exchange), checks and bills of lading and warehouse receipts; (4) the arbitration of commercial disputes; (5) the ratification of the conventions adopted by the Fourth International American Conference at Buenos Aires in 1910 on trade-marks, copyrights, and patents. In pursuance of this plan the Central Executive Council . . . formulated drafts of treaties concerning commercial travellers and the establishment of an international gold clearance fund, and these drafts . . . [were] submitted through the Department of State of the United States to the governments concerned, together with explanatory memoranda."—J. B. Moore, *Principles of American diplomacy*, pp. 306-307.

PAN-AMERICAN POSTAL UNION. See **U.S.A.: 1921: Pan-American Postal Union.**

PAN-AMERICAN RAILWAY.—"The most grandiose project of railway construction in the new world is that connected with the building of the Inter-continental Railway commonly called the 'Pan-American Railway,' which was first broached at the meeting of the Pan-American Conference at Mexico in 1901. The plan then devised was to have a trunk line stretching all the way from New York to Buenos Aires."—W. R. Shepherd, *Latin America*, p. 188.—See also **AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902; RAILROADS: 1912-1922.**

PAN-AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS.—"Invitations to the First Pan-American Scientific Congress [proposed as a result of the successful Latin-American scientific congresses] were issued in 1907 by the president of the University of Chile. Members of that Congress met in Santiago de Chile in December, 1908, where many interesting papers were read concerning topics of common interest to the Three Americas. In December, 1915, the Second Pan-American Scientific Congress met at Washington. Delegates from the independent nations of America read to that Congress articles upon topics of mutual interest. That Congress was of special Pan-American significance because the President of the United States in a noteworthy address took occasion to develop certain ideas about the relations of the American nations."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations*, p. 563.—"The Washington Congress, which was presided over by His Excellency Eduardo Suárez Mujica, ambassador of Chile and chairman of the Chilean delegation, embraced in its program anthropology and allied subjects; astronomy, meteorology, and seismology; conservation of natural resources, agriculture, irrigation, and forestry; education; engineering; international law, public law, and jurisprudence; mining and metallurgy, economic geology, and applied chemistry; public health and medical science; transportation, commerce, finance, and taxation. In order to discuss these subjects the Congress, whose sessions opened on the 27th of December and closed on the 8th of January, was divided into nine sections and forty-five subsections."—J. B. Moore, *Principles of American diplomacy*, p. 307.

PAN-AMERICANISM.—"The term Pan-Americanism was first used in newspaper discus-

sions relating to the International American Conference held at Washington in 1889-90. The New York Evening Post appears to have been the first to employ it. To the Post is also to be credited the first use of the adjective, Pan-American. This term was introduced into the columns of the Post in 1882, during the agitation of Mr. Blaine's first proposal for a conference of American states at Washington. But it was little used until the conference convened in 1889, when, having been adopted by other leading dailies it soon won universal acceptance."—J. B. Lockey, *Pan-Americanism, its beginnings*, p. 2.—"To some, Pan-Americanism is the Utopia of peace, a demonstration of the superior morality of the Western over the Eastern Hemisphere, of the New World and its Christianity over the Old. To some it is a dream of the monopolization of South American trade by the United States; to others, the Monroe Doctrine and our chivalrous protection of the weak against aggression; to others, a vision of empire in the Western Hemisphere. To many in South America, Pan-Americanism stands for the peculiarly hypocritical fashion in which the elder brother makes known his demands for the deference due to him and for the privilege justly his. Pan-Americanism is not yet a reality. The word still connotes a varied and inconsistent complex of ideas: pacifists, capitalists, imperialists, have built in its name structures framed in the image of their own desires and ambitions. . . . While the premise of Pan-Americanism obviously cannot be that of racial unity, as in the case of the European movements similarly designated, it does assume that the geographical proximity of North and South America results in something approaching the isolation of the two from Europe, so that the geographical connection between them is closer than that of either with Europe or Africa. It also predicates quite clearly the political and economic independence of the Western Hemisphere against the rest of the world."—R. G. Usher, *Pan-Americanism*, pp. 203, 205.—See also AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF; LATIN AMERICA: 1822-1830; 1917-1918: Part played in World War; PAN-AMERICAN FINANCIAL CONFERENCE; PAN-AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS.

ALSO IN: W. R. Shepherd, *Hispanic nations of the New World*, pp. 227-235.—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin American nations*.—S. G. Inman, *Problems in Pan Americanism*.

PANATHENÆA, Festival of the. See PARIHENON.

PANAY, one of the Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Geographical features and natural resources; map.

PANDECTS OF JUSTINIAN, compilation of the Roman civil law under the Emperor Justinian. See CORPUS JURIS CIVILIS; AMALFI.

PANDO, José Manuel, president of Bolivia, 1890-1904. See BOLIVIA: 1899.

PANDYA KINGDOMS, traditional kingdoms of India, comprising the present districts of Madura and Tinnevely. See INDIA: 647-1310.

PANGANI RIVER, in German East Africa. Its valley was a scene of fighting in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 10.

PANGASINAN, Filipino tribe. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: People.

PAN-GERMAN LEAGUE. See PAN-GERMANISM: Pan-German League and its branches.

PAN-GERMANISM: Doctrine defined.—Its genesis and steps taken towards its fulfilment.—"What is Pan-Germanism? It may be doubted whether all that is implied in that term is fully realized in this country [Great Britain]. One in-

terpretation may be given to the word, which is not merely innocuous, but which may even reasonably appeal to the sympathies of those who approve of the new map of Europe being constituted with a view to applying that nationalist principle, which finds almost universal favour in all democratic countries. It cannot be too distinctly understood that the political programme now [1916] advocated by Germany has no sort of affinity with a plan of this sort. The Germans contend not only that all those who are of what is termed 'German origin' should be brought into the German fold. Moreover, they give to this latter phrase an expansion and a signification which is condemned and derided by all who have paid serious attention to ethnological studies. This, however, is far from stating the whole case. The object of the German Government is to effect the whole or partial Germanization of countries inhabited by races which cannot by any conceivable ethnological process of reasoning, be held to be of German stock. In fact, M. Chéradame very correctly describes Pan-Germanism when he says that its object is to disregard all questions of racial and linguistic affinity and to absorb huge tracts of country the possession of which is considered useful to advance Hohenzollern interests. In other words, what they wish is to establish, under the name of Pan-Germanism, a world system whose leading and most immediate feature is the creation of an empire stretching from the Persian Gulf to the North Sea."—Lord Cromer, *Introduction to A. Chéradame, Pangerman plot unmasked*, pp. xiv-xv.—"Its genesis is as follows: In the year 1886 the well-known traveller, Dr. Karl Peters, convened a congress at Berlin, which was to be called the 'General German Congress,' and to which all German national associations were invited. There a so-called 'German League' was founded, in which all the various 'national' German organizations were amalgamated. But soon they began to quarrel among one another, and when, shortly afterwards, Karl Peters went to Africa, there was nothing left to hold them together, and the League was dissolved. Bismarck's fall, and the feeling that Germany had been 'done' over the Zanzibar Treaty of 1890, rekindled the desire among the old members to belong to some national league or other strong enough to influence the policy of the Government, which the people were then somewhat suspicious of. The 'German League' was therefore reconstituted in the year 1891. Membership was open to all on payment of an annual subscription of one mark. For a year it did well; but anti-Semitism broke out and infected the League, while Saxony and Bavaria were too particularist to have anything in common with a Prussian-German movement. The League contracted debts. From 21,000 members its numbers sank rapidly to 5,000. Its dissolution appeared imminent. Then there appeared on the scene the Reichstag deputy for Leipzig, Professor Hasse, who was elected president. He took over the entire management of the society, and set to work to restore order. He issued an appeal for help, which was meagrely responded to. Still, it was enough. In 1894 the *Alldeutsche Blätter*, or *Pan-German Leaves* was issued for the first time, under the editorship of the late Dr. Lehr, to whom, with Professor Hasse, the chief credit for the success of Pan-Germanism is due. In the same year the German League changed its name again, and has ever since been known as the 'Pan-German League' [*Alldeutscher Verband*]."—*Pan-Germanic doctrine*, pp. 25-26.

German presentation of Pan-Germanism.—"It

was in the year 1896 . . . that the Emperor [William II] gave formal expression to the Pan-Germanic idea, which has ever since been appraised by the Pan-German press as a 'true Pan-German speech,' and certainly seemed to indicate that such was His Majesty's intention. This speech, the opening paragraph of which now [1904] adorns Pan-German pamphlets, was as follows: 'Out of the German Empire a world Empire has arisen. Everywhere in all parts of the earth thousands of our countrymen reside. German riches, German knowledge, German activity, make their way across the ocean. The value of German possessions on the sea is some thousands of millions. Gentlemen, the serious duty devolves on you to help me to link this greater German Empire close to the home country, by helping me, in complete unity, to fulfil my duty also towards the Germans in foreign parts.' These words in the mouth of the German Emperor . . . created a great sensation at the time throughout Germany, and were generally interpreted as heralding something in the shape of a Pan-German policy—a policy of reclaiming *Deutschum*, or Germanism, across the seas."—*Pan-Germanic doctrine*, p. 13.—"When the new Prussian 'House of Lords' was opened at the beginning of 1904, Count von Bülow solemnized the occasion with a Pan-German speech. 'Prussia,' he said, 'first in Germany; Germany first in the world.' . . . Germans must acquire land, asseverate Pan-German leaders. . . . 'Germany's future lies on the seas,' said the Emperor. Germany wants her place 'in the sun,' repeats Count von Bülow, somewhat more modestly."—*Pan-Germanic doctrine*, pp. 36, 50.—"The Allies have denounced the Germans as barbarians. If this were meant to imply that Germany was not a civilized nation (*Kulturnation*) such an accusation would, of course, be absurd. Germany is unquestionably a civilized nation, and none of the spokesmen of the Allied Powers would think of denying that she has produced rich treasures of 'Kultur.' Wherever the German mind has laboured, wonderful riches have been the outcome. In the most diverse domains, but especially in those of music, of literature, of science and religion, it would be easy to mention names that shine with the lustre of renown throughout the whole world. But . . . even the highest Kultur can turn to barbarism when it becomes subservient to utterly false and immoral ideas. Any reference to Germany's great Kultur in the past is of no use here. That we acknowledge, and from that we shall continue to learn; it can never perish. But the non-German nations, especially Germany's neighbours and those who feel their position threatened by Germany's increasing strength and world-power, must of necessity ask: to what ends is all this highly-developed Kultur to be applied? In Germany, such a craving for power, such a worship of mere strength, has taken root and grown that the claim of right to be the determining factor in international relations has been entirely pushed aside."—J. P. Bang, *Hurrah and hallelujah, teaching of Germany's poets, prophets, professors and preachers*, pp. 17-18.—"In 1911 a "book written in German by a distinguished cavalry soldier, General von Bernhardt . . . has for its title and subject matter 'Germany and the Next War'—'Deutschland und der nächste Krieg'—a problematical war, observe. . . . General von Bernhardt is something of a scholar as well as a distinguished soldier. Like many German officers, he has attempted to understand not only his profession as a soldier but the 'why' of that profession; studying the history, the literature, the

politics and even the philosophy of his nation, seeking the answer to the question: What is Germany? And by 'Germany' he understands the vital, onward-striving force flowing in German blood from an endless time down to the present, and from the present flowing onwards into an endless future. What, he asks, is the precise value, the precise significance of that force in its present manifestation—'Germany'? And he has a perfectly definite answer: It is strife; it is war. And the direction of that strife? It is the isolation of Russia by bribes; the destruction of the antagonistic force named France beyond the power of raising her head; and thereafter Germany will be face to face with the day of reckoning with England. . . . To him this war with England is inevitable. And his book is symptomatic; that is to say, it represents the mood, the conviction, the fervent faith of thousands and tens of thousands of Germans—Prussians, Saxons, Suabians, Bavarians. Its philosophy is derived from Nietzsche and Treitschke. . . . An empire . . . [Germany] once had, centuries before France and England fought. That empire is lost. But in the German race the instinct for empire is as ancient and as deeply rooted as it is in the English race; and in the Germany of the present time [1913], above all, this instinct, by reason of the very strength of Germany within herself, her conscious and vital energy, her sense of deep and repressed forces, is not a mere cloud in the brain, but is almost an imperious necessity. This is the real driving-force in German politics, the essential thing. Hence the further question which young Germany asks is the question which Treitschke asks: At what point in her history did Germany swerve from the path to empire? Can she again find that path, or is it irrecoverably lost? Germany, from her own inward resources, produces year by year greater surplus energy, mental and physical, than any other nation in the world; yet year by year, by emigration to America, to England, and to other lands, that surplus energy is lost to her. . . . These are the problems which, at the present hour, press in upon the mind of every thinking German. They have been the study of serious historians like Oncken, Treitschke, Mommsen, Sybel, even of Droysen. They are the questions which find their answer in novelists, poets, publicists and politicians. Pamphleteers like Eisenhart and Bley here agree with men of academic rank like Schmoller and Maurenbrecher, Franke, and Müller. And the answer now given to the inevitable question, What stands in the way of those desires and aspirations? is: Germany has one enemy. One nation blocks the way. That nation is England. . . . England may gradually sink from internal decay, as Venice gradually sank after 1500, dying of senility, until at a touch from Napoleon's sword she crumbled; or, if she has spirit enough, England may perish from a bayonet-thrust to the heart. But perish she must. And the judgment of the great national historian of Germany is quoted—Heinrich von Treitschke, a man whose position is almost as if he were the poet-laureate in prose of Bismarckism and of the Hohenzollern dynasty. In Treitschke's phrase, 'a thing that is wholly a sham cannot in this universe of ours endure for ever. It may endure for a day, but its doom is certain; there is no room for it in a world governed by valour, by the Will to Power.' And it was of England that he spoke. The prophecy of Niebuhr eighty years ago, the fall of Britain which Stein in his dying years augured, is thus for these critics nearer fulfilment. The mode of the fulfilment is uncertain. The question of

questions to young Germans, eager with historical analogies, exuberant with life, is: Who is to be the inheritor of this moribund, or quasi-moribund, empire? This Venice-Carthage of the twentieth century—who is to destroy her? . . . To the students of Sybel, who, awed and solemn, saw in 1870 the manifest finger of God; to the students of Giesebrecht, who saw in Germany the nation of nations, God's chosen for the accomplishment of His inscrutable will, the answer is obvious; and when from the writings of Giesebrecht they turn to Treitschke, and from Treitschke to Droysen and Häusser, the old crude idea of a day of reckoning with England acquires a new significance. Germany is watching and waiting. Year by year silently she prepares. . . . And here let me say with regard to Germany that of all England's enemies she is by far the greatest. . . . She is the greatest and most heroic enemy—if she is our enemy—that England, in the thousand years of her history, has ever confronted.”—J. A. Cramb, *Germany and England*, pp. 9-13, 31-33, 45.—See also WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: h, 1; h, 2.—“Every nation is convinced of the higher value and consequently of the better right of its own civilisation, and is inspired by a strong desire, which is like an unconscious natural force, to attain more and more authority for its own civilisation. Not every nation is conscious of this force. The great Roman generals and statesmen were well aware of it, when they advanced, conquering as they went, into Greece, Asia Minor, North Africa, above all into Gaul and Germany where they followed up the conquest by arms, with the conquest by superior Roman civilisation. Such a steady consciousness of national civilisation exists to-day [1913] among the English people. The Englishman is deeply imbued with the idea of the superiority of Anglo-Saxon culture. . . . He is convinced that English rule and the consequent Anglicising is a blessing, and he bases his right to expansion and conquest on his sense of the superiority of Anglo-Saxon civilisation and Anglo-Saxon institutions. The grand fabric of the British Empire, the greatest the world has seen since the Roman Empire, for which no sacrifice of life or property was ever refused, was and is supported by the steadfast consciousness and firm intention on the part of English people of being bearers of a higher civilisation to every spot where English power extends. The English belief in the superiority of their own intellectual, moral, religious, legal, and economic life is the vital force in English national policy. Higher civilisation has always bestowed political rights. The belief in a real or supposed higher civilisation has always provoked a claim to rights. When France, after the Great Revolution, flooded Europe with her armies, she based her right to conquest on the supposed blessings of Republican freedom. She felt herself the bearer of superior political culture to other nations, especially the Germans and Italians. In our country [that which later became Germany] in particular there were not a few who recognised this right, and were only cured of their error by the bitter experiences of Napoleonic despotism. The civilising mission of the French Revolution was based on a fundamental misconception of the nature of civilisation in which, compared with religion, morals, law and education, political institutions have a subordinate value, and it condemned itself by the growing brutality of Napoleonic rule. But there are civilising missions which are justified. For instance, those that the Christian Colonial Powers have to fulfil in Africa at the present time. Thus Russia

is justified as a bearer of higher civilisation to Asia. And if ever the battle between the higher and lower civilisation should cease in the world's history, our belief in the further development of mankind would lose its foundation. We should be bereft of a great and ideal hope.”—B. von Bülow, *Imperial Germany*, pp. 292-294.—See also KULTUR.

Pan-German League and its branches.—Political program.—“But in reality the League was in process of potential formation, if we can use such an expression, from the morrow of the victorious war of 1870. By a delicate irony its virtual promoter seems to have been William II himself, in the days when, as Crown Prince, he professed ideas which he repudiated as Emperor. It is said that he liked to encourage the early doctrinaires of Pan-Germanism. A certain pamphlet, entitled *A Universal German Empire*, which was disseminated broadcast throughout the Empire, was popularly supposed to have been drawn up in the immediate circle of the Prince Imperial. It contained these words: ‘Our aim must be the development of German power with all that it involves. The grouping of all its members into one political whole has always been the object of the efforts of a virile nation. It must be well done; we must confine our efforts within just limits; we must go forward gradually till the moment arrives when we can unmask our batteries without danger; then Europe will find herself faced by a situation whose smallest details have been prepared, and against which she will be powerless.’ The League . . . claimed ‘to implant in the masses of the German nation the conviction that German development by no means reached its highest point after the events of 1870 and 1871. The German Empire has become a world empire, but we have not yet derived from this fact all its consequences. Above the interests of the State, should be the interests of the Nation; even more sacred than love for the Fatherland should be love for the Mother country.’ ‘Love for the Mother country’ is to be shown at home by assimilating with energy all refractory elements, Poles, Danes, Alsatians, and abroad by more and more extensive and ‘active dealings’ with the Germans of Austria, Switzerland, and elsewhere, with the Flemish, etc. . . . We must also make special mention of the powerful and active *Deutsche Kolonialgesellschaft*, the Colonial Association. . . . When the question arose of increasing the German fleet, the Pan-German League headed the movement, and the better to cope with the situation created a special society, the *Deutscher Flottenverein*. . . . The success of this organization for increased naval armaments was so great, that it was thought advisable to start a similar association for the army. This was the object of the *Deutscher Wehrverein* (Society for German Defense) which was founded in 1912, and has [1915] 278,000 members and more than 450 branches. Each portion of territory that is ‘threatened’ by a non-German population is under the protection of a special society. Since 1894 the *Deutscher Ostmarken-Verein* has undertaken to oppose the Poles in East Prussia. . . . The borders of Denmark are watched over by the *Deutscher Verein für das nördliche Schleswig*, a society of 13,000 members, founded in 1891. Since 1881, the *Verein für das Deutschtum in Ausland* has dealt with emigrants, kept them in touch with the Mother country, started German schools, etc. It has 50,000 members, 340 branches, and has already spent more than 4,000,000 marks on maintaining German education abroad. Other specialized associations, which it would take too long to

enumerate, are all working for the same end. Many of these societies have different branches for men and women, and there are also branches for young people, who are united in virtue of the most varied pretexts under the aegis of Pan-Germanism. For example, there is the *Deutsche Jugendwehr* for young folk at the seaside, the *Deutsch-nationaler Handlungs-Gehilfen-Verband* for young tradespeople, the *Jung-Deutschland Bund* for physical preparation for military service, the *Verein Deutscher Studenten* for all Pan-German students. The Pan-German League is . . . merely the center round which revolve an infinite number of associations of similar tendencies. . . . With the exception of the adherents of Socialism—and not all of them even—the whole of Germany is [1915] Pan-German in sympathy, which means that she is possessed by a clear and reasoned ideal of expansion, conquest, and universal domination.”—P. Vergnet, *France in danger*, pp. 12-18.

“The Austrian Pan-German party was founded by Schoenerer . . . when he announced in the Reichsrat (December 18, 1878) that there was a growing desire among German Austrians for union with Germany. And in 1882 what is known as the Linz programme was formulated. This programme, among other things, demanded the excision from Cisleithania of Galicia, Bukovina, and Dalmatia, and the inclusion of Cisleithania in the German Customs Union. But, repelled by Bismarck, who never coquetted with Pan-Germanism, Schoenerer met with indifferent success until the year 1896, when, in co-operation with Professor Hasse, he sent two trusty henchmen, Bley and von Pfister-Schwanghosen, on a mission to establish Pan-German bases in Austria. These two gentlemen, after visiting a number of towns, were very successful, and Pan-German propaganda began to bear fruit. . . . The historical relations between Germany and Holland have not been particularly happy or warm since the days when Belgium and Holland ceased to form part of the old Roman-Germanic Empire. In 1787 Prussia was practically in possession of Holland, but, being in those days unconscious of her historical mission, she naïvely restored the House of Orange. After the Napoleonic wars Prussia was unpopular among the Dutch, who developed strong nationalist tendencies, instead of allying themselves . . . with Prussia. . . . In dealing with the Pan-German claims upon Holland it is [1904] well to bear in mind that they are threefold in kind, which explains the various methods of pressure brought to bear upon Holland, to induce her to mend her ways and lean upon Germany. . . . The most obvious basis for Germany's claim is, of course, the question of the Rhine. . . . Treitschke, commenting upon this, wrote in his history: ‘The Dutch regard the Rhine as open to Dutchmen, to the French and Swiss, but not to Germans.’ However, this has since been remedied.” Dutch policy during the World War, however, proved to be one of strict neutrality, leaning no more to the side of Germany than to that of the Allies. “The case is the same with Denmark. . . . Indeed, the history of Denmark in the last . . . [eighty] years has been nothing more than the struggle of a small people for national existence, in which pronounced hostility to Prussia has played a prominent part. . . . In the year 1901 the celebrated Norwegian writer, Björnson, delivered an address in Berlin—spoke of the civilizing influence of German culture, of union in the future among all Germanic peoples, and referred to himself as a Pan-German. This perfectly voluntary confession

of faith led Pan-Germans to believe that Scandinavia was coming round to the good cause, and led German newspapers to speak of the author as an ‘Alldentscher,’ which is the German for Pan-German. But when subsequently Björnson's attention was drawn to the appellation—Alldentscher—he would have none of it, and wrote to the newspapers begging them not to confuse him—a Pan-German in the peaceful sense of the word . . . with Pan-Germanism as interpreted by the League: which ‘pursued political aims, desired new lands, and was an aggressive organization’ with which he, as a ‘Pan-Germane,’ had nothing in common. . . . Now, of all countries in Europe, Sweden and Norway are the two where the German personally is the least liked. . . . Early in the year 1902 the question of neutralizing Scandinavia and of forming an alliance of a defensive nature with Germany was actually discussed in the Swedish Parliament, on a motion moved by the Socialist Deputy, Hedin. And in reply the Minister President, Baron Lagerheim, rejected the idea of alliance with Germany, as also that of neutralization, which he held to be entirely unnecessary. . . . As a matter of fact, neither politically nor economically has Scandinavia betrayed the slightest desire to approach Germany.”—*Pan-German doctrine*, pp. 73, 106, 107-108, 147, 141-142, 145, 144.—“The Pangerman plan of 1911 had provided for the permanent exclusion of Russia as a great power by means of two measures: 1. To carve out of the Empire of the Tsars and annex to the German Confederation a slice of territory large enough to cut off Russia entirely from the West. 2. To constitute at the expense of Russia, thus reduced, new States which should bow the knee to Berlin. Mr. Dietrich Schaefer, the well-known historian, in the *Review Panther*, affirmed, early in February, 1915: ‘It is absolutely necessary for us to expand the sphere of our power, especially eastward . . . the immense Russian force must recede behind the Dnieper’ (quoted by *L'Information*, 5th February, 1915). . . . Up to 1911, when Tannenberg published the programme of annexations, all previous great events had favoured William II.'s aims; but from 1912 onward events suddenly raised very serious and quite unexpected obstacles to the execution of the Pangerman plan. In 1912, Italy conquered Libya at the cost of Turkey and against the will and pleasure of Berlin. Again in 1912 Greece, Montenegro, Serbia and Bulgaria became united against the Ottoman Empire; this also was contrary to the will and pleasure of Berlin. What was quite unexpected by the Kaiser's Staff was the victory of the Balkan peoples over the Turks. As Germany had upheld the latter she felt profoundly humiliated. Then, in order to hinder the foundation of an efficient Balkanic Confederation—that is, one constituted on the principle of a fair balance—Vienna, and above all, Berlin, used as their tool the Tsar Ferdinand's well-known ambition to establish Bulgarian supremacy in the peninsula.”—A. Chéradame, *Pangerman plot unmasked*, pp. 26, 52.—See BALKAN STATES: 1912-1913.—Perhaps one of the most remarkable interpretations of the Pan-Germanic programme was that published by Field Marshal Bronsart von Schellendorf: “Do not let us forget the civilizing task which the decrees of Providence have assigned to us. Just as Prussia was destined to be the nucleus of Germany, so the regenerated Germany shall be the nucleus of a future Empire of the West. And in order that no one shall be left in doubt, we proclaim from henceforth that our continental nation has a right to the sea, not only to the North Sea, but to the

Mediterranean and Atlantic. Hence we intend to absorb one after another all the provinces which neighbor on Prussia. We will successfully annex Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Northern Switzerland, and then Trieste and Venice; finally Northern France from the Sambre to the Loire. This programme we fearlessly pronounce. It is not the work of a madman. The Empire we intend to found will be no Utopia. We have ready to our hands the means of founding it and no coalition can stop us."

See also AUSTRIA: 1898; 1920; BAGDAD RAILWAY: Plan; BELGIUM: 1916-1917; GERMANY: 1881-1913; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: b, 2; h; i, 1; 1914: IV. Turkey: a, 1.

PAN-HANDLE, name for that part of West Virginia which projects northward, lying between Ohio and Pennsylvania.

PANHYPERSEVASTOS. See SEVASTOS.

PANICS, Financial, United States: 1812. See STOCK EXCHANGE: New York Stock Exchange.

1837. See U.S.A.: 1835-1837.

1857. See TARIFF: 1846-1861.

1873. See U.S.A.: 1873.

1884. See U.S.A.: 1884: Financial disasters.

1893. See U.S.A.: 1890-1893; WISCONSIN: 1856-1893.

1907. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1901-1909.

1914. See STOCK EXCHANGE: 1914-1918.

PAN-IONIC AMPHICTYONY. See IONIC AMPHICTYONY.

PANIPAT, or Panniput, Battles of (1526, 1556, 1761). See INDIA: 1399-1605; 1747-1761.

PAN-ISLAMIC CONFERENCE. See TURKEY: 1921 (January-February).

PAN-ISLAMISM.—"Pan-Islamism is a movement with the purpose . . . to unite for defensive and aggressive action. It aims to combine by the ties of the religion Moslems of every race and country, in the work of conserving and propagating the faith and of freeing it by means of political and military force from alien rule and thus making it again a triumphant world power. It has a religious side and a political side. On the religious side it is conservative and would strenuously maintain Islam. Yet it would have a platform broad enough to include all sects and parties. On the political side it would weld into an alliance all Moslem peoples and governments. . . . Uniting Islam in a great final struggle is in accordance with its alleged prophecies, and the ever-present hope of its complete triumph. A Holy War is expected to precede the judgment and by means of it all authority is to pass into the hands of Moslems. . . . One difficulty to be overcome was the condition of division into sects and nationalities. Islam has not been a unit since the twelfth year after the Prophet's death, [when it split into the two great divisions of Shiites and Sunnites] nor since the second century of the Hegira has it maintained outward unity. It has abounded in opposing sects whose hostility oftentimes unsheathed the sword. . . . New movements have led to new schisms. The Wahabis [see WAHHABIS], the Babis [see BABISM], the Sudan Mahdists [see MAHDI], each in its turn created antagonisms . . . jealousies and hatred. . . . These exist among Islamic peoples just as between Christians. By race Moslems have been divided into 80,000,000 Caucasians, 70,000,000 Mongol-Turks, 44,000,000 Malay-Draavidians, and 36,000,000 Negroes or Negroids. Arabs, Turks, and Kurds have their racial and political antagonisms. Iran and Turan did not forsake their age-long warfare by accepting Mohammed. The national ambitions of the Albanians

and Egyptians are in opposition to those of the Ottomans. Berbers and Arabs fought through centuries and the Berbers twelve times threw off the yoke of Islam. Even in Central Africa Islam has not had influence enough to overcome the national peculiarities of the races who have adopted it. . . . These difficulties did not seem insuperable and the task was entered upon with strong determination. —S. G. Wilson, *Modern movements among Moslems*, pp. 59-62.—"The first spark was fittingly struck in the Arabian desert, the cradle of Islam. Here, at the opening of the nineteenth century, arose the Wahabi movement for the reform of Islam, which presently kindled the far-flung 'Mohammedan Revival,' which in its turn begat the movement known as 'Pan-Islamism.' . . . Secure in his autocratic power, Abdul Hamid now began to evolve his own peculiar policy, which, from the first, had a distinctly Pan-Islamic trend. . . . Emphasizing his spiritual headship of the Mohammedan world rather than his political headship of the Turkish state, he endeavored to win the active support of all Moslems and, by that support, to intimidate European Powers who might be formulating aggressive measures against the Ottoman Empire. Before long Abdul Hamid had built up an elaborate Pan-Islamic propaganda organization, working mainly by secretive, tortuous methods. . . . The Young-Turk revolution of 1908 greatly complicated the situation. . . . By 1912 Pan-Islamism had recovered its poise and was moving forward once more. The reason was renewed pressure from the West. In 1911 came Italy's barefaced raid on Turkey's African dependency of Tripoli, while in 1912 the allied Christian Balkan states attacked Turkey in the Balkan War, which sheared away Turkey's European provinces to the very walls of Constantinople and left her crippled and discredited. Moreover, in those same fateful years Russia and England strangled the Persian revolution, while France, as a result of the Agadir crisis, closed her grip on Morocco. Thus, in a scant two years, the Moslem world had suffered at European hands assaults not only unprecedented in gravity but, in Moslem eyes, quite without provocation. The effect upon Islam was tremendous. A flood of mingled despair and rage swept the Moslem world from end to end. And, of course, the Pan-Islamic implication was obvious. . . . But with the coming of the Balkan War the wrath of Islam knew no bounds. . . . Most significant of all were the appeals made at this time by Moslems to non-Mohammedan Asiatics for sympathy and solidarity against the hated West. This was a development as unprecedented as it was startling. . . . The Great War thus found Islam everywhere deeply stirred against European aggression, keenly conscious of its own solidarity, and frankly reaching out for Asiatic allies in the projected struggle against European domination. Under these circumstances it may at first sight appear strange that no general Islamic explosion occurred when Turkey entered the lists at the close of 1914 and the Sultan-Caliph issued a formal summons to the Holy War. . . . The attitude of these leaders does credit to their discernment. They recognized that this was neither the time nor the occasion for a decisive struggle with the West. . . . [The most decisive setback to Pan-Islamic ambitions in recent years was the entrance of the sherif of Mecca into the war, on the side of the Allies, as a result of powerful British support. Other factors of importance have been the forced abdication of the sultan-caliph in 1922 and the recent successes of the Nationalist government in Turkey, which have a tendency to

emphasize racial rather than religious solidarity. But] the whole trend of events betokens an increasing solidarity of the Near Eastern peoples against Western political control. A most remarkable portent in this direction is the Pan-Islamic conference held at Sivas early in 1921. This conference, called to draw up a definite scheme for effective Moslem co-operation the world over, was attended not merely by the high orthodox Moslem dignitaries and political leaders, but also by heterodox chiefs . . . between whom and the orthodox Sunnis co-operation had previously been impossible."—L. Stoddard, *New world of Islam*, pp. 23, 66-70, 73-74, 236.

See also BABISM; MAHDI; PAN-TURANISM; SENUSSIA; WAHHABIS; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Moslem occupation; EGYPT: 1905; 1906; 1906-1907; 1907-1911; INDIA: 1905-1922; 1907-1921; TURKEY: 1921 (January-February); WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: a, 1.

PANIAM, Battle of (198 B.C.). See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 224-187.

PANJAB. See PUNJAB.

PANKHURST, Emmeline, English woman suffrage leader. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: England: 1860-1905; 1906-1914.

P'AN-KU, Chinese god. See MYTHOLOGY: Chinese.

PANNONIA AND NORICUM.—"The wide extent of territory which is included between the Inn, the Danube, and the Save—Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, the Lower Hungary, and Sclavonia—was known to the ancients under the names of Noricum and Pannonia. In their original state of independence their fierce inhabitants were intimately connected. Under the Roman government they were frequently united."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 1. Pannonia embraced much the larger part of the territory described above, covering the center and heart of the modern Austro-Hungarian empire. It was separated from Noricum, lying west and north-west of it, by Mons Cetius.—For the settlement of the Vandals in Pannonia, and its conquest by the Huns and Goths, see VANDALS: etc.; HUNS: 441-446; 453; GOTHs: 473-474.

See also AUSTRIA: 805-1246; BATONIAN WAR; HUNGARY: 896; MORAVIA: 9th century; ROME: Empire: B. C. 31-A. D. 14.

PANO, South American Indian tribe. See ANDESIA NS.

PANORMUS.—The modern city of Palermo was of very ancient origin, founded by the Phœnicians and passing from them to the Carthaginians, who made it one of their principal naval stations in Sicily. Its Greek name, Panorma, signified a port always to be depended upon. See SICILY: Phœnician and Greek colonies; PALERMO.

Battles at (254 B.C., 251 B.C.). See PUNIC WARS: First.

PAN-SERBISM. See JUGO-SLAVIA; SERBIA: 1903-1908; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 16.

PAN-SLAV CONGRESSES. See SLAVS: 1830-1914; BOHEMIA: 1848-1897.

PAN-SLAVISM.—Pan-Slavism came into existence about 1830. In 1848 the leaders of the movement called a congress at Prague, which was attended by representatives from Bohemia, Poland, Croatia, Moravia, Dalmatia, Silesia and Serbia. They met again in Moscow in 1867, and in Prague in 1908. The movement exerted considerable influence on affairs in Europe, and was largely responsible for the war between Russia and Turkey (1877-1878), which Alexander II claimed to wage

in order to protect the oppressed Slavs of the Balkan peninsula. "Pan-Slavism is a very difficult movement to define because it undoubtedly meant different things to different men. Originally it was merely a movement to organize, protect, and assist Slavonic culture: music, literature, art. But gradually it took on a political meaning: the union, so far as possible, of all the Slavonic peoples into one political whole. And as it was expressed by the Russian government, it almost certainly meant the extension of Russian power and influence over all the Slavonic race. In its hands it became a tool of Russian imperialism, a movement to be utilized if it served Russian ends, if not, to be abandoned. But it is very doubtful if it meant this to the Russian peasant. To him all Slavs were brothers, the sorrows of one were the sorrows of all, the advantages of one should be the advantages of all."—W. S. Davis, *Roots of the war*, p. 457.—"The Balkan Peninsula presented an obvious field for the activity of those zealous for the cause of Slavic welfare. . . . But here the interests of Austria would at once be vitally affected. . . . However cordial the intercourse might be between Austria and Russia, however specific the political agreements, however friendly the sovereigns, experience has shown again and again that the raising of the Eastern Question was fraught with danger to good relations between the two empires."—A. C. Coolidge, *Origins of the Triple Alliance*, pp. 79, 82-84.—During the course of the World War, Pan-Slavic congresses were held at Prague on January 6, 1918, at Agram on March 2, 1918, and at Laibach during July of the same year.

See also SLAVS: 1830-1914; ADRIATIC QUESTION: Jugo-Slav contention; AUSTRIA: 1848-1849; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1914-1915; 1917-1918; BOHEMIAN LITERATURE: Rôle in Slavic philology; POLAND: 1872-1910; RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1836-1859; UKRAINE: 1795-1860; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 11; 16.

ALSO IN: R. W. Seton-Watson, *German, Slav and Magyar*.—L. Levine, *Pan-Slavism and European politics*.

PAN-SYRIAN CONGRESS (1920). See SYRIA: 1908-1921.

PANTÆNUS (fl. 180-200), head of the catechetical school at Alexandria. See EDUCATION: Ancient: A. D. 1st-2nd centuries.

PANTANO DE BARGAS, Battle of (1819). See COLOMBIA: 1810-1819.

PANTHEISM. See BABYLONIA: Religion; DEISM; PAPACY: 1864.

PANTHEON AT ROME.—"At the same time with his Thermæ, Agrippa [son-in-law and friend of Augustus] built the famous dome, called by Pliny and Dion Cassius, and in the inscription of Severus on the architrave of the building itself, the Pantheon, and still retaining that name, though now consecrated as a Christian church under the name of S. Maria ad Martyres or della Rotonda. This consecration, together with the colossal thickness of the walls, has secured the building against the attacks of time, and the still more destructive attacks of the barons of the Middle Ages. . . . The Pantheon will always be reckoned among the masterpieces of architecture for solid durability combined with beauty of interior effect. The Romans prided themselves greatly upon it as one of the wonders of their great capital, and no other dome of antiquity could rival its colossal dimensions. . . . The inscription assigns its completion to the year A. D. 27, the third consulship of Agrippa. . . . The original name Pantheon, taken in connection with the numerous niches for statues

of the gods in the interior, seems to contradict the idea that it was dedicated to any peculiar deity or class of deities. The seven principal niches may have been intended for the seven superior deities, and the eight *ædiculæ* for the next in dignity, while the twelve niches in the upper ring were occupied by the inferior inhabitants of Olympus. Dion hints at this explanation when he suggests that the name was taken from the resemblance of the dome to the vault of heaven."—R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna*, ch. 13, pt. 2.—"The world has nothing else like the Pantheon. . . . The rust and dinginess that have dimmed the precious marble on the walls; the pavement, with its great squares and rounds of porphyry and granite, cracked crosswise and in a hundred directions, showing how roughly the troublesome ages have trampled here; the gray dome above, with its opening to the sky, as if heaven were looking down into the interior of this place of worship, left unimpeded for prayers to ascend the more freely: all these things make an impression of solemnity, which Saint Peter's itself fails to produce. 'I think,' said the sculptor, 'it is to the aperture in the dome—that great Eye, gazing heavenward—that the Pantheon owes the peculiarity of its effect.'"—N. Hawthorne, *Marble faun*, ch. 50.—See also ARCHITECTURE: Classic: Roman; TEMPLES: Ancient examples.

PANTHÉON DE PARIS. See TEMPLES: Ancient examples.

PANTHER, German cruiser. Its appearance at Agadir, Morocco, in 1911 precipitated a diplomatic crisis. See MOROCCO: 1911-1914; AGADIR; FRANCE: 1910-1912; ITALY: 1911.

PANTIBIBLON LIBRARY, Babylonia. See LIBRARIES: Ancient: Babylonia and Assyria.

PANTIKAPÆUM. See BOSPHORUS, CIMMERIAN: City and kingdom.

PAN-TURANISM.—"In the two portions of the Arab world most open to western ideas (Syria and Egypt), Arab nationalist movements appeared years ago, and the leaven has since been permeating the whole Arab world. In great part these movements have been specifically directed against the menace of European domination, but they are also self-consciously nationalist and as such hostile to the ruling Turk. . . . [The] rapid growth of Arab national consciousness was undoubtedly stimulated by the hostile reaction of the corresponding development which has been taking place in the Turkish world. [See PAN-ISLAMISM.] . . . But we should also note that Turkish nationalism, like Arab nationalism, has already reached the second or 'racial' stage of development. . . . It has . . . passed the bounds of what might strictly be termed 'Pan-Turkism' and . . . arrived at the truly momentous concept known as 'Pan-Turanism.' The Ottoman Turks do not stand racially alone in the world. Right across northern Europe and Asia, from the Baltic to the Pacific and from the Mediterranean to the Arctic ocean, there stretches a vast band of peoples to whom ethnologists have assigned the name of 'Uralo-Altaic race,' but who are more generally termed 'Turanians.' This group embraces the most widely scattered folk—the Ottoman Turks of Constantinople and Anatolia, the Turcomans of Central Asia and Persia, the Tartars of Central Russia and Transcaucasia, the Magyars of Hungary, the Finns of Finland and the Baltic provinces, the aboriginal tribes of Siberia, and even the distant Mongols and Manchus. . . . The normality of the Turanian movement is shown by its simultaneous appearance at such widely sundered points as Turkish Constantinople and the Tartar centers along the Russian Volga. . . . The first stirrings of national self-consciousness among the Rus-

sian Tartars appeared as far back as 1895, and from then on the movement grew with astonishing rapidity. . . . In fact, it was a Volga Tartar, Yusuf Bey Akchura Oglu, who was the real founder of the first Pan-Turanian circle at Constantinople. Up to the Young-Turk revolution of 1908, Pan-Turanism was somewhat under a cloud at Stambul. Abdul-Hamid had an instinctive aversion to all national movements. He pinned his faith on Pan-Islamism, and furthermore was much under Arab influence. Accordingly, the Pan-Turanians, while not actually persecuted, were decidedly out of favor. With the advent of Young-Turk nationalism to power, however, all was changed. The Ottomanizing leaders of the Committee of Union and Progress listened eagerly to Pan-Turanian preaching, and it is safe to say that all the chief men among the Young Turks have been for years affiliated with the Pan-Turanians. . . . It was the second Balkan war of 1913 which really precipitated full-fledged Pan-Turanism. That war brought a new recruit into the Turanian camp—Bulgaria. . . . It is apparently not too much to say that since their entrance into the European war the Bulgars have formally renounced Slavism and have embraced the Turanian ethnic gospel. . . . Pan-Turanian thinkers . . . emphasizing as they do the great virility and nerve-force everywhere patent in Turanian stocks, see in Turan the dominant race of the morrow. . . . According to Pan-Turanian teaching, the historic peoples of Southern Asia—Persians, Egyptians and Hindus—are hopelessly degenerate. As for the Europeans, they have recently passed their apogee, and, exhausted by the consuming fires of modern industrialism, are already entering upon their decline. It is the Turanians, with their inherent virility and steady nerves unspoiled by the wear-and-tear of western civilization, who must be the great dynamic of the future."—T. L. Stoddard, *Pan-Turanism* (*American Political Science Review*, Feb., 1917, pp. 12-23).—"Pan-Turanian aspirations undoubtedly had a great deal to do with driving Turkey into the Great War on the side of the Central Empires. . . . With the collapse of Russia after the Bolshevik revolution at the end of 1917, Pan-Turanian hopes knew no bounds. So certain were they of triumph that they began to flout even their German allies, thus revealing that hatred of all Europeans which had always lurked at the back of their minds. Then came the German collapse in the West and the end of the war, apparently dooming Turkey to destruction."—T. L. Stoddard, *New world of Islam*, pp. 199-201.—In 1920 and thereafter, as the Turkish Nationalists gradually fought their way to victory, the Nationalist leader, Mustapha Kemal, found enthusiastic support among the Tatar-Turkomans in Transcaucasia and Azerbaidjan, who had been greatly influenced by Pan-Turanian propaganda.

ALSO IN: M. A. C. Czaplicka, *Turks of Central Asia*.

PAN-TURKISM. See PAN-TURANISM.

PAOLI, Hyacinth, Corsican patriot and revolutionary leader. See CORSICA: 1729-1769.

PAOLI, Pasquale (1725-1807), Corsican general and patriot. Gained control of the government, 1755; expelled by the French, 1769; returned to Corsica, 1790; conspired with Great Britain against the French, 1793. See CORSICA: 1729-1769.

PAOLI, town in Pennsylvania, about twenty miles northwest of Philadelphia. The Americans under Wayne were surprised here and defeated by the British in 1777. See U.S.A.: 1777 (January-December).

PAPACY

Saint Peter and the Church at Rome.—"The generally received account among Roman Catholics, and one which can claim a long traditional acceptance, is that Peter came to Rome in the second year of Claudius (that is, A.D. 42), and that he held the see twenty-five years, a length of episcopate never reached again until by Pío Nono, who exceeded it. . . . Now if it is possible to prove a negative at all, we may conclude, with at least high probability, that Peter was not at Rome during any of the time on which the writings of the canonical Scriptures throw much light, and almost certainly that during that time he was not its bishop. We have an Epistle of Paul to the Romans full of salutations to his friends there, but no mention of their bishop. Nor is anything said of work done by Peter in founding that Church. On the contrary, it is implied that no Apostle had as yet visited it; for such is the inference from the passage already cited, in which Paul expresses his wish to see the Roman Christians in order that he might impart some spiritual gift to the end that they might be established. We have letters of Paul from Rome in which no message is sent from Peter; and in the very last of these letters Paul complains of being left alone, and that only Luke was with him. Was Peter one of the deserters? The Scripture accounts of Peter place him in Judæa, in Antioch, possibly in Corinth, but finally in Babylon. . . . Plainly, if Peter was ever at Rome, it was after the date of Paul's second Epistle to Timothy. Some Protestant controversialists have asserted that Peter was never at Rome; but though the proofs that he was there are not so strong as I should like them to be if I had any doctrine depending on it, I think the historic probability is that he was; though, as I say, at a late period of the history, and not long before his death. . . . From the question, whether Peter ever visited Rome, we pass now to a very different question, whether he was its bishop. . . . If he became bishop of Rome in the second year of Claudius, he appears never afterwards to have gone near his see until close upon his death. Nay, he never even wrote a letter to his Church while he was away; or if he did, they did not think it worth preserving. Baronius (in Ann. lviii. § 51) owns the force of the Scripture reasons for believing that Peter was not in Rome during any time on which the New Testament throws light. His theory is that, when Claudius commanded all Jews to leave Rome, Peter was forced to go away. And as for his subsequent absences, they were forced on him by his duty as the chief of the Apostles, having care of all the Churches. . . . These, no doubt, are excellent reasons for Peter's not remaining at Rome; but why, then, did he undertake duties which he must have known he could not fulfil?"—G. Salmon, *Infallibility of the church*, pp. 347-350.—The Roman Catholic belief as to Saint Peter's episcopacy, and the primacy conferred by it on the Roman See, is stated by Dr. Döllinger as follows: "The time of . . . [St. Peter's] arrival in Rome, and the consequent duration of his episcopacy in that city, have been the subjects of many various opinions amongst the learned of ancient and modern times; nor is it possible to reconcile the apparently conflicting statements of ancient writers, unless we suppose that the prince of the apostles resided at two distinct periods in the imperial capital. According to St. Jerome, Eusebius, and Orosius, his first ar-

rival in Rome was in the second year of the reign of Claudius (A.D. 42); but he was obliged, by the decree of the emperor, banishing all Jews from the city, to return to Jerusalem. From Jerusalem he undertook a journey through Asia Minor, and founded, or at least, visited, the Churches of Pontus, Gallacia, Cappadocia, and Bythinia. To these Churches he afterwards addressed his epistle from Rome. His second journey to Rome was in the reign of Nero; and it is of this journey that Dionysius, of Corinth, and Lactantius, write. There, with the blessed Paul, he suffered, in the year 67, the death of a martyr. We may now ascertain that the period of twenty-five years assigned by Eusebius and St. Jerome, to the episcopacy of St. Peter in Rome, is not a fiction of their imaginations; for from the second year of Claudius, in which the apostle founded the Church of Rome, to the year of his death, there intervene exactly twenty-five years. That he remained during the whole of this period in Rome, no one has pretended. . . . Our Lord conferred upon his apostle, Peter, the supreme authority in the Church. After he had required and obtained from him a public profession of his faith, he declared him to be the rock, the foundation upon which he would build his Church; and, at the same time, promised that he would give to him the keys of the kingdom of heaven. . . . In the enumeration of the apostles, frequently repeated by the Evangelists, we find that Peter is always the first named:—he is sometimes named alone, when the others are mentioned in general. After the ascension of our Lord, it is he who directs and governs: he leads the assembly in which a successor to the apostle who had prevaricated, is chosen: after the descent of the Holy Ghost, he speaks first to the people, and announces to them Jesus Christ: he performs the first miracle, and, in the name of his brethren, addresses the synedrium: he punishes the crime of Ananias: he opens the gates of the Church to the Gentiles, and presides at the first council at Jerusalem. . . . The more the Church was extended, and the more its constitution was formed, the more necessary did the power with which Peter had been invested become,—the more evident was the need of a head which united the members in one body, of a point and centre of unity. . . . Succession by ordination was the means, by which from the beginning the power left by Christ in his Church was continued: thus the power of the apostles descended to the bishops, their successors, and thus as Peter died bishop of the Church of Rome, where he sealed his doctrine with his blood, the primacy which he had received would be continued in him by whom he was there succeeded. It was not without a particular interposition of Providence that this pre-eminence was granted to the city of Rome, and that it became the depository of ecclesiastical supremacy. This city, which rose in the midway between the east and the west, by its position, by its proximity to the sea, by its dignity, as capital of the Roman empire, being open on all sides to communication even with the most distant nations, was evidently more than any other adapted to become the centre of the universal Church. . . . There are not wanting, in the first three centuries, testimonies and facts, some of which directly attest, and others presuppose, the supremacy of the Roman Church and of its bishops."—J. J. I. Döllinger, *History of the church*,

period 1, v. 1, ch. 1, sect. 4, and ch. 3, sect. 4.

ALSO IN: W. M. Ramsay, *Church in the Roman empire*.

Supremacy of Roman See: Grounds of claim.

—The historical ground of the claim to supremacy over the Christian church asserted on behalf of the Roman See is stated by Cardinal Gibbons as follows: "I shall endeavor to show, from incontestable historical evidence, that the Popes have always, from the days of the Apostles, continued to exercise supreme jurisdiction, not only in the Western church, till the Reformation, but also throughout the Eastern church, till the great schism of the ninth century. 1. Take the question of appeals. An appeal is never made from a superior to an inferior court, nor even from one court to another of co-ordinate jurisdiction. . . . Now if we find the See of Rome, from the foundation of Christianity, entertaining and deciding cases of appeal from the Oriental churches; if we find that her decision was final and irrevocable, we must conclude that the supremacy of Rome over all the churches is an undeniable fact. Let me give you a few illustrations: To begin with Pope St. Clement, who was the third successor of St. Peter, and who is laudably mentioned by St. Paul in one of his Epistles. Some dissension and scandal having occurred in the church of Corinth, the matter is brought to the notice of Pope Clement. He at once exercises his supreme authority by writing letters of remonstrance and admonition to the Corinthians. And so great was the reverence entertained for these Epistles, by the faithful of Corinth, that for a century later it was customary to have them publicly read in their churches. Why did the Corinthians appeal to Rome far away in the West, and not to Ephesus so near home in the East, where the Apostle St. John still lived? Evidently because the jurisdiction of Ephesus was local, while that of Rome was universal. About the year 190, the question regarding the proper day for celebrating Easter was agitated in the East, and referred to Pope St. Victor I. The Eastern church generally celebrated Easter on the day on which the Jews kept the Passover; while in the West it was observed then, as it is now, on the first Sunday after the full moon of the vernal equinox. St. Victor directs the Eastern churches, for the sake of uniformity, to conform to the practice of the West, and his instructions are universally followed. Dionysius, Bishop of Rome, about the middle of the third century, having heard that the Patriarch of Alexandria erred on some points of faith, demands an explanation of the suspected Prelate, who, in obedience to his superior, promptly vindicates his own orthodoxy. St. Athanasius, the great Patriarch of Alexandria, appeals in the fourth century, to Pope Julius I, from an unjust decision rendered against him by the Oriental bishops; and the Pope reverses the sentence of the Eastern council. St. Basil, Archbishop of Cæsarea, in the same century, has recourse, in his afflictions, to the protection of Pope Damasus. St. John Chrysostom, Patriarch of Constantinople, appeals in the beginning of the fifth century, to Pope Innocent I, for a redress of grievances inflicted on him by several Eastern Prelates, and by the Empress Eudoxia of Constantinople. St. Cyril appeals to Pope Celestine against Nestorius; Nestorius also appeals to the same Pontiff, who takes the side of Cyril. Theodoret, the illustrious historian and Bishop of Cyrrhus, is condemned by the pseudo-council of Ephesus in 449, and appeals to Pope Leo. . . . John, Abbot of Constantinople, appeals from the decision of the Patriarch of that city to Pope

St. Gregory I, who reverses the sentence of the Patriarch. In 859, Photius addressed a letter to Pope Nicholas I, asking the Pontiff to confirm his election to the Patriarchate of Constantinople. In consequence of the Pope's conscientious refusal, Photius broke off from the communion of the Catholic Church, and became the author of the Greek schism. Here are a few examples taken at random from Church History. We see Prelates most eminent for their sanctity and learning, occupying the highest position in the Eastern church, and consequently far removed from the local influences of Rome, appealing in every period of the early church, from the decisions of their own Bishops and their Councils to the supreme arbitration of the Holy See. If this does not constitute superior jurisdiction, I have yet to learn what superior authority means. 2. Christians of every denomination admit the orthodoxy of the Fathers of the first five centuries of the Church. No one has ever called in question the faith of such men as Basil, Chrysostom, Cyprian, Augustine, Jerome, Ambrose, and Leo. . . . Now the Fathers of the Church, with one voice, pay homage to the Bishops of Rome as their superiors. . . . 3. Ecumenical Councils afford another eloquent vindication of Papal supremacy. An Ecumenical or General Council is an assemblage of Prelates representing the whole Catholic Church. . . . Up to the present time, nineteen Ecumenical Councils have been convened, including the Council of the Vatican. . . . The first General Council was held in Nicæa, in 325; the second, in Constantinople, in 381; the third, in Ephesus, in 431; the fourth, in Chalcedon, in 451; the fifth, in Constantinople, in 553; the sixth, in the same city, in 680; the seventh, in Nicæa, in 787; and the eighth, in Constantinople, in 860. The Bishops of Rome convoked these assemblages, or at least consented to their convocation; they presided by their legates over all of them, except the first and second councils of Constantinople, and they confirmed all these eight by their authority. Before becoming a law, the acts of the Councils required the Pope's signature. 4. I shall refer to one more historical point in support of the Pope's jurisdiction over the whole Church. It is a most remarkable fact that every nation hitherto converted from Paganism to Christianity, since the days of the Apostles, has received the light of faith from missionaries who were either especially commissioned by the See of Rome, or sent by Bishops in open communion with that See. This historical fact admits of no exception. Let me particularize: Ireland's Apostle is St. Patrick. Who commissioned him? Pope St. Celestine, in the fifth century. St. Palladius is the Apostle of Scotland. Who sent him? The same Pontiff, Celestine. The Anglo-Saxons received the faith from St. Augustine, a Benedictine monk, as all historians Catholic and non-Catholic testify. Who empowered Augustine to preach? Pope Gregory I, at the end of the sixth century. St. Remigius established the faith in France, at the close of the fifth century. He was in active communion with the See of Peter. Flanders received the Gospel in the seventh century from St. Eligius, who acknowledged the supremacy of the reigning Pope. Germany and Bavaria venerated as their Apostle St. Boniface, who is popularly known in his native England by his baptismal name of Winfrid. He was commissioned by Pope Gregory II, in the beginning of the eighth century, and was consecrated Bishop by the same Pontiff. In the ninth century, two saintly brothers, Cyril and Methodius, evangelized Russia, Slavonia, and Moravia, and other parts of Northern Europe. They recognized

the supreme authority of Pope Nicholas I, and of his successors, Adrian II and John VIII. In the eleventh century, Norway was converted by missionaries introduced from England by the Norwegian King St. Olave. The conversion of Sweden was consummated in the same century by the British Apostles Saints Ulfrid and Eskill. Both of these nations immediately after their conversion commenced to pay Rome-scot, or a small annual tribute to the Holy See,—a clear evidence that they were in communion with the Chair of Peter. All the other nations of Europe, having been converted before the Reformation, received likewise the light of faith from Roman Catholic missionaries, because Europe then recognized only one Christian Chief.”—Cardinal Gibbons, *Faith of our fathers*, ch. 10.—“Not only the heathen authorities, but also the heretics and schismatics, were perfectly well aware which bishop possessed the leading influence in church matters. Their conduct shows that they believed that the Church and her rights were, above all, embodied in Peter’s successor. Hence their ceaseless efforts to obtain Papal sanction. To establish themselves by deceit and dissimulation in the bosom of the Catholic Church was their constant, steady aim. This is true of the Montanists, the Gnostics, the anti-Trinitarians of the school of Theodotus and Artemon, the Patripassians, the Sabellians, the Subordinatists, and so on. [See also GNOSTICS; MONTANISTS; NOËTIANS AND SABELLIANS.] . . . It is certain that Rome, as capital of the Empire, exercised in every field a great power of attraction. Everything and everybody was gathered together in this heart and centre of the circulation of the whole world. No one would go so far as to say that the countless believers, true or false, that found their way to Rome were induced to come thither solely by the fame of its bishops or of the Tombs of Peter and Paul. . . . Unquestionably The Roman Primacy rose more rapidly into notice owing to the See having been established in the very focus of Roman Imperial power. At the same time it is entirely false to insinuate, as has been done, that the Bishops of Rome derived their spiritual authority merely from this external circumstance of their See. They did not hold it from the State, nor was it a result of the importance of the city, nor had they it by delegation from the other Churches, who, in deference to the seat of Empire, had acquiesced in the Roman bishop’s claim to supreme power. How could even the most venerable traditions of a city or its greater brilliancy have decided so many high-minded members of the episcopacy—all jealous, too, of their independence—to submit to the dictation of a single bishop without the justice of his pretensions being made the subject of a general inquiry? Were such the case, we should have here the veriest riddle of history. . . . Perhaps, after all, the favour of the Roman State was less useful to the Bishop of Rome than its opposition to his increase of dignity. . . . The Emperors, time after time, allowed themselves to be led astray by the Arian heresy [see ARIANISM]; in these circumstances the Popes never failed to contend against the rulers, in spite of the latter being surrounded by a slavish court, which almost worshipped them as deities. At such times of stress it was no uncommon thing for the Churches of the provinces to seek refuge on the immovable Rock of Peter. The need of a firm common centre during the disorders was strongly expressed by the writers who then undertook to advocate the claims of the Roman See, whilst the measures taken by the Popes, in response to the dictates of duty and carried out with a deep

sense of responsibility, were eventually crowned with success.”—H. Grisar, *History of Rome and the popes in the Middle Ages*, v. 1, pp. 313, 315-316, 322.

ALSO IN: Francis P. Kenrick, *Primacy of the Apostolic See vindicated*.

Supremacy of Roman See: Grounds of denial.—“The first document by which the partisans of the Papal sovereignty justify themselves, is the letter written by St. Clement in the name of the Church at Rome to the Church at Corinth. They assert, that it was written by virtue of a superior authority attached to his title of Bishop of Rome. Now, it is unquestionable, 1st. That St. Clement was not Bishop of Rome when he wrote to the Corinthians. 2d. That in this matter he did not act of his own authority, but in the name of the Church at Rome, and from motives of charity. The letter signed by St. Clement was written A.D. 69, immediately after the persecution by Nero, which took place between the years 64 and 68, as all learned men agree. . . . It may be seen from the letter itself that it was written after a persecution; if it be pretended that this persecution was that of Domitian, then the letter must be dated in the last years of the first century, since it was chiefly in the years 95 and 96 that the persecution of Domitian took place. Now, it is easy to see from the letter itself, that it was written before that time, for it speaks of the Jewish sacrifices as still existing in the temple of Jerusalem. The temple was destroyed with the city of Jerusalem, by Titus A. D. 70. Hence, the letter must have been written before that year. Besides, the letter was written after some persecution, in which had suffered, at Rome, some very illustrious martyrs. There was nothing of the kind in the persecution of Domitian. The persecution of Nero lasted from the year 64 to the year 68. Hence it follows, that the letter to the Corinthians could only have been written in the year 69, that is to say, twenty-four years before Clement was Bishop of Rome. In presence of this simple calculation what becomes of the stress laid by the partisans of Papal sovereignty, upon the importance of this document as emanating from Pope St. Clement? Even if it could be shown that the letter of St. Clement was written during his episcopate, this would prove nothing, because this letter was not written by him by virtue of a superior and personal authority possessed by him, but from mere charity, and in the name of the Church at Rome. Let us hear Eusebius upon this subject: ‘Of this Clement there is one epistle extant, acknowledged as genuine, . . . which he wrote in the name of the Church at Rome to that of Corinth, at the time when there was a dissension in the latter.’ . . . He could not say more explicitly, that Clement did not in this matter act of his own authority, by virtue of any power he individually possessed. Nothing in the letter itself gives a suspicion of such authority. It thus commences: ‘The Church of God which is at Rome, to the Church of God which is at Corinth.’ . . . There is every reason to believe that St. Clement draughted this letter to the Corinthians. From the first centuries it has been considered as his work. It was not as Bishop of Rome, but as a disciple of the Apostles, that he wrote it. . . . In the second century the question concerning Easter was agitated with much warmth. Many Oriental Churches wished to follow the Judaical traditions, preserved by several Apostles in the celebration of that feast, and to hold it upon the fourteenth day of the March moon; other Eastern Churches, in agreement with the Western Churches according to an equally Apostolic tradition, celebrated the

festival of Easter the Sunday following the fourteenth day of the March moon. The question in itself considered was of no great importance; and yet it was generally thought that all the Churches should celebrate at one and the same time the great Christian festival, and that some should not be rejoicing over the resurrection of the Saviour, while others were contemplating the mysteries of his death. How was the question settled? Did the Bishop of Rome interpose his authority and overrule the discussion, as would have been the case had he enjoyed a supreme authority? Let us take the evidence of History. The question having been agitated, 'there were synods and convocations of the Bishops on this question,' says Eusebius, 'and all unanimously drew up an ecclesiastical decree, which they communicated to all the Churches in all places. . . . There is an epistle extant even now of those who were assembled at the time; among whom presided Theophilus, Bishop of the Church in Cesarea and Narcissus, Bishop of Jerusalem. There is another epistle' (of the Roman Synod) 'extant on the same question, bearing the name of Victor. An epistle also of the Bishops in Pontus, among whom Palmas, as the most ancient, presided; also of the Churches of Gaul over whom Irenæus presided. Moreover, one from those in Osrhoene, and the cities there. And a particular epistle from Bacchyllus, Bishop of the Corinthians; and epistles of many others who, advancing one and the same doctrine, also passed the same vote.' It is evident that Eusebius speaks of the letter of the Roman synod in the same terms as of the others; he does not attribute it to Bishop Victor, but to the assembly of the Roman Clergy; and lastly, he only mentions it in the second place after that of the Bishops of Palestine. Here is a point irrefragably established; it is that in the matter of Easter, the Church of Rome discussed and judged the question in the same capacity as the other churches, and that the Bishop of Rome only signed the letter in the name of the synod which represented that Church."—Abbé Guettée, *Papacy*, pp. 53-58.—"At the time of the Council of Nicæa it was clear that the metropolitans of Rome, Alexandria, and Antioch, held a superior rank among their brethren, and had a kind of ill-defined jurisdiction over the provinces of several metropolitans. The fathers of Nicæa recognized the fact that the privileges of these sees were regulated by customs already regarded as primitive, and these customs they confirmed. . . . The empire was afterwards divided for the purposes of civil government into four Prefectures. . . . The organization of the Church followed in its main lines that of the empire. It also had its dioceses and provinces, coinciding for the most part with the similarly named political divisions. Not only did the same circumstances which marked out a city for political preëminence also indicate it as a fit centre of ecclesiastical rule, but it was a recognized principle with the Church that the ecclesiastical should follow the civil division. At the head of a diocese was a patriarch, at the head of a province was a metropolitan; the territory of a simple bishop was a parish. . . . The see of Constantinople . . . became the oriental counterpart of that of Rome. . . . But the patriarchal system of government, like every other, suffered from the shocks of time. The patriarch of Antioch had, in the first instance, the most extensive territory, for he claimed authority not only over the civil diocese of the East, but over the Churches in Persia, Media, Parthia, and India, which lay beyond the limits of the empire. But this large organization was but loosely knit, and constantly tended to dissolu-

tion. . . . After the conquests of Caliph Omar the great see of Antioch sank into insignificance. The region subject to the Alexandrian patriarch was much smaller than that of Antioch, but it was better compacted. Here too however the Monophysite tumult so shook its organization that it was no longer able to resist the claims of the patriarch of Constantinople. It also fell under the dominion of the Saracens—a fate which had already befallen Jerusalem. In the whole East there remained only the patriarch of Constantinople in a condition to exercise actual authority. . . . According to Rufinus's version of the sixth canon of the Council of Nicæa, the Bishop of Rome had entrusted to him the care of the suburbicarian churches [probably including Lower Italy and most of Central Italy, with Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica]. . . . But many causes tended to extend the authority of the Roman patriarch beyond the modest limits. The patriarch of Constantinople depended largely for his authority on the will of the emperor, and his spiritual realm was agitated by the constant intrigues of opposing parties. His brother of Rome enjoyed generally more freedom in matters spiritual, and the diocese over which he presided, keeping aloof for the most part from controversies on points of dogma, was therefore comparatively calm and united. Even the Orientals were impressed by the majesty of old Rome, and gave great honour to its bishop. In the West, the highest respect was paid to those sees which claimed an Apostle as founder, and among these the Church of St. Peter and St. Paul naturally took the highest place. It was, in fact, the one apostolic see of Western Europe, and as such received a unique regard. . . . Doubtful questions about apostolic doctrine and custom were addressed certainly to other distinguished bishops, as Athanasius and Basil, but they came more readily and more constantly to Rome, as already the last appeal in many civil matters. We must not suppose however that the Churches of the East were ready to accept the sway of Rome, however they might respect the great city of the West. . . . The authority of the Roman see increased from causes which are sufficiently obvious to historical enquirers. But the greatest of the Roman bishops were far too wise to tolerate the supposition that their power depended on earthly sanctions. They contended steadfastly that they were the heads of the Church on earth, because they were the successors of him to whom the Lord had given the keys of the kingdom of heaven, St. Peter. And they also contended that Rome was, in the most emphatic sense, the mother-church of the whole West. Innocent I claims that no Church had ever been founded in Italy, Gaul, Spain, Africa, Sicily, or the Mediterranean islands, except by men who had received their commission from St. Peter or his successors. At the same time, they admitted that the privileges of the see were not wholly derived immediately from its founder, but were conferred by past generations out of respect for St. Peter's see. But the bishop who most clearly and emphatically asserted the claims of the Roman see to preëminence over the whole Church on earth was no doubt Leo I, a great man who filled a most critical position with extraordinary firmness and ability. Almost every argument by which in later times the authority of the see of St. Peter was supported is to be found in the letters of Leo. . . . The Empire of the West never seriously interfered with the proceedings of the Roman bishop; and when it fell, the Church became the heir of the empire. In the general crash, the Latin Christians found themselves compelled to drop their

smaller differences, and rally round the strongest representative of the old order. The Teutons, who shook to pieces the imperial system, brought into greater prominence the essential unity of all that was Catholic and Latin in the empire, and so strengthened the position of the see of Rome. . . . It must not however be supposed that the views of the Roman bishops as to the authority of Rome were universally accepted even in the West. Many Churches had grown up independently of Rome and were abundantly conscious of the greatness of their own past. . . . And in the African Church the reluctance to submit to Roman dictation which had showed itself in Cyprian's time was maintained for many generations. . . . In Gaul too there was a vigorous resistance to the jurisdiction of the see of St. Peter."—S. Cheetham, *History of the Christian church during the first six centuries*, pp. 181-195.—"A colossal city makes a colossal bishop, and this principle reached its maximum embodiment in Rome. The greatest City of the World made the greatest Bishop of the World. Even when the Empire was heathen the City lifted the Bishop so high that he drew to himself the unwelcome attention of the secular power, and in succession, in consequence, as in no other see, the early Bishops of Rome were martyrs. When the Empire became Christian, Rome's place was recognized as first, and the principle on which that primacy rested was clearly and accurately defined when the Second General Council, acting on this principle, assigned to the new seat of empire, Constantinople, the second place; it was the principle, namely, of honor, based upon material greatness. . . . The principle of the primacy, as distinguished from the supremacy growing out of Petrine claims was the heart and soul of Gallicanism in contrast to Ultramontaniam, and was crushed out even in the Roman communion not twenty years ago."—G. F. Seymour, *Church of Rome in her relation to Christian unity (History and teachings of the early church, lecture 5)*.—See also ARIANISM; MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY; NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY; PELAGIANISM.

ALSO IN: H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, ch. 7, pt. 1.

Origin of papal title.—"Papa," that strange and universal mixture of familiar endearment and of reverential awe, extended in a general sense to all Greek Presbyters and all Latin Bishops, was the special address which, long before the names of patriarch or archbishop, was given to the head of the Alexandrian church. . . . He was the Pope. The Pope of Rome was a phrase which had not yet [at the time of the meeting of the Council of Nicæa, 325] emerged in history. But Pope of Alexandria was a well-known dignity. . . . This peculiar Alexandrian application of a name, in itself expressing simple affection, is thus explained:—Down to Heraclas (230), the Bishop of Alexandria, being the sole Egyptian Bishop, was called 'Abba' (father), and his clergy 'elders.' From his time more bishops were created, who then received the name of 'Abba,' and consequently the name of 'Papa' ('ab-aba,' pater patrum=grand-father) was appropriated to the primate. The Roman account (inconsistent with facts) is that the name was first given to Cyril, as representing the Bishop of Rome in the Council of Ephesus. (Suicer, in voce.) The name was fixed to the Bishop of Rome in the 7th century."—A. P. Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Eastern church*, lecture 3.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 312-337.

ALSO IN: J. Bingham, *Antiquities of the Christian church*, bk. 2, ch. 2, sect. 7.—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal Christian history*, sect. 130.

42-461.—Early bishops of Rome, to Leo the Great.—The following is the succession of the popes, according to Roman Catholic authorities, during the first four hundred and twenty years: "Peter, to the year of Christ 67; Linus, Anencletus, Clement; (to 77?) Evaristus, Alexander, Xystus, Telesphorus, Hyginus, to 142; Pius, to 157; Anicetus, to 168; Soter, to 177; Eleutherius, to 193; Victor, to 202; Zephyrinus, to 219; Callistus, to 223; Urban, to 230; Pontianus, to 235; Anterus, to 236; Fabian, to 250; Cornelius, from 251 to 252; Lucius, to 253; Stephan, to 257; Xystus II, to 258; Dionysius, from 259 to 269; Felix, to 274; Eutychianus, to 283; Caius, to 296; Marcellinus, to 304; Marcellus, after a vacancy of four years, from 308 to 310; Eusebius, from the 20th of May to the 26th of September, 310; Melchiades, from 311 to 314; Silvester, from 314 to 335. . . . Mark was chosen on the 18th of January 336, and died on the 7th of October of the same year. Julius I, from 337 to 352, the steadfast defender of St. Athanasius. . . . The less steadfast Liberius, from 352 to 366, purchased, in 358, his return from exile by an ill-placed condescension to the demands of the Arians. He, however, soon redeemed the honour which he had forfeited by this step, by his condemnation of the council of Rimini, for which act he was again driven from his Church. During his banishment, the Roman clergy were compelled to elect the deacon Felix in his place, or probably only as administrator of the Roman Church. When Liberius returned to Rome, Felix fled from the city, and died in the country, in 365. Damasus, from 366 to 384, by birth a Spaniard, had, at the very commencement of his pontificate, to assert his rights against a rival named Ursicinus, who obtained consecration from some bishops a few days after the election of Damasus. The faction of Ursicinus was the cause of much bloodshed. . . . Siricius, from 385 to 389, was, although Ursicinus again endeavoured to intrude himself, unanimously chosen by the clergy and people. . . . Anastasius, from 398 to 402; a pontiff, highly extolled by his successor, and by St. Jerome, of whom the latter says, that he was taken early from this earth, because Rome was not longer worthy of him, and that he might not survive the desolation of the city by Alaric. He was succeeded by Innocent I, from 402 to 417. . . . During the possession of Rome by Alaric [see ROME: Empire: 408-410], Innocent went to Ravenna, to supplicate the emperor, in the name of the Romans, to conclude a peace with the Goths. The pontificate of his successor, the Greek Zosimus, was only of twenty one months. The election of Boniface, from 418 to 422, was disturbed by the violence of the archdeacon Eulalius, who had attached a small party to his interests. . . . He was followed by Celestine I, from 422 to 432, the combatant of Nestorianism and of Semipelagianism. To Sixtus III, from 432 to 440, the metropolitans, Helladius of Tarsus, and Eutherius of Tyana, appealed, when they were threatened with deposition at the peace between St. Cyril and John of Antioch. Leo the Great, from 440 to 461, is the first pope of whom we possess a collection of writings: they consist of 96 discourses on festivals, and 141 epistles. By his high and well-merited authority, he saved Rome, in 452, from the devastation of the Huns; and induced Attila, named 'the scourge of God,' to desist from his invasion of Italy [see HUNS: 452]. Again, when, in 457 [455], the Vandal king Geiseric entered Rome [see ROME: Empire: 455], the Romans were indebted to the eloquent persuasions of their holy bishop for the preservation, at least, of their lives."—J. J. I.

Döllinger, *History of the church*, v. 2, pp. 213-215.—“For many centuries the bishops of Rome had been comparatively obscure persons: indeed, Leo was the first really great man who occupied the see, but he occupied it under circumstances which tended without exception to put power in his hand. . . . Circumstances were thrusting greatness upon the see of St. Peter: the glory of the Empire was passing into her hands, the distracted Churches of Spain and Africa, harassed and torn in pieces by barbarian hordes and wearied with heresies, were in no position to assert independence in any matter, and were only too glad to look to any centre whence a measure of organization and of strength seemed to radiate; and the popes had not been slow in rising to welcome and promote the greatness with which the current and tendency of the age was investing them. Their rule seems to have been, more than anything else, to make the largest claim, and enforce as much of it as they could, but the theory of papal power was still indeterminate, vague, unfixed. She was Patriarch of the West—what rights did that give her? . . . Was her claim . . . a claim of jurisdiction merely, or did she hold herself forth as a doctrinal authority in a sense in which other bishops were not? In this respect, again, the claim into which Leo entered was indefinite and unformulated. . . . The Imperial instincts of old Rome are dominant in him, all that sense of discipline, order, government—all the hatred of uniformity, individuality, eccentricity. These are the elements which make up Leo’s mind. He is above all things a governor and an administrator. He has got a law of ecclesiastical discipline, a supreme canon of dogmatic truth, and these are his instruments to subdue the troubled world. . . . The rule which governed Leo’s conduct as pope was a very simple one, it was to take every opportunity which offered itself for asserting and enforcing the authority of his see: he was not troubled with historical or scriptural doubts or scruples which might cast a shadow of indecision, ‘the pale cast of thought,’ on his resolutions and actions. To him the papal authority had come down as the great inheritance of his position; it was identified in his mind with the order, the authority, the discipline, the orthodoxy which he loved so dearly; it suited exactly his Imperial ambition, in a word, his ‘Roman’ disposition and character, and he took it as his single great weapon against heresy and social confusion.”—C. Gore, *Leo the Great*, ch. 6-7.—“Clear insight, prompt action, unwavering firmness in all that his office demanded of him, these were the characteristics of this great Pope [Leo]. Filled as he was with the lofty consciousness of his Primacy, his individuality was to him of small account. Confidence never for a moment deserted him, just because no action of his was an outcome of mere self-will. . . . Paschase Quesnel, the author of several profound essays on our hero, in spite of his difference in theological outlook, says of Leo: ‘He remarkably furthered the cause of Christianity with an unselfishness equalled only by his fervent devotion. . . . His virtues glow like stars in the firmament of the Papacy. . . . This Bishop of Rome unflinchingly faced the storms which human passion brought upon the church; his battles and his victories were all for the sake of the Faith.’” —H. Grisar, *History of Rome and the popes in the Middle Ages*, v. 2, pp. 64, 66.

330-606.—Comparison of Roman Catholic and Orthodox (Greek) churches. See CHRISTIANITY: 330-606.

461-604.—Succession of popes from Leo the

Great to Gregory the Great.—The successor of Leo the Great, “the Sardinian Hilarius, from 461 to 468, had been one of his legates at the council of Ephesus in 449. . . . The zeal of Simplicius, from 468 to 483, was called into action chiefly by the confusion occasioned in the east by the Monophysites. [See NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY.] The same may be said of Felix II (or III) from 483 to 492, in whose election the prefect Basilius concurred, as plenipotentiary of king Odoacer. Gelasius I, from 492 to 496, and Anastasius II, laboured, but in vain, in endeavouring to heal the schism, formed by Acacius, at Constantinople. This schism occasioned a division in Rome at the election of a new pontiff. The senator Festus had promised the emperor that he would enforce the reception of the Henoticon at Rome; and by means of corruption established against the deacon Symmachus, who had in his favour the majority of voices, a powerful party,



POPE LEO I, THE GREAT

which chose Laurence as antipope. Again was a double election the cause of bloody strife in the streets of Rome, until the Arian king, Theodoric, at Ravenna, declared for Symmachus, who gave to his rival the bishopric of Luceria. . . . More tranquil was the pontificate of the succeeding pope, Hormisdas, from 514 to 523, and made illustrious by the restoration of peace, in 519, in the eastern Church.”—J. J. I. Döllinger, *History of the church*, pp. 213-215.—“Hormisdas was consecrated on July 20, 514, the day following the death of Symmachus. . . . From what Ennodius says we may gather that Hormisdas was recommended or designated by his predecessor for succession in the Papacy. . . . Through the intermediary of Gratus, a *Comes* of the Imperial consistory, written requests of the new sovereign, of his nephew Justinian, and John II., the Patriarch of Byzantium, were presented to Hormisdas, praying him to come personally to the East to establish peace, or at least to despatch legates with conditions of peace and full powers for its conclusion. After having sought King Theodoric’s advice, the

Pope deputed Germanus, Bishop of Capua, a certain Bishop John, the presbyter Blandus, Felix and Dioscorus, deacons of the Apostolic See, and Peter, the church notary. . . . The envoys from Hormisdas brought to Constantinople a formula (libellus) by signing which the schismatics would show their submission to the See of Peter, and secure their re-incorporation in the Catholic Church. This famous *formula Hormisdæ* had been drafted some years previously, and had been submitted and accepted in the provinces of Illyricum and in Spain. . . . In Constantinople, John II, the Patriarch, subscribed to the formula on Maundy Thursday, March 28, 515. The formula of Hormisdas went the round of the Greek Empire. John II of Constantinople, and Epiphanius, his successor, laboured for its acceptance throughout the other dioceses of the Empire. . . . To com-



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plete the success and satisfaction of Pope Hormisdas, shortly before his death, there came over the see from Africa the good tidings that the last great persecution of the Catholics, begun by the Vandal King Trasamund, had been terminated by this Arian's death. To the joy of the Roman Church, there was nothing more to hinder the triumphant return of the banished bishops and their reinstatement in their sees."—H. Grisar, *History of Rome and the popes in the Middle Ages*, v. 2, pp. 240-251, 253.—"John I died at Ravenna, in 519, in prison, into which he was cast by the suspicious Theodoric, after his return from Constantinople.—Felix III (or IV) from 526 to 530, was chosen by the Romans, at the command of the king. At short intervals, followed Boniface II, from 530 to 532; and John II, from 533 to 535.—Agapite I went, at the desire of the Gothic king, Theodatus, to obtain peace from the emperor, to Constantinople, where he died in 536.—Sylvester died, in 540, during his second exile, on the island of Palmaria. . . . Vigilius, who was ordained in

537, and who became lawful pope in 540, was compelled to remain in the east, from 546 to 554, sometimes a prisoner in Constantinople, and sometimes in exile. He died at Syracuse, on his return to Rome, in 555. Pelagius I, from 555 to 560, found difficulty in obtaining an acknowledgement of his election, as, by his condemnation of the three articles, he was considered in the west as a traitor to the council of Chalcedon, and because there existed a suspicion that he was accessory to the death of Vigilius.—John III, from 560 to 573, beheld the commencement of the Lombard dominion in Italy.—Benedict I, from 574 to 578, and Pelagius II, from 578 to 590, ruled the Church during the melancholy times of the Lombard devastations. One of the most splendid appearances in the series of the Roman pontiffs was that of Gregory the Great, from 590 to 604."—J. J. I. Döllinger, *History of the church*, v. 2, pp. 215-217.—"Pope Pelagius died on the 8th of February, 590. The people of Rome . . . were at this time in the utmost straits. Italy lay prostrate and miserable under the Lombard invasion; the invaders now threatened Rome itself, and its inhabitants trembled; famine and pestilence within the city produced a climax of distress; an overflow of the Tiber at the time aggravated the general alarm and misery; Gregory himself, in one of his letters, compares Rome at this time to an old and shattered ship, letting in the waves on all sides, tossed by a daily storm, its planks rotten and sounding of wreck. In this state of things all men's thoughts at once turned to Gregory. The pope was at this period the virtual ruler of Rome, and the greatest power in Italy; and they must have Gregory as their pope; for, if any one could save them, it was he. His abilities in public affairs had been proved; all Rome knew his character and attainments; he had now the further reputation of eminent saintliness. He was evidently the one man for the post; and accordingly he was unanimously elected by clergy, senate, and people. But he shrank from the proffered dignity. There was one way by which he might possibly escape it. No election of a pope could at this time take effect without the emperor's confirmation, and an embassy had to be sent to Constantinople to obtain it. Gregory therefore sent at the same time a letter to the emperor (Mauricius, who had succeeded Tiberius in 582), imploring him to withhold his confirmation; but it was intercepted by the prefect of the city, and another from the clergy, senate, and people sent in its place, entreating approval of their choice. . . . At length the imperial confirmation of his election arrived. He still refused; fled from the city in disguise, eluding the guards set to watch the gates, and hid himself in a forest cave. Pursued and discovered by means, it is said, of a supernatural light, he was brought back in triumph, conducted to the church of St. Peter, and at once ordained on the 3rd of September, 590. . . . Having been once placed in the high position he so little coveted, he rose to it at once, and fulfilled its multifarious duties with remarkable zeal and ability. His comprehensive policy, and his grasp of great issues, are not more remarkable than the minuteness of the details, in secular as well as religious matters, to which he was able to give his personal care. And this is the more striking in combination with the fact that, as many parts of his writings show, he remained all the time a monk at heart, thoroughly imbued with both the ascetic principles and the narrow credulity of contemporary monasticism. His private life, too, was still in a measure monastic:

the monastic simplicity of his episcopal attire is noticed by his biographer; he lived with his clergy under strict rule, and in 595 issued a synodal decree substituting clergy for the boys and secular persons who had formerly waited on the pope in his chamber."—J. Barmby, *Gregory the Great*, ch. 2.—"Of the immense energy shown by St. Gregory in the exercise of his Principate, of the immense influence wielded by him both in the East and in the West, of the acknowledgment of his Principate by the answers which emperor and patriarch made to his demands and rebukes, we possess an imperishable record in the fourteen books of his letters which have been preserved to us. They are somewhat more than 850 in number. They range over every subject, and are addressed to every sort of person. If he rebukes the ambition of a patriarch, and complains of an emperor's unjust law, he cares also that the tenants on the vast estates of the Church which his officers superintend at a distance should not be in any way harshly treated. . . . The range of his letters is so great, their detail so minute, that they illuminate his time and enable us to form a mental picture, and follow faithfully that pontificate of fourteen years, incessantly interrupted by cares and anxieties for the preservation of his city, yet watching the beginnings and strengthening the polity of the western nations, and counterworking the advances of the eastern despotism. The divine order of greatness is, we know, to do and to teach. Few, indeed, have carried it out on so great a scale as St. Gregory. The mass of his writing preserved to us exceeds the mass preserved to us from all his predecessors together, even including St. Leo, who with him shares the name of Great, and whose sphere of action the mind compares with his. If he became to all succeeding times an image of the great sacerdotal life in his own person, so all ages studied in his words the pastoral care, joining him with St. Gregory of Nazianzum and St. Chrysostom. The man who closed his life at sixty-four, worn out, not with age, but with labour and bodily pains, stands, beside the learning of St. Jerome, the perfect episcopal life and statesmanship of St. Ambrose, the overpowering genius of St. Augustine, as the fourth doctor of the western Church, while he surpasses them all in that his doctorship was seated on St. Peter's throne. If he closes the line of Fathers, he begins the period when the Church, failing to preserve a rotten empire in political existence, creates new nations; nay, his own hand has laid for them their foundation-stones."—T. W. Allies, *Holy See and the wandering of the nations, from Saint Leo I to Saint Gregory I*, pp. 309-355.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 553-800; ROME: Medieval city: 590-640.

ALSO IN: H. Grisar, *History of Rome and the popes in the Middle Ages*, v. 3, pp. 25-55.

555.—Pragmatic Sanction.—Power of bishops.—"Now that the Sovereign [Justinian] had gained his end, Vigilius was allowed to return in the sunshine of Imperial favour. As a mark of regard he took back with him something valuable for Italy, for the City of Rome, and in a certain sense even for the Papacy. This was the promise of a Pragmatic Sanction [see PRAGMATIC SANCTION], or Imperial law, regulating Italian affairs. Such an ordinance was promulgated at Constantinople on August 13, 554. . . . What we now possess of the Sanction is not the original law, but a collection of statutes by which was modified and improved the great law which heralded a brighter day for Italy. . . . The legal re-arrangement which had been introduced into Italy by means of the Pragmatic Sanction might have succeeded

even better had it been carried out by those in power. According to what we know of its articles, they first laid it down as a principle that the Imperial code should hold in Italy as elsewhere. Further they enacted, to the advantage of both Church and country, that the election of governors in each province . . . should be conducted by the Bishops and provincial magnates in joint session; also that the Bishop was to have say in the choice of city officials; likewise that the Bishop and leading citizens were to audit the accounts of officials who retired; that he was to report to the Emperor any ordinary judge who refused to render justice; that he could claim a joint right to try any case when the judge's impartiality had been impugned by either side; finally, that he was to decide between the governor himself and such subjects as might consider they had been wronged by him. Such enactments meant that the Church received a sort of oversight over the officials of the State. . . . The State decided on thus including the Church in the system of government, not only out of regard for the actual position, wealth, and property of the bishops who . . . had exercised great influence over civil affairs, chiefly owing to the power which came from the landed property conferred on them. The Eastern autocrats were moved . . . by their consciousness of the great moral weight of the bishops and the social power of religion; by their knowledge of the corruption rampant among the officials, and their certainty that it would be hopeless to dream of extirpating bribery and oppression without the help of some authority guided by loftier principles, and above bureaucratic influence. We must also remember that the civil and military authorities, owing to the lack of public funds, or to incapable administration, often stood helpless and without resource when cities and whole provinces were in the direst need. In such cases the bishops were wont to intervene. In this wise, in most of the cities, a large part of the administration had, little by little, passed into the hands of the bishops. Among such bishops who thus saw their influences increase, the Bishop of Rome was certainly not the last. Seeing that the Pragmatic Sanction gave such powers to the bishops, we shall not be surprised to learn that it also acknowledged their right to exercise ecclesiastical jurisdiction. Complaints against clerics and monks were to be tried before the bishop. As in the Eastern half of the Empire, the secular arm was ready to execute the sentence of the ecclesiastical courts. The *defensores* of the Roman Church, acting as the standing representatives of the Popes, tried charges against bishops quite independently of the State. At first in criminal cases the clergy could claim ecclesiastical immunity only for trifling offences; in more serious cases, after having been deposed and degraded by the church authorities, they were handed over for punishment to the secular court. But, towards the end of the sixth century, even this intervention of the State ceased, and the Church, acting alone, imposed on the clerical evil-doer a more or less heavy penance accompanied by imprisonment which sometimes lasted for life; it was then laid down as an axiom that secular judges have no competence in matters concerning the Church alone."—H. Grisar, *History of Rome and the popes in the Middle Ages*, v. 3, pp. 33, 49-51.

568-800.—Aided by Franks against attacks of the Lombards. See ITALY: 568-800.

590-604.—Formulation of the doctrine of mass by Gregory the Great. See MASS: 6th-7th centuries.

597-817.—Contention with Celtic church in Britain. See CELTIC CHURCH: 597-817.

6th-11th centuries.—Elections of popes.—Ratification by emperor.—Constitution of Otto,—“Custom, as well as necessity, had established that debated questions of any importance were to be referred to councils, consisting at least of the presbyters of the city, the neighbouring bishops, and any foreign bishops who happened to be staying in Rome. These were the petty synods to which Cyprian refers in the third century, when he speaks of the Roman Bishop’s Presbyterium. In the sixth century special meeting-places, termed Consistories, existed for this purpose. . . . Boniface II organised a small synod (531) in the ‘Consistory of St. Andrew.’ [See CURIA, PAPAL.] . . . It is the earliest example of a Roman synod, of which the minutes incidentally give us a glimpse into the details of official routine at the time, showing us how the proceedings were conducted, for which reason it deserves our attention. In the first session Pope Boniface is surrounded by four bishops. Two come from the immediate neighbourhood of Rome, Felix of Numentum and Carosus of Centumcellæ; the others are Sabinus of Canusium . . . and Abundantius of Demetrias in Thessaly. The latter was accidentally present in Rome, bringing a complaint against another bishop who had usurped his see. Besides the bishops, thirty-nine Roman presbyters took part in the session. Four ‘deacons of the Apostolic See’ were also present, but remained standing. . . . One is struck by the resemblance in a whole number of points between the procedure of this assembly and that usual in the secular Roman law-courts. In its own courts of justice the Church has taken over bodily the rules obtaining in the secular courts, even down to small outward observances.”—H. Grisar, *History of Rome and the popes in the Middle Ages*, v. 2, pp. 306-309.—“In 536, Rome was in the power of Constantinople. It submitted to the Byzantine domination, which was to be maintained until the fall of the exarchate of Ravenna (751). Of what sort were the pontifical elections to be during this period? To judge by those of Vigilius and Pelagius, it might have been inferred that the emperor would impose his own candidates upon the Roman Church. But the elections of Vigilius and Pelagius were exceptions. After these two popes, the emperor, as a rule, ceased to interfere in the election, and reserved for himself the right of ratification. The third day after the Pope’s death, the clergy, the people, and the soldiery met at the Lateran and proceeded to appoint some one in his place. When the majority agreed upon a name, what was known as the *consensus*, that is, the report of the election, was prepared, and was presented to the prefect, who dispatched it to Constantinople. The emperor replied with a *jussio* or *præceptio*, which authorized the consecration of him who had been elected. So soon as the imperial authorization was obtained the Pope elect, who was usually a deacon and sometimes a priest, received episcopal consecration at St. Peter’s at the hands of the bishop of Ostia, assisted by the bishops of Albano and Porto, and by the archdeacon. Between the sending of the *consensus* to Constantinople and the arrival of the *jussio* at Rome, sometimes a period of a year elapsed, at the very least several months. In the meantime the Roman Church was governed by a council of administration. The Pope elect was a member of this council. He and his colleagues signed the acts of importance; yet sometimes he alone signed them. In any case, he could not be consecrated bishop

of Rome before he had obtained the authorization of the emperor.”—A. La Garde, *Latin Church in the Middle Ages*, pp. 130-131.—“The Emperor Justinian had reserved to the Crown the right of ratifying the papal elections. Hence, each time, after the election had been concluded in Rome, the clergy had to send an embassy to the Greek capital to crave permission for the consecration of their candidate. In the *Liber pontificalis* this custom is mentioned not long after, for we are there told that, owing to the wars, it was impossible to undertake the embassy to Constantinople, and that the Pope-elect (Pelagius II.) had therefore been consecrated without awaiting the Emperor’s ‘command.’ So close, then, was the alliance into which the Roman Church entered, or was forced to enter, with the Roman State, that even the appointment of its head, the Supreme Pontiff of the whole Church, was made dependent upon the consent of the secular power. The Roman Church was also obligated to pay a large sum of money to the Court, agreeably with invariable Byzantine usage, in exchange for the act of ratification. This remained the rule for a whole century; for it was not until 684 that the Emperor Constantine Pogonatus renounced the privilege of confirmation in an edict addressed to Benedict II. . . . The Church acquiesced in the claim only in view of the benefit accruing to both Church and State from such a peaceful union of both Powers. In canonical language, she was willing to account the Papal election as yet incomplete and illegal until the Imperial assent had been secured. Not until this assent had been obtained did the candidate complete the election by giving his own consent.”—H. Grisar, *History of Rome and the popes in the Middle Ages*, v. 3, pp. 56-57.—“In 579, at the election of the predecessor of Gregory, as the city was besieged by the Lombards it was impossible to ask the *jussio* of the emperor at Constantinople, and so the episcopal consecration was at once performed. In the seventh century, critical circumstances of another kind prevented submitting the elections of Honorius (625) and Theodorus (642) for ratification. Emboldened by these precedents, the Romans believed they could put Pope Martin I at the head of their Church without the authorization of the court of Constantinople (649). Unfortunately the emperor, who had no taste for the theology of Martin, made a pretext of the nullity of the election to deprive him of his office. On the whole, apart from insignificant cases which with a single exception were due to circumstances, the pontifical elections were submitted for about two centuries to the emperor for ratification. . . . The emperor Constantine Pogonatus decided in 684 that the decree of election should thereafter be submitted to the exarch of Ravenna, and that this official should grant the authorization necessary for proceeding with the consecration of the Pope elect. . . . By virtue of a practice dating from the time of the Gothic kings, the Pope elect was obliged to pay a sum of money into the imperial treasury in order to secure his ratification. In 680, Constantine Pogonatus did not exact this pecuniary contribution. After this date the popes no longer had to pay in order to ascend the throne of St. Peter. . . . In 731, Pope Gregory III had his election confirmed by the exarch. This was the last time. The exarchate of Ravenna was then approaching its end; twenty years later it had ceased to exist. The pontifical elections by the force of events were withdrawn from the control of the empire. . . . John XII, beset by many difficulties, called Otto I to his assistance;

and to assure his own protection, offered him the imperial crown. Otto accepted the offer; the empire was re-established (February 962). . . . It was agreed that the pontifical election should be submitted for the imperial approval, and that the Pope-elect, before being consecrated, should swear fidelity in the presence of the emperor's representative. But about the end of the following year, Otto learned that he had been betrayed by John XII; he returned to Rome and deposed him, appointed Leo VIII in his place, and then issued the famous 'constitution of Otto,' . . . [which] reserves to the emperor the right of choosing the Pope; it suppresses, at least *de facto* the pontifical election, which, nevertheless, continues in force *pro forma*. The emperor designates the candidate whom he considers most worthy to occupy the pontifical chair; then the Pope-elect is installed at the Lateran and consecrated at St. Peter's. Inaugurated in November 963, the constitution of Otto was in force as long as the three Ottos occupied the imperial throne, that is, until 1002."—A. La Garde, *Latin church in the Middle Ages*, pp. 131-132, 136-137.

604-731.—Succession of popes.—Sabinian, 604-606; Boniface III, 607; Boniface IV, 608-615; Deusdedit, 615-618; Boniface V, 619-625; Honorius I, 625-638; Severinus, 640; John IV, 640-642; Theodore I, 642-649; Martin I, 649-655; Eugenius I, 655-657; Vitalian, 657-672; Adeodatus II, 672-676; Donus I, 676-678; Agatho, 678-682; Leo II, 682-683; Benedict II, 684-685; John V, 685-686; Conon, 686-687; Sergius I, 687-701; John VI, 701-705; John VII, 705-707; Sisinnius, 708; Constantine, 708-715; Gregory II, 715-731.

728-774.—Rise of papal sovereignty at Rome.

—The extinguishment of the authority of the Eastern emperors at Rome and in Italy began with the revolt provoked by the attempts of the iconoclastic Leo, the Isaurian, to abolish image-worship in the Christian churches (see ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY). The Pope, Gregory II, remonstrated vehemently, but in vain. At his signal all central Italy rose in revolt. "The exarch was compelled to shut himself up in Ravenna; for the cities of Italy, instead of obeying the imperial officers, elected magistrates of their own, on whom they conferred, in some cases, the title of duke. Assemblies were held, and the project of electing an emperor of the West was adopted." But another danger showed itself at this juncture which alarmed Rome and Italy more than the iconoclastic persecutions of the Byzantine emperor. The king of the Lombards took advantage of the insurrection to extend his own domains. He invaded the exarchate and got actual possession of Ravenna; whereat Pope Gregory turned his influence to the Byzantine side, with such effect that the Lombards were beaten back and Ravenna recovered. In 731 Gregory II died and was succeeded by Pope Gregory III. "The election of Gregory III to the papal chair was confirmed by the Emperor Leo in the usual form; nor was that pope consecrated until the mandate from Constantinople reached Rome. This was the last time the emperors of the East were solicited to confirm the election of a pope." Leo continued to press his severe measures against image-worship, and the pope boldly convened at Rome a synod of ninety-three bishops which excommunicated the whole body of the Iconoclasts, emperor and all. The latter now dispatched a strong expedition to Italy to suppress the threatening papal power; but it came to naught, and the Byzantine authority was practically at an end, already, within the range of papal leadership. "From this time, 733, the city of

Rome enjoyed political independence under the guidance and protection of the popes; but the officers of the Byzantine emperors were allowed to reside in the city, justice was publicly administered by Byzantine judges, and the supremacy of the Eastern Empire was still recognised. So completely, however, had Gregory III thrown off his allegiance, that he entered into negotiations with Charles Martel, in order to induce that powerful prince to take an active part in the affairs of Italy. The pope was now a much more powerful personage than the Exarch of Ravenna, for the cities of central Italy, which had assumed the control of their local government, intrusted the conduct of their external political relations to the care of Gregory, who thus held the balance of power between the Eastern emperor and the Lombard king. In the year 742, while Constantine V, the son of Leo, was engaged with a civil war, the Lombards were on the eve of conquering Ravenna, but Pope Zacharias threw the whole of the Latin influence into the Byzantine scale, and enabled the exarch to maintain his position until the year 751, when Astolph, king of the Lombards, captured Ravenna. The exarch retired to Naples, and the authority of the Byzantine emperors in central Italy ended."—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine empire*, bk. 1, ch. 1, sect. 2.—The Lombards, having obtained Ravenna and overturned the throne of the Byzantine exarchs, were now bent on extending their sovereignty over Rome. But the popes found an ally beyond the Alps whose interests coincided with their own. Pepin, the first Carolingian king of the Franks, went twice to their rescue and broke the Lombard power; his son Charlemagne finished the work [see LOMBARDS: 754-774], and by the acts of both these kings the bishops of Rome were established in a temporal no less than a spiritual principality.—Based on E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 49.—See also FRANKS: 768-814.

ALSO IN: P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, bk. 4, ch. 15.

731-816.—Succession of popes.—Gregory III, 731-741; Zacharias, 741-752; Stephen I (or II), 752; Stephen II (or III), 752-757; Paul I, 757-767; Stephen III (or IV), 768-772; Hadrian I, 772-795; Leo III, 795-816.

755-774.—Origin of Papal States.—Donations of Pepin and Charlemagne.—As the result of Pepin's second expedition to Italy (755), "the Lombard king sued for quarter, promised to fulfil the terms of the treaty made in the preceding year, and to give up all the places mentioned in it. Pepin made them all over to the Holy See, by a solemn deed, which was placed in the archives of the Roman Church. [See GERMANY: 687-800.] . . . Pepin took such steps as should insure the execution of the Lombard's oath."—J. E. Darras, *General history of the Catholic church*, period 3, ch. 10.—"To ensure the proper carrying out of . . . [the] compact, the Abbot Fulrad, who had stayed behind in Italy with a military detachment, made a tour of the towns with the Lombard commissioners, everywhere demanding the delivery up of the city keys, hostages and delegates from the aristocracy. Then, together with these representatives of the conquered territory, he proceeded to Rome, and deposited in the Confession at St. Peter's, not only the keys of the towns, but the deed by which King Pepin made them over to the Apostle, to his Vicar, and to all his successors. The exact wording of this deed of gift is no longer preserved to us, but in the life of Stephen II we have the list of territories given up to the Holy

See. They include, first of all, Comacchio and Ravenna, and then the tract of land between the Apennines and the sea, from Forlì in the north as far as Jesi Sinigaglia in the south. There is no mention of Ancona and the remains of what was known later as the Marches, nor of Faenza, Imola, Bologna, and Ferrara. The papal State had still therefore much to acquire north of the Apennines. To the south of the chain, Eugubium (Gubbio) alone appears to be included. Perugia, which was a near neighbour, still belonged to the Romans. With the exception of Narni, which had formerly been annexed by the duchy of Spoleto, and which was restored in 756, the Lombard king's 'restitutions' were what he himself had seized."—L. Duchesne, *Beginnings of the temporal sovereignty of the popes*, pp. 45-46.—"An embassy from the Byzantine emperor asserted, during the negotiation of the treaty, the claims of that sovereign to a restoration of the exarchate; but their petitions and demands failed of effect on 'the steadfast heart of Pippin' [or Pepin], who declared that he had fought alone in behalf of St. Peter, on whose Church he would bestow all the fruits of victory. Fulrad, his abbot, was commissioned to receive the keys of the twenty-two towns his arms had won, and to deposit them as a donation on the grave of the apostle at Rome. Thus the Pope was made the temporal head of that large district . . . which, with some few changes [was held by his successors until 1870]."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, bk. 4, ch. 15.—"When on Pipin's death the restless Lombards again took up arms and menaced the possessions of the Church, Pipin's son Charles or Charlemagne swept down like a whirlwind from the Alps at the call of Pope Hadrian [774], seized king Desiderius in his capital, assumed himself the Lombard crown, and made northern Italy thenceforward an integral part of the Frankish empire. . . . Whether out of policy or from that sentiment of reverence to which his ambitious mind did not refuse to bow, he was moderate in claims of jurisdiction, he yielded to the pontiff the place of honour in processions, and renewed, although in the guise of a lord and conqueror, the gift of the Exarchate and Pentapolis, which Pipin had made to the Roman Church twenty years before."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 4.—"It is reported, also . . . that, jealous of the honor of endowing the Holy See in his own name, he [Charlemagne] amplified the gifts of Pippin by annexing to them the island of Corsica, with the provinces of Parma, Mantua, Venice, and Istria, and the duchies of Spoleto and Beneventum. . . . This rests wholly upon the assertion of Anastasius; but Karl could not give away what he did not possess, and we know that Corsica, Venice and Beneventum were not held by the Franks till several years later. . . . Of the nature and extent of these gifts nothing is determined: that they did not carry the right of eminent domain is clear from the subsequent exercise of acts of sovereignty within them by the Frankish monarchs; and the probability is, according to the habits of the times, that the properties were granted only under some form of feudal vassalage."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, bk. 4, ch. 16.—"Indefinite in their terms, these grants were never meant by the donors to convey full dominion over the districts—that belonged to the head of the Empire—but only as in the case of other church estates, a perpetual usufruct or 'dominium utile.' They were, in fact, mere endowments. Nor had the gifts been ever actually reduced into possession."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 49.

c. 774.—**Forgery of Donation of Constantine.**—"Before the end of the 8th century some apostolical scribe, perhaps the notorious Isidore, composed the decretals and the donation of Constantine, the two magic pillars of the spiritual and temporal monarchy of the popes [see below: 829-847]. This memorable donation was introduced to the world by an epistle of Adrian I, who exhorts Charlemagne to imitate the liberality and revive the name of the great Constantine. According to the legend, the first of the Christian emperors was healed of the leprosy, and purified in the waters of baptism by St. Silvester, the Roman bishop; and never was physician more gloriously recompensed. His royal proselyte withdrew from the seat and patrimony of St. Peter, declared his resolution of founding a new capital in the East; and resigned to the popes the free and perpetual sovereignty of Rome, Italy, and the provinces of the West. This fiction was productive of the most beneficial effects. The Greek princes were convicted of the guilt of usurpation; and the revolt of Gregory was the claim of his lawful inheritance. The popes were delivered from their debt of gratitude; and the nominal gifts of the Carolingians were no more than the just and irrevocable restitution of a scanty portion of the ecclesiastical State."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 49.—"But this is not all, although this is what historians, in admiration of its splendid audacity, have chiefly dwelt upon. The edict proceeds to grant to the Roman pontiff and his clergy a series of dignities and privileges, all of them enjoyed by the emperor and his senate, all of them shewing the same desire to make the pontifical a copy of the imperial office. The Pope is to inhabit the Lateran palace, to wear the diadem, the collar, the purple cloak, to carry the sceptre, and to be attended by a body of chamberlains. . . . The practice of kissing the Pope's foot was adopted in imitation of the old imperial court. It was afterwards revived by the German Emperors."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 7, and footnote.

ALSO IN: M. Gosselin, *Power of the pope in the Middle Ages*, v. 1, p. 317.—E. F. Henderson, *Select historical documents of the Middle Ages*, bk. 3, no. 3.

8th-16th centuries.—**Medieval finances.**—**Camera.**—**Revenues.**—**Income taxes.**—**Benefice taxes.**—"During the early middle ages the papacy may scarcely be said to have had a financial department. The papal income was derived mainly from the patrimonies, which necessitated organization for the management of estates rather than for the administration of finances. After the eighth century new sources of income were found in Peter's pence and the census paid by exempt churches and monasteries, but these new revenues were rendered at the Holy See by the payers themselves or were forwarded irregularly as opportunity offered. . . . The first impulse towards the formation of an administrative department for finance was given by the necessity of increasing the papal income. In the latter part of the twelfth century, with expanding political and ecclesiastical interests, the popes were outgrowing the revenues from the States of the Church. . . . The financial difficulties of the Holy See were becoming apparent as early as the time of Alexander III. (1159-1181), who was forced by the exigencies of the schism to contract many loans. . . . It was frequently impossible to determine who the tax

payers were or how much they owed. It was to remedy this disorder that Cencio drew up the *Liber Censuum* in 1192. Under Innocent III. (1198-1216) we hear of a few special agents sent out to enforce the better payment of this revenue, and Honorius III. (1216-27) devised, and for a brief time put into execution, a plan for the systematic gathering of census by collectors despatched for this purpose into all parts of Europe. . . . In the first half of the thirteenth century, in addition to the burdens imposed by the costly struggle with the Hohenstaufen, the papacy undertook to finance the crusades. This was the point of departure for a new tax on clerical incomes which ultimately made necessary the creation of a strongly centralized department for the administration of the papal finances. . . . Under its new responsibilities the papal exchequer, known as the camera, changed from a position of comparative insignificance to one of great importance. As representing the curia to the outside world, it came to rival the great department of the chancery. The powers of the camera continued to grow until well into the fourteenth century. . . . In the development of the papal finances an epoch is marked by the pontificate of John XXII. [1316-1334]. Not only were several new taxes instituted by this great administrator, but the application of old taxes was expanded and their exaction more strictly enforced. The work of the collectors was more closely supervised, the duties of the officials composing the camera became more sharply defined, and a uniform system of bookkeeping was adopted. . . . The most important member of the staff composing the papal camera was the *camerarius* who . . . not only directed the fiscal policy, but also intervened in the smallest details of administrative work. The member of the camera who ranked next to its chief was the treasurer. He received the money, was responsible for its safe-keeping, and made the necessary disbursements. . . . The money gathered by the collectors arrived at the curia in various ways . . . but ordinarily it was transferred to representatives of the Italian banking-houses employed by the camera for the purpose of receiving deposits and transmitting them to Rome. In the early part of the thirteenth century the Templars had been used for these purposes. . . . By the second half of the century the Italian bankers had almost entirely superseded the Templars. . . . 'A complete list of the revenues of the Holy See in the middle ages,' says Fabre, 'would be the best picture that could be given of the temporal and even of the spiritual prerogatives of the papacy at this epoch.' The pope received an income in each of his capacities as vicar of the apostle, metropolitan of central Italy, bishop of Rome, temporal sovereign, feudal suzerain, and landlord. Of revenues so diverse in nature it is difficult to make any strictly logical classification, but for convenience the regular sources of income may be grouped in five classes,—a grouping which follows approximately the order of their historical development, namely:—1. Revenues from the Papal States. 2. Census. 3. Income taxes. 4. Benefice taxes. 5. Fees and miscellaneous receipts. The revenues from the estates were of the kind ordinarily received by a landed proprietor in the middle ages. . . . By the fourteenth century the census had become a relatively unimportant source of income. . . . Originally the term was employed to designate the rents paid for the effective use and enjoyment of portions of the domains. . . . [By analogy the term was applied to other revenues, as, for instance those derived from monasteries which placed themselves under the pope for pro-

tection. The bare title only rested with the pope.] In recognition, however, of the theoretical property right the monastery paid annually a nominal sum, which by analogy was called census. The essential object desired by the monastery was protection and the accompanying exemption from the temporal, especially the financial, jurisdiction of the bishop. . . . In the time of John XXII. the heaviest payer in the British Isles owed only two pounds annually. Furthermore, the number of cases of exemption was not large, and by the close of the thirteenth century the creation of new ones had almost ceased. . . . In the *Liber Censuum*, under the same rubrics with the exempt monasteries, are entered many temporal rulers who were bound to make regular payments to the Holy See. For the most part the kings, princes, lords, and cities under this obligation had undertaken it in order to secure the protection of Saint Peter for their temporal possessions. . . . The best-known example of such tribute is the thousand marks which King John of England promised in 1213 to pay annually in acknowledgment of his vassalage to the Holy See. Under Boniface VIII. the rulers of Naples, Sicily, and the islands of Sardinia and Corsica became tributary, and there were many lords of smaller importance with some of whom the relation extended as far back as the eleventh century. . . . [This payment ceased in England in the reign of Edward III. In 1366 Parliament formally denied the validity of the tax and arrears which had accrued for years were never recovered by the papacy.] The fourth payment included by Cencio in his catalogue of the census was that commonly called Peter's pence, which was received from England, Norway, and some other northern kingdoms. To the compiler of the *Liber Censuum* the kingdoms which paid Peter's pence occupied the same position as those which paid tribute: they were all in the ownership of the papacy. In its origin, however, the contribution seems to have had no such meaning, and the attempt of the popes to connect Peter's pence with the idea of dependence of the Holy See does not appear to have begun until the eleventh century, when the papal policy became strongly tinged with feudal principles. . . . For ascertaining the actual significance of Peter's pence no country furnishes a better field than England, which was the first nation to make the payment. Contemporary evidence on the beginnings of Peter's pence in England is almost entirely lacking. In chronicles of a later day three distinct traditions of its origin are preserved, but the only one which seems to have any support in contemporary evidence attributes its establishment to Ethelwulf, who, on a pilgrimage to Rome in 855, was moved by pious motives to promise an annual gift of 300 marks to the pope. By the time of Alfred, if not before, the contribution was levied wholly or in part from the people. Peter's pence continued to be paid regularly until the latter part of the Anglo-Saxon period, when it fell into abeyance for a time, but was resumed by William the Conqueror, and not finally abolished until the sixteenth century. . . . The use of income taxes by the papacy began in connection with the crusades. The first crusading subsidy was imposed by Innocent III., who decreed in 1199 that the clergy should pay one-fortieth of their incomes for one year. . . . Under the successors of Innocent III. crusading taxes became frequent. After Honorius III. and Gregory IX. had tried without success to compel laymen to contribute, the tax was confined to ecclesiastics. . . . When the right had once been established, the taxation of the clergy for other objects could be

introduced with less opposition. Gregory IX. [1227-1241] used the proceeds of a tenth for purposes other than the defence of the Holy Land, and his successors frequently did the same. By the close of the thirteenth century 'the burdens and necessities of the Roman church' had become a sufficient reason for placing a tax on clerical incomes. . . . The income taxes produced much greater sums than any of the earlier papal revenues. A tenth in England, for example, yielded according to the valuation of 1291-92 about £21,000. . . . The benefice taxes constituted in the fourteenth century one of the most important sources of papal income. . . . The payments of this nature which earliest assumed a sufficiently fixed and regular character to be considered taxes were the *servitia*. They were charges paid by patriarchs, archbishops, bishops, abbots, and some priors on the occasion of their appointment or confirmation by the pope. . . . The greatest of the benefice taxes were the annates. By this term is meant the revenues of the first year of a benefice, which were reserved to the pope on the occasion of a new collation, provided the benefice was not one of the higher dignities which paid *servitia*. . . . The almost traditional account of the establishment of the annates by Boniface IX. [1389-1404] is false. The annates were used by the papacy as early as the time of Clement V. [1305-1314]. . . . A charge which the pope sometimes imposed on the holders of benefices was that of *fructus male percepti*, . . . revenues collected by a clerk from a benefice which he held uncanonically, because he was too young, held more than one benefice with cure of souls, or was disqualified in some other manner. . . . A fifth class of regular income received by the papal camera is found in the chancery taxes. These were fees demanded by the chancery for the redaction and expedition of all bulls and instruments, except for such as were concerned with the political or administrative business of the curia, or with cases of charity, or were issued to certain privileged classes of the curia. . . . The miscellaneous revenues of the papacy consisted of a number of irregular receipts ordinarily of small importance. Among them are included the *fructus male percepti* . . . gifts and legacies from the faithful . . . pecuniary penances imposed by the penitentiary, and fines inflicted by papal tribunals. Sums received for indulgences . . . constituted in the fourteenth century an income of growing, but not yet of great, importance. Indulgences granted in return for alms contributed to the crusades had possessed a pecuniary significance since the first part of the thirteenth centuries, but it was not until the latter fifteenth and sixteenth centuries that the papacy began to count the sale of ordinary indulgences as a serious financial resource. Another occasional source of income was found in the procurations. These were sums due the bishop from the clergy of his diocese on the occasion of his visitation. The pope simply appropriated the episcopal procurations, which were levied in such a case by a papal collector instead of by the bishop. By the latter part of the fourteenth century the procurations had become a revenue of considerable importance." —W. E. Lunt, *Financial system of the mediæval papacy in the light of recent literature* (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Feb., 1909).

800.—Giving of Roman imperial crown to Charlemagne. See GERMANY: 687-800; 800.

816-1073.—Succession of popes.—Stephen IV (or V), 816-817; Paschal I, 817-824; Eugene II, 824-827; Valentine, 827; Gregory IV, 827-844; Sergius II, 844-847; Leo IV, 847-855; Benedict III,

855-858; Nicholas I, 858-867; Hadrian II, 867-872; John VIII, 872-882; Marinus, 882-884; Hadrian III, 884-885; Stephen V (or VI), 885-891; Formosus, 891-896; Boniface VI, 896; Stephen VI (or VII), 896-897; Romanus, 897-898; Theodore II, 898; John IX, 898-900; Benedict IV, 900-903; Leo V, 903; Sergius III, 904-911; Anastasius III, 911-913; Lando, 913-914; John X, 914-928; Leo VI, 928-929; Stephen VII (or VIII), 929-931; John XI, 931-936; Leo VII, 936-939; Stephen VIII (or IX), 939-942; Marinus II, 942-945; Agapetus II, 946-950; John XII, 956-964; Leo VIII, anti-pope, 963-965; Benedict V, 964-965; John XIII, 965-972; Benedict VI, 972-974; Donus II, 974-975; Benedict VII, 975-984; John XIV, 984-985; John XV, 985-996; Gregory V, 996-999; John XVI, anti-pope, 997-998; Sylvester II, 999-1003; John XVII, 1003; John XVIII, 1003-1009; Sergius IV, 1009-1012; Benedict VIII, 1012-1024; John XIX, 1024-1033; Benedict IX, 1033-1044; Sylvester III, anti-pope, 1044; Gregory VI, 1044-1046; Clement II, 1046-1047; Benedict IX, 1047-1048; Damasus II, 1048; Leo IX, 1049-1054; Victor II, 1055-1057; Stephen IX (or X), 1057-1058; Benedict X, anti-pope, 1058-1059; Nicholas II, 1058-1061; Alexander II, 1061-1073.

829.—Translation of body of Saint Mark to Venice. See VENICE: 829.

829-847.—False decretals.—"There existed in each of the national churches, a collection of ecclesiastical laws, or canons, which were made use of as circumstances required. One of these collections was in use in Spain as early as the sixth century, and was subsequently attributed to Isidore, Bishop of Seville. Towards the middle of the ninth century, a new recension of these canons appeared in France, based upon the so-called Isidorian collection, but into which many spurious fragments, borrowed from private collections and bearing upon their face incontestable evidence of the ignorance of their authors, had been introduced. This recension contained also a number of forged documents. There were, altogether, above a hundred spurious decrees of popes, from Clement to Damasus (384), not to mention some of other popes, and many false canons of council. It also contained the forged Deed of Donation ascribed to Constantine [see above: c.774]. However, these decretals, which, as they stand, are now proved, both by intrinsic and extrinsic arguments, to be impudent forgeries, are nevertheless, in matter of fact, the real utterances of popes, though not of those to whom they are ascribed, and hence the forgery is, on the whole, one of chronological location, and does not affect their essential character."

—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 2, p. 195.—"Various opinions exist as to the time at which this collection was made, and the precise date of its publication. Mabillon supposes the compilation to have been made about 785; and in this opinion he is followed by others. But the collection did not appear until after the death of Charlemagne. Some think that these Decretals cannot be of an earlier date than 829, and Blondel supposed that he discovered in them traces of the acts of a council at Paris held in that year. All that can be determined is that most probably the Decretals were first published in France, perhaps at Mayence, about the middle of the ninth century; but it is impossible to discover their real author. The spuriousness of these Decretals was first exposed by the Magdeburg Centuriators, with a degree of historical and critical acumen beyond the age in which they lived. The Jesuit Turianus endeavoured, but in vain, to defend the spurious documents against this attack. . . . Of these

Epistles none (except two, which appear on other grounds to be spurious) were ever heard of before the ninth century. They contain a vast number of anachronisms and historical inaccuracies. Passages are quoted from more recent writings, including the Vulgate, according to the version of Jerome; and, although the several Epistles profess to have been written by different pontiffs, the style is manifestly uniform, and often very barbarous, such as could not have proceeded from Roman writers of the first century. . . . The success of this forgery would appear incredible did we not take into account the weak and confused government of the successors of Charlemagne, in whose time it was promulgated; the want of critical acumen and resources in that age; the skill with which the pontiffs made use of the Decretals only by degrees; and the great authority and power possessed by the Roman pontiffs in these times. The name of Isidore also served to recommend these documents, many persons being ready to believe that they were in fact only a completion of the genuine collection of Isidore, which was highly esteemed. . . . The unknown compiler was subsequently called Pseudo-Isidorus."—J. E. Riddle, *History of the papacy*, v. 1, pp. 405-407.

ALSO IN: A. Neander, *General history of the Christian religion and church*, v. 6, pp. 2-8.—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, bk. 5, ch. 4.—M. Gosselin, *Power of the pope*, v. 1, p. 317.—J. N. Murphy, *Chair of Peter*, ch. 9.—H. C. Lea, *Studies in church history*, pp. 43-76.—P. Schaff, *History of the Christian church*, v. 4, ch. 4, sect. 60.

887-1046.—**Demoralization of the church.—Degradation of the Holy See.—Reforms of the emperor, Henry III.**—"No exaggeration is possible of the demoralized state into which the Christian world, and especially the Church of Rome, had fallen in the years that followed the extinction of the Carolingian line (887). The tenth century is even known among Protestants 'par excellence' as the *sæculum obscurum*, and Baronius expresses its portentous corruption in the vivid remark that Christ was as if asleep in the vessel of the Church. 'The infamies prevalent among the clergy of the time,' says Mr. Bowden [Life of Hildebrand], 'as denounced by Damiani and others, are to be alluded to, not detailed.' . . . When Hildebrand was appointed to the monastery of St. Paul at Rome, he found the offices of devotion systematically neglected, the house of prayer defiled by the sheep and cattle who found their way in and out through its broken doors, and the monks, contrary to all monastic rule, attended in their refectory by women. The excuse for these irregularities was the destitution to which the holy house was reduced by the predatory bands of Campagna; but when the monastic bodies were rich, as was the case in Germany, matters were worse instead of better. . . . At the close of the ninth century, Stephen VI dragged the body of an obnoxious predecessor from the grave, and, after subjecting it to a mock trial, cut off its head and three fingers, and threw it into the Tiber. He himself was subsequently deposed, and strangled in prison. In the years that followed, the power of electing to the popedom fell into the hands of the intriguing and licentious Theodora, and her equally unprincipled daughters, Theodora and Marozia [see *ROME: Medieval city*: 903-964]. These women, members of a patrician family, by their arts and beauty, obtained an unbounded influence over the aristocratic tyrants of the city. One of the Theodoras advanced a lover, and Marozia a son, to the popedom. The grandson of the latter, Octavian, succeeding to her power, as well as to the civil government of the city, ele-

vated himself, on the death of the then Pope, to the apostolic chair, at the age of eighteen, under the title of John XII. (956). His career was in keeping with such a commencement. 'The Lateran Palace,' says Mr. Bowden, 'was disgraced by becoming a receptacle for courtizans; and decent females were terrified from pilgrimages to the threshold of the Apostles by the reports which were spread abroad of the lawless impurity and violence of their representative and successor.' . . . At length he was carried off by a rapid illness, or by the consequences of a blow received in the prosecution of his intrigues. Boniface VII. (974), in the space of a few weeks after his elevation, plundered the treasury and basilica of St. Peter of all he could conveniently carry off, and fled to Constantinople. John XVIII. (1003) expressed his readiness, for a sum of money from the Emperor Basil, to recognize the right of the Greek Patriarch to the title of ecumenical or universal bishop, and the consequent degradation of his own see; and was only prevented by the general indignation excited by the report of his intention. Benedict IX. (1033) was consecrated Pope, according to some authorities, at the age of ten or twelve years, and became notorious for adulteries and murders. At length he resolved on marrying his first cousin; and, when her father would not assent except on the condition of his resigning the popedom, he sold it for a large sum, and consecrated the purchaser as his successor. Such are a few of the most prominent features of the ecclesiastical history of these dreadful times, when, in the words of St. Bruno, 'the world lay in wickedness, holiness had disappeared, justice had perished, and truth had been buried; Simon Magus lording it over the Church, whose bishops and priests were given to luxury and fornication.' Had we lived in such deplorable times as have been above described . . . we should have felt for certain, that if it was possible to retrieve the Church, it must be by some external power; she was helpless and resourceless; and the civil power must interfere, or there was no hope. So thought the young and zealous emperor, Henry III. (1039), who, though unhappily far from a perfect character, yet deeply felt the shame to which the Immaculate Bride was exposed, and determined with his own right hand to work her deliverance. . . . This well-meaning prince did begin that reformation which ended in the purification and monarchical estate of the Church. He held a Council of his Bishops in 1047; in it he passed a decree that 'Whosoever should make any office or station in the Church a subject of purchase or sale, should suffer deprivation and be visited with excommunication'; at the same time, with regard to his own future conduct, he solemnly pledged himself as follows:—'As God has freely of His mere mercy bestowed upon me the crown of the empire, so will I give freely and without price all things that pertain unto His religion.' This was his first act; but he was aware that the work of reform, to be thoroughly executed, must proceed from Rome, as the centre of the ecclesiastical commonwealth, and he determined, upon those imperial precedents and feudal principles which Charlemagne had introduced, himself to appoint a Pope, who should be the instrument of his general reformation. The reigning Pope at this time was Gregory VI., and he introduces us to so curious a history that we shall devote some sentences to it. Gregory was the identical personage who had bought the papal office of the profligate Benedict IX. for a large sum, and was consecrated by him, and yet he was far from a bad sort of man after all. . . . He had been known in the world as John Gratianus; and at

the time of his promotion was arch-priest of Rome. 'He was considered,' says Mr. Bowden, 'in those bad times more than ordinarily religious; he had lived free from the gross vices by which the clergy were too generally disgraced.' . . . He could not be quite said to have come into actual possession of his purchase; for Benedict, his predecessor, who sold it to him, being disappointed in his intended bride, returned to Rome after an absence of three months, and resumed his pontifical station, while the party of his intended father-in-law had had sufficient influence to create a Pope of their own, John, Bishop of Sabina, who paid a high price for his elevation, and took the title of Sylvester III. And thus there were three self-styled Popes at once in the Holy City, Benedict performing his sacred functions at the Lateran, Gregory at St. Peter's, and Sylvester at Santa Maria Maggiore. Gregory, however, after a time, seemed to preponderate over his antagonists; he maintained a body of troops, and with these he suppressed the suburban robbers who molested the pilgrims. Expelling them from the sacred limits of St. Peter's, he carried his arms further, till he had cleared the neighbouring towns and roads of these marauders. . . . This was the point of time at which the Imperial Reformer made his visitation of the Church and See of the Apostles. He came into Italy in the autumn of 1046, and held a Council at Sutri, a town about thirty miles to the north of Rome. Gregory was allowed to preside; and, when under his auspices the abdication of Benedict had been recorded, and Sylvester had been stripped of his sacerdotal rank and shut up in a monastery for life, Gregory's own turn came" and he was persuaded to pronounce a sentence of condemnation upon himself and to vacate the pontifical chair. The new Pope whom the Emperor gave to the Church instead of Gregory VI., Clement II., a man of excellent character, died within the year. Damasus II. also, who was his second nomination, died in three or four weeks after his formal assumption of his pontifical duties. Bruno, Bishop of Toul [Leo IX.], was his third choice. . . . And now we are arrived at the moment when the State reformer struck his foot against the hidden rock. . . . He had chosen a Pope, but 'quis custodiat ipsos custodes?' What was to keep fast that Pope in that very view of the relation of the State to the Church, that plausible Erastianism, as it has since been called, which he adopted himself? What is to secure the Pope from the influences of some Hildebrand at his elbow, who, a young man himself, shall rehearse, in the person of his superior, that part which he is one day to play in his own, as Gregory VII.? Such was the very fact; Hildebrand was with Leo, and thus commences the ecclesiastical career of that wonderful man."—J. H. Newman, *Essays critical and historical*, v. 2, pp. 255-265.—See also **ROME: Medieval city:** 962-1057; **GERMANY:** 973-1056.

951-963.—Founding of the Holy Roman empire. See **HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE:** 962; **EUROPE: Middle Ages:** Holy Roman and papal empires.

962-973.—Power of Otto the Great of Germany.—Deposition of John XII.—Election of Leo VIII. See **GERMANY:** 936-973.

973-1056.—Reforms of Henry III. See **GERMANY:** 973-1056.

1000.—Grant of apostolic power to Stephen of Hungary. See **HUNGARY:** 972-1116.

1000-1700.—Election of popes by college of cardinals. See **SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD:** 1000-1700.

1048-1309.—Summit of papal power and beginning of decline. See **CHRISTIANITY:** 1048-1309: Summit of papal power.

1053.—Naples and Sicily granted as fiefs of

the church to the sons of Tancred, the Normans. See **ITALY (SOUTHERN):** 1000-1090.

1054.—Filioque controversy.—Schism of Western and Eastern churches.—Separation of the Orthodox (Greek) church. See **FILIOQUE CONTROVERSY;** **CHRISTIANITY:** 11th-13th centuries; also 330-606.

1056-1122.—Hildebrand and Henry IV.—Imperious pontifical reign of Gregory VII.—Empire and papacy in conflict.—War of investitures.—"Son of a Tuscan carpenter, but, as his name shows, of German origin, Hildebrand had been from childhood a monk in the monastery of Sta. Maria, on Mount Aventine, at Rome, where his uncle was abbot, and where he became the pupil of a learned Benedictine archbishop, the famous Laurentius of Amalî, and formed a tender friendship with St. Odilon of Cluny [or Clugny]. Having early attached himself to the virtuous Pope Gregory VI., it was with indignation that he saw him confounded with two unworthy competitors, and deposed together with them by the arbitrary influence of the emperor at Sutri. He followed the exiled pontiff to France, and, after his death, went to enroll himself among the monks of Cluny, where he had previously resided, and where, according to several writers, he held the office of prior. During a part of his youth, however, he must have lived at the German Court, where he made a great impression on the Emperor Henry III., and on the best bishops of the country, by the eloquence of his preaching. . . . It was at Cluny that Hildebrand met, in 1049, the new Pope, Bruno, Bishop of Toul. . . . Bruno himself had been a monk: his cousin, the Emperor Henry III., had, by his own authority, caused him to be elected at Worms, December, 1048, and proclaimed under the name of Leo IX. Hildebrand, seeing him already clothed with the pontifical purple, reproached him for having accepted the government of the Church, and advised him to guard ecclesiastical liberty by being canonically elected at Rome. Bruno yielded to this salutary remonstrance; laying aside the purple and the pontifical ornaments, he caused Hildebrand to accompany him to Rome, where his election was solemnly renewed by the Roman clergy and people. This was the first blow given to the usurped authority of the emperor. From that moment Hildebrand was withdrawn from Cluny by the Pope, in spite of the strong resistance of the Abbot St. Hugh. Created Cardinal Subdeacon of the Roman Church, and Abbot of San Paolo fuori le Mura, he went on steadily towards the end he had in view. Guided by his advice, Leo IX., after having renewed his courage at Monte Cassino, prepared several decrees of formal condemnation against the sale of benefices and against the marriage of priests; and these decrees were fulminated in a series of councils on both sides the Alps, at Rome, Verceil, Mayence, and Reims. The enemy, till then calm in the midst of his usurped rule, felt himself sharply wounded. Nevertheless, the simoniacal bishops, accomplices or authors of all the evils the Pope wished to cure, pretended as well as they could not to understand the nature and drift of the pontiff's act. They hoped time would be their friend; but they were soon undeceived. Among the many assemblies convoked and presided over by Pope Leo IX., the Council of Reims, held in 1094, was the most important. . . . Henry I., King of France, opposed the holding of this Council with all his might. . . . The Pope stood his ground: he was only able to gather round him twenty bishops; but, on the other hand, there came fifty Benedictine abbots. Thanks to their support, energetic canons were promulgated

against the two great scandals of the time, and several guilty prelates were deposed. They went still further: a decree pronounced by this Council vindicated, for the first time in many years, the freedom of ecclesiastical elections, by declaring that no promotion to the episcopate should be valid without the choice of the clergy and people. This was the first signal of the struggle for the enfranchisement of the Church, and the first token of the preponderating influence of Hildebrand. From that time all was changed. A new spirit breathed on the Church—a new life thrilled the heart of the papacy. . . . Vanquished and made prisoner by the Normans—not yet, as under St. Gregory VII., transformed into devoted champions of the Church—Leo IX. vanquished them, in turn, by force of courage and holiness, and wrested from them their first oath of fidelity to the Holy See while granting to them a first investiture of their conquests. Death claimed the pontiff when he had reigned five years. . . . At the moment when the struggle between the papacy and the Western empire became open and terrible, the East, by a mysterious decree of Providence, finally separated itself from Catholic unity. . . . The schism was completed by Michael Cerularius, whom the Emperor Constantine Monomachus had placed, in 1043, on the patriarchal throne. The separation took place under the vain pretext of Greek and Latin observances on the subject of unleavened bread, of strangled meats, and of the singing of the Alleluia. . . . Leo IX. being dead, the Romans wished to elect Hildebrand, and only renounced their project at his most earnest entreaties. He then hastened to cross the Alps, and directed his steps to Germany [1054], provided with full authority from the Roman clergy and people to choose, under the eyes of the Emperor Henry III., whoever, among the prelates of the empire, that prince should judge most worthy of the tiara. . . . Hildebrand selected Gebhard, Bishop of Eichstadt; and in spite of the emperor, who desired to keep near him a bishop who enjoyed his entire confidence—in spite even of Gebhard himself—he carried him off to Rome, where, according to the ancient custom, the clergy proceeded to his election under the name of Victor II. The new Pope, at the risk of his life, adhered to the counsels of Hildebrand, and continued the war made by his predecessor on simoniacal bishops and married priests. . . . At this crisis [October, 1056] the Emperor Henry III. died in the flower of his age, leaving the throne of Germany to his only son, a child of six years old, but already elected and crowned—the regent being his mother, the Empress Agnes. . . . Victor II. had scarcely followed the emperor to the tomb [July, 1057] when the Roman clergy hastened, for the first time, to elect a Pope without any imperial intervention. In the absence of Hildebrand, the unanimous choice of the electors fixed on the former chancellor and legate at Constantinople of Leo IX., on Frederic, monk and abbot of Monte Cassino [raised to the throne by the name of Stephen, sometimes numbered as the ninth, but generally as the tenth Pope of that name].—Count de Montalembert, *Monks of the West*, v. 6, bk. 19, ch. 2.—Stephen X died in the year following his election, and again the papal chair was filled during the absence of Hildebrand from Rome. The new pope, who took the name of Benedict X., was obnoxious to the reforming party, of which Hildebrand was the head, and the validity of his election was denied. With the support of the imperial court in Germany, Gerard, bishop of Florence, was raised to the throne, as Nicholas II., and his rival gave way to him. Nicholas II., dying in 1061, was succeeded by Alexander

II elected equally under Hildebrand's influence. On the death of Alexander in 1073, Hildebrand himself was forced against his will, to accept the papal tiara (under the name of Gregory VII.). He "knew well the difficulties that would beset one who should endeavour to govern the Church as became an upright and conscientious Pope. Hence, dreading the responsibility, he protested, but to no purpose, against his own elevation to the papal throne. . . . Shrinking from its onerous duties, Gregory thought he saw one way still open by which he might escape the burden. The last decree on papal elections contained an article requiring that the Pope-elect should receive the approval of the Emperor of Germany. Gregory, who still assumed only the title of 'Bishop-elect of Rome,' notified Henry IV, King of Germany and Emperor-elect, of what had taken place, and begged him not to approve the action or confirm the choice of the Romans. 'But should you,' he went on to say, 'deny my prayer, I beg to assure you that I shall most cer-



POPE GREGORY VII

tainly not allow your scandalous and notorious excesses to go unpunished.' Several historians, putting this bold declaration beside the decree of Nicholas II (1059), which went on the assumption that the King of Germany did not enjoy the right of approving the Pope-elect until after he had been crowned Emperor, and then, only by a concession made to himself personally, have pronounced it supposititious. But when it is recollected that its authenticity rests upon the combined testimony of Bonizo, Bishop of Sutri, the friend of Hildebrand, and of William, abbot of Metz, as well as on the authority of the *Acta Vaticana*, it is difficult to see how the objection can be sustained. . . . Henry IV, on receiving news of Hildebrand's election, sent Count Eberhard, of Nellenburg, as his plenipotentiary to Rome to protest against the proceeding. The politic Hildebrand was careful not to be taken at a disadvantage. 'I have indeed' said he, 'been elected by the people, but against my own will. I would not, however, allow myself to be forced to take priest's orders until my election should have been ratified by the king and the princes of Germany.' Lambert of Hersfeld informs us that Henry was so pleased with this manner of speech

that he gave orders to allow the consecration to go on and the ceremony was accordingly performed on the Feast of the Purification in the following year (1074). This is the last instance of a papal election being ratified by an emperor."—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 2, pp. 347-348.—"From the most remote Christian antiquity, the marriage of clergymen had been regarded with the dislike, and their celibacy rewarded by the commendation, of the people. . . . This prevailing sentiment had ripened into a customary law, and the observance of that custom had been enforced by edicts and menaces, by rewards and penalties. But nature had triumphed over tradition, and had proved too strong for Councils and for Popes. When Hildebrand ascended the chair first occupied by a married Apostle, his spirit burned within him to see that marriage held in her impure and unhallowed bonds a large proportion of those who ministered at the altar, and who handled there the very substance of the incarnate Deity. It was a profanation well adapted to arouse the jealousy, not less than to wound the conscience, of the Pontiff. Secular cares suited ill with the stern duties of a theocratic ministry. Domestic affections would choke or enervate in them that corporate passion which might otherwise be directed with unmitigated ardour towards their chief and centre. Clerical celibacy would exhibit to those who trod the outer courts of the great Christian temple, the impressive and subjugating image of a transcendental perfection, too pure not only for the coarser delights of sense, but even for the alloy of conjugal or parental love. It would fill the world with adherents of Rome, in whom every feeling would be quenched which could rival that sacred allegiance. . . . With such anticipations, Gregory, within a few weeks from his accession, convened a council at the Lateran, and proposed a law, not, as formerly, forbidding merely the marriage of priests, but commanding every priest to put away his wife, and requiring all laymen to abstain from any sacred office which any wedded priest might presume to celebrate. Never was legislative foresight so verified by the result. What the great Council of Nicæa had attempted in vain, the Bishops assembled in the presence of Hildebrand accomplished, at his instance, at once, effectually, and for ever. Lamentable indeed were the complaints, bitter the reproaches, of the sufferers. Were the most sacred ties thus to be torn asunder at the ruthless bidding of an Italian priest? Were men to become angels, or were angels to be brought down from heaven to minister among men? Eloquence was never more pathetic, more just, or more unavailing. Prelate after prelate silenced these complaints by austere rebukes. Legate after legate arrived with papal menaces to the remonstrants. Monks and abbots preached the continency they at least professed. Kings and barons laughed over their cups at many a merry tale of compulsory divorce. Mobs pelted, hooted, and besmeared with profane and filthy baptisms the unhappy victims of pontifical rigour. It was a struggle not to be prolonged. . . . Expostulations subsided into murmurs, and murmurs were drowned in the general shout of victory. Eight hundred years have since passed away. Amidst the wreck of laws, opinions, and institutions, this decree of Hildebrand's still rules the Latin Church, in every land where sacrifices are offered on her altars. . . . With this Spartan rigour towards his adherents, Gregory combined a more than Athenian address and audacity towards his rivals and antagonists. So long as the monarchs of the West might freely bestow on the objects of their choice the sees and abbeys of their states, papal dominion could be but

a passing dream, and papal independency an empty boast. Corrupt motives usually determined that choice; and the objects of it were but seldom worthy. Ecclesiastical dignities were often sold to the highest bidder, and then the purchaser indemnified himself by a use no less mercenary of his own patronage; or they were given as a reward to some martial retainer, and the new churchman could not forget that he had once been a soldier. The cope and the coat-of-mail were worn alternately. The same hand bore the crucifix in the holy festival, and the sword in the day of battle. . . . In the hands of the newly consecrated Bishop was placed a staff, and on his finger a ring, which, received as they were from his temporal sovereign, proclaimed that homage and fealty were due to him alone. And thus the sacerdotal Proconsuls of Rome became, in sentiment at least, and by the powerful obligation of honour, the vicegerents, not of the Pontifex Maximus, but of the Emperor. To dissolve this 'trinoda necessitas' of simoniacal preferments, military service, and feudal vassalage, a feeblér spirit would have exhorted, negotiated, and compromised. To Gregory it belonged to subdue men by courage, and to rule them by reverence. Addressing the world in the language of his generation, he proclaimed to every potentate, from the Baltic to the Straits of Calpè, that all human authority being holden of the divine, and God himself having delegated his own sovereignty over men to the Prince of the Sacred College, a divine right to universal obedience was the inalienable attribute of the Roman Pontiffs. . . . In turning over the collection of the epistles of Hildebrand, we are every where met by this doctrine asserted in a tone of the calmest dignity and the most serene conviction. Thus he informs the French monarch that every house in his kingdom owed to Peter, as their father and pastor, an annual tribute of a penny, and he commands his legates to collect it in token of the subjection of France to the Holy See. He assures Solomon the King of Hungary, that his territories are the property of the Holy Roman Church. Solomon being incredulous and refractory, was dethroned by his competitor for the Hungarian crown. His more prudent successor, Ladislaus, acknowledged himself the vassal of the Pope, and paid him tribute. . . . From every part of the European continent, Bishops are summoned by these imperial missives to Rome, and there are either condemned and deposed, or absolved and confirmed in their sees. In France, in Spain, and in Germany, we find his legates exercising the same power; and the correspondence records many a stern rebuke, sometimes for their undue remissness, sometimes for their misapplied severity. The rescripts of Trajan scarcely exhibit a firmer assurance both of the right and the power to control every other authority, whether secular or sacerdotal, throughout the civilized world."—J. Stephen, *Hildebrand* (*Edinburgh Review*, Apr., 1845).—"By investiture in mediæval church law is meant the act of bestowing a church office, with the use of symbols, on the clergyman who has been appointed to fill it. It is especially to signify the act by which secular princes conferred on the chosen candidates the offices of bishop and abbot that the word is used since the eleventh century. The struggle which the papacy and the church carried on in the last half of the 11th and on into the 12th century for the purpose of doing away with this same right of the princes to confer such offices is called in consequence the war of the investitures. That the nomination of the bishops was a right pertaining to the sovereign was a view of the matter which had gained ground already in the time of the Frankish

monarchy. The German kings up to the eleventh century insisted all the more on this right from the fact that the bishoprics and imperial abbeys had in course of time lost their original character of church organizations. They had been appanaged with imperial and other lands, with political and public rights, with immunities, rights of coinage, etc. . . . They had, in consequence, become transformed into political districts, on a par with those of the secular princes and obliged, like the latter, to bear the public burdens, especially that of providing war-contingents and supplies. It is true that in the period in question, although for the most part the king openly and freely filled the bishoprics and abbeys of his own accord, some elections had been carried through by the cathedral chapter, the other secular canons, the nobles, vassals and ministeriales of the bishopric. This was usually on the ground of royal privileges, of special royal permission, or of a designation of the candidate by the king. However the person might have been elected he could only enter into possession of the bishopric or abbacy after the king had formally conferred the office upon him. The death of a bishop would be announced to the king by envoys from the episcopal residence who at the same time, handing over the episcopal crosier and ring, would beg that the king would see to the refilling of the vacant office. It need hardly be said that any new candidate who might in the meantime have been elected presented himself at court. The king discussed the matter of the bestowal of the vacant bishopric or abbacy with his secular and ecclesiastical nobles and councillors. His next step was to confer the office on the candidate he had chosen by means of investiture, that is by handing him the episcopal crosier and ring. The candidate in return had to take the oath of fealty and to perform the act of homage, the so-called *hominium*. This is how an episcopal office, at that time regarded as a conglomeration of ecclesiastical and secular rights, was regularly filled. . . . After the middle of the 11th century there began to show itself within the reform-party, which at that time gave the tone at Rome, a tendency, ever growing stronger, in favor of achieving the complete liberation of the church from the secular influence. The German kingdom and empire were to be subordinated to the papacy as to the proper controlling power. Those who held these views declared that the investiture of the bishops and abbots by the king was simony because, as was the custom on the part of those receiving other feudal grants, certain presents were made in return. It was demanded that the episcopal symbols, the ring and the crosier, should no longer be disposed of at the hand of a layman. As a matter of fact there had frequently been carried on an unworthy traffic with the bishoprics in consequence of the manner of conferring them. The ecclesiastical legislators, besides passing general laws against simony, came forward at first cautiously enough with the regulation that the clergy should accept no churches from the hands of a layman. The direct clash with the German court came later, in 1068, where the king had conferred the bishopric of Milan as usual through investiture, while the people, under the influence of the papal reform-party, demanded a bishop elected canonically and with Rome's consent. The king did not give way and Gregory VII., in the Roman synod of 1074, increased the severity of the earlier laws against simony, opening the struggle in a synod of the following year by ordaining that the people should not be present at ecclesiastical functions performed by those clergy who had gained office through simony, the reference being to those

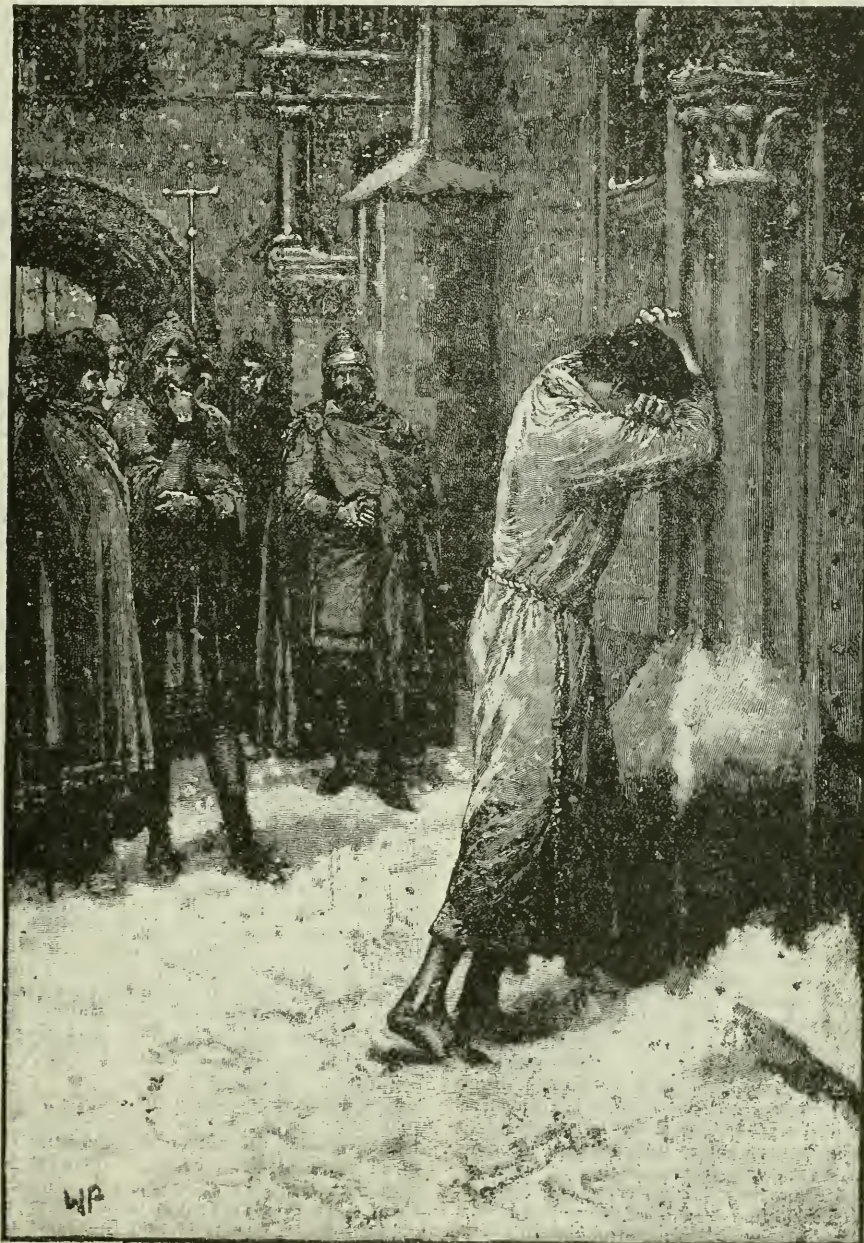
bishops who adhered to the king. Furthermore the royal right of conferring bishoprics by investiture was now directly denied. With this attack on an old and customary prerogative of the German king, one too which in earlier times had even been expressly acknowledged by the pope, an attempt was made to thoroughly undermine the foundations of the German empire and to rob the royal power of one of its chief supports. The bishops and abbots were princes of the realm, possessing, besides a number of privileges, the large feudal and allodial holdings which went with their churches. They had, on behalf of their bishoprics, to sustain the largest share of the empire's burdens. The crown found in them the chief props and supports of its power, for the ecclesiastical principalities could be freely granted to devoted adherents without regard to the hereditary dynastic claims of families. The only legal bond by which these princes were bound to the crown was the investiture with its oath of fealty and homage. The prohibition of this, then, denoted the cessation of the relationship which assured the dependence of the ecclesiastical princes on the king and on the empire and the performance of their duties to that empire. It delivered over the considerable material wealth and power of the imperial bishoprics and abbeys to a clergy that was loosed from all connection with the crown. With regard to the manner in which in future, according to the opinion of Gregory VII. or the church-reform party, the bishoprics were to be filled, the above-mentioned synod does not express itself. The decrees of the Roman synod of 1080, as well as Gregory's own further attitude, however, make it appear unquestionable that, with the formal restoration of the old so-called canonical election by clergy and people in common with the metropolitan and his suffragans, he purposed the actual subjection to the pope of the episcopacy and of the resources which in consequence of its political position stood at its command. From the election of a secular clergy which should be freed from national and state interests by the carrying out of the celibacy laws . . . there could result as a rule only bishops submissive to the papal court."—Hinschius, *Investiturstreit* (*Herzog's Realencyclopædie für protestantische Theologie und Kirche*, v. 6).—"At first Gregory appeared to desire to direct his weapons against King Philip of France, 'the worst of the tyrants who enslaved the Church.' . . . But with a more correct estimate of the circumstances of Germany and the dangers which threatened from Lombardy, he let this conflict drop and turned against Henry IV. The latter had so alienated Saxony and Thuringia by harsh proceedings, that they desired to accuse him to the Pope of oppression and simony. Gregory immediately demanded the dismissal of the councillors who had been excommunicated by his predecessor. His mother, who was devoted to the Pope, sought to mediate, and the Saxon revolt which now broke out (still in 1073) still further induced him to give way. He wrote a submissive letter to the Pope, rendered a repentant confession at Nuremberg in 1074 in the presence of his mother and two Roman cardinals, and, along with the excommunicated councillors, who had promised on oath to surrender all church properties obtained by simony, was received into the communion of the Church. . . . [But] Henry, after overthrowing his enemies, soon returned to his old manner, and the Germany clergy resisted the interference of the Pope. At the Roman Synod (February, 1075) Gregory then decreed numerous ecclesiastical penalties against resistant German and Lombard bishops, and five councillors of the King were once more laid under

the ban on account of simony. But in addition, at a Roman synod of the same year, he carried through the bold law of investiture, which prohibited bishops and abbots from receiving a bishopric or abbacy from the hands of a layman, and prohibited the rulers from conferring investiture on penalty of excommunication. Before the publication of the law Gregory caused confidential overtures to be made to the King, in order, as it seems, to give the King an opportunity of taking measures to obviate the threatening dangers which were involved in this extreme step. At the same time he himself was threatened and entangled on all hands; Robert Guiscard, whom he had previously excommunicated, he once more laid under the ban. . . . Henry, who in the summer of 1075 still negotiated directly with the Pope through ambassadors, after completely overthrowing the Saxons now ceased to pay any attention. . . . At Worms (24th January 1076) he caused a great portion of the German bishops to declare the deposition of the Pope who, as was said, was shattering the Empire and degrading the bishops. The Lombard bishops subscribed the decree of deposition at Piacenza and Pavia. Its bearers aroused a fearful storm against themselves at the Lenten Synod of Rome (1076), and Gregory now declared the excommunication and deposition of Henry, and released his subjects from their oath. Serious voices did indeed deny the Pope's right to the latter course; but a portion of the German bishops at once humbled themselves before the Pope, others began to waver, and the German princes, angered over Henry's government, demanded at Tribur in October, 1076, that the King should give satisfaction to the Pope, and the Pope hold judgment on Henry in Germany itself; if by his own fault Henry should remain under the ban for a year's time, another King was to be elected. Henry then resolved to make his peace with the Pope in order to take their weapon out of the hands of the German princes. Before the Pope came to Germany, he hastened in the winter with his wife and child from Besançon, over Mont Cenis, and found a friendly reception in Lombardy, so that the Pope, already on the way to Germany, betook himself to the Castle of Canossa to the Margravine Matilda of Tuscany, fearing an evil turn of affairs from Henry and the Lombards who were hostile to the Pope. But Henry was driven by his threatened position in Germany to seek release from the ban above every thing. This brought him as a penitent into the courtyard of Canossa (January 1077), where Gregory saw him stand from morning till evening during three days before he released him from the ban at the intercession of Matilda."—W. Moeller, *History of the Christian church in the Middle Ages*, pp. 256-258.—"It was on the 25th of January, 1077, that the scene took place, which, as is natural, has seized so strongly upon the popular imagination, and has so often supplied a theme for the brush of the painter, the periods of the historian, the verse of the poet. . . . The king was bent upon escaping at any sacrifice from the bond of excommunication and from his engagement to appear before the Pontiff, at the Diet summoned at Augsburg for the Feast of the Purification. The character in which he presented himself before Gregory was that of a penitent, throwing himself in deep contrition upon the Apostolic clemency, and desirous of reconciliation with the Church. The Pope, after so long experience of his duplicity, disbelieved in his sincerity, while, as a mere matter of policy, it was in the highest degree expedient to keep him to his pact with the German princes and prelates. . . . On three successive days did he appear barefooted in

the snowy court-yard of the castle, clad in the white garb of a penitent, suing for relief from ecclesiastical censure. It was difficult for Gregory to resist the appeal thus made to his fatherly compassion, the more especially as Hugh, Abbot of Cluny, and the Countess Matilda besought him 'not to break the bruised reed.' Against his better judgment, and in despite of the warnings of secular prudence, the Pope consented on the fourth day to admit to his presence the royal suppliant. . . . The conditions of absolution imposed upon the king were mainly four: that he should present himself upon a day and at a place, to be named by the Pontiff, to receive the judgment of the Apostolic See, upon the charges preferred by the princes and prelates of Germany, and that he should abide the Pontifical sentence—his subjects meanwhile remaining released from their oath of fealty; that he should respect the rights of the Church and carry out the papal decrees; and that breach of this engagement should entitle the Teutonic magnates to proceed to the election of another king. Such were the terms to which Henry solemnly pledged himself, and on the faith of that pledge the Pontiff, assuming the vestments of religion, proceeded to absolve him with the appointed rites. . . . So ends the first act in this great tragedy. Gregory's misgivings as to the king's sincerity soon receive too ample justification. 'Fear not,' the Pontiff is reported to have said, with half contemptuous sadness to the Saxon envoys who complained of his lenity to the monarch: 'Fear not, I send him back to you more guilty than he came.' Henry's words to the Pope had been softer than butter; but he had departed with war in his heart. . . . Soon he lays a plot for seizing Gregory at Mantua, whither the Pontiff is invited for the purpose of presiding over a Council. But the vigilance of the Great Countess foils the proposed treachery. Shortly the ill-advised monarch again assumes an attitude of open hostility to the Pope. . . . The Teutonic princes, glad to throw off an authority which they loathe and despise—not heeding the advice to pause given by the Roman legates—proceed at the Diet of Forcheim to the election of another king. Their choice falls upon Rudolph of Swabia, who is crowned at Metz on the 26th of March, 1077. The situation is now complicated by the strife between the two rival sovereigns. . . . At last, in Lent, 1080, Gregory, no longer able to tolerate the continual violation by Henry of the pledges given at Canossa, and greatly moved by tidings of his new and manifold sacrileges and cruelties, pronounces again the sentence of excommunication against him, releasing his subjects from their obedience, and recognizing Rudolph as king. Henry thereupon calls together some thirty simoniacal and incontinent prelates at Brixen, and causes them to go through the form of electing an anti-pope in the person of Guibert, Archbishop of Ravenna, an ecclesiastic some time previously excommunicated by Gregory for grave offences. Then the tide turns in Henry's favour. At the battle of the Elster (15th October, 1080), Rudolph is defeated and mortally wounded, and on the same day the army of the Great Countess is overthrown and dispersed at La Volta in the Mantuan territory. Next year, in the early spring, Henry crosses the Alps and advances towards Rome. . . . A little before Pentecost Henry appears under the walls of the Papal city, expecting that his party within it will throw open the gates to him; but his expectation is disappointed. . . . In 1082, the monarch again advances upon Rome and ineffectually assaults it. In the next year he makes a third and more successful attempt, and captures the Leonine city. . . . On the 21st of March, 1084, the

Lateran Gate is open to Henry by the treacherous Romans, and the excommunicated monarch, with the anti-pope by his side, rides in triumph through the streets. The next day, Guibert solemnly takes possession of St. John Lateran, and bestows the Imperial Crown upon Henry in the Vatican Basilica.

of his once beautiful Rome,' and after pausing for a few days, at Monte Casino, reaches Salerno, where his life pilgrimage is to end."—W. S. Lilly, *Turning-point of the Middle Ages* (*Contemporary Review*, Aug., 1882).—Gregory died at Salerno, May 25th, 1085, leaving Henry apparently trium-



HENRY IV AT CANOSSA
(After the painting by W. Paget)

Meanwhile Gregory is shut up in the Castle of St. Angelo. Thence, after six weeks, he is delivered by Guiscard, Duke of Calabria, the faithful vassal of the Holy See. But the burning of the city by Guiscard's troops, upon the uprising of the Romans, turns the joy of his rescue into mourning. Eight days afterwards he quits 'the smoking ruins

phant, but he had inspired the papacy with his will and mind, and the battle went on. At the end of another generation—in 1122—the question of investitures was settled by a compromise called the Concordat of Worms. "Both of the contending parties gave up something, but one much more than the other; the Church shadows, the State substance.

The more important elections should be henceforth made in the presence of the Emperor, he engaging not to interfere with them, but to leave to the Chapter or other electing body the free exercise of their choice. This was in fact to give over in most instances the election to the Pope; who gradually managed to exclude the Emperor from all share in Episcopal appointments. The temporalities of the See or Abbey were still to be made over to the Bishop or Abbot elect, not, however, any longer by the delivering to him of the ring and crozier, but by a touch of the sceptre, he having done homage for them, and taken the oath of obedience. All this was in Germany to find place before consecration, being the same arrangement that seven years earlier had brought the conflict between Anselm and our Henry I. to an end."—R. C. Trench, *Lectures on medieval church history*, lecture 9.—See also GERMANY: 973-1056; 1056-1122; CANOSSA, HENRY IV AT; ROME: Medieval city: 1081-1084.

ALSO IN: A. F. Villemain, *Life of Gregory VII*, bk. 2.—W. R. W. Stephens, *Hildebrand and his times*.—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, bk. 6-8.—E. F. Henderson, *Select historical documents of the Middle Ages*, bk. 4.

1059.—Institution of procedure of papal election.—"According to the primitive custom of the church, an episcopal vacancy was filled up by election of the clergy and people belonging to the city or diocese. . . . It is probable that, in almost every case, the clergy took a leading part in the selection of their bishops; but the consent of the laity was absolutely necessary to render it valid. They were, however, by degrees excluded from any real participation, first in the Greek, and finally in the western church. . . . It does not appear that the early Christian emperors interfered with the freedom of choice any further than to make their own confirmation necessary in the great patriarchal sees, such as Rome and Constantinople, which were frequently the objects of violent competition, and to decide in controverted elections. . . . The bishops of Rome, like those of inferior sees, were regularly elected by the citizens, laymen as well as ecclesiastics. But their consecration was deferred until the popular choice had received the sovereign's sanction. The Romans regularly despatched letters to Constantinople or to the exarchs of Ravenna, praying that their election of a pope might be confirmed. Exceptions, if any, are infrequent while Rome was subject to the eastern empire. This, among other imperial prerogatives, Charlemagne might consider as his own. . . . Otho the Great, in receiving the imperial crown, took upon him the prerogatives of Charlemagne. There is even extant a decree of Leo VIII., which grants to him and his successors the right of naming future popes. But the authenticity of this instrument is denied by the Italians. It does not appear that the Saxon emperors went to such a length as nomination, except in one instance (that of Gregory V. in 996); but they sometimes, not uniformly, confirmed the election of a pope, according to ancient custom. An explicit right of nomination was, however, conceded to the emperor Henry III. in 1047, as the only means of rescuing the Roman church from the disgrace and depravity into which it had fallen. Henry appointed two or three very good popes. . . . This high prerogative was perhaps not designed to extend beyond Henry himself. But even if it had been transmissible to his successors, the infancy of his son Henry IV., and the factions of that minority, precluded the possibility of its exercise. Nicholas II., in 1050, published a decree which restored the right of election to the

Romans, but with a remarkable variation from the original form. The cardinal bishops (seven in number, holding sees in the neighbourhood of Rome, and consequently suffragans of the pope as patriarch or metropolitan) were to choose the supreme pontiff, with the concurrence first of the cardinal priests and deacons (or ministers of the parish churches of Rome), and afterwards of the laity. Thus elected, the new pope was to be presented for confirmation to Henry, 'now king, and hereafter to become emperor,' and to such of his successors as should personally obtain that privilege. This decree is the foundation of that celebrated mode of election in a conclave of cardinals which has ever since determined the headship of the church. . . . The real author of this decree, and of all other vigorous measures adopted by the popes of that age, whether for the assertion of their independence or the restoration of discipline, was Hildebrand [afterwards Pope Gregory VII]."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, v. 2, ch. 7, pt. 1.

ALSO IN: E. F. Henderson, *Select historical documents of the Middle Ages*, bk. 4, no. 1.

1066-1534.—Relations with England. See CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 1066-1534.

1077-1102.—Donation of Countess Matilda.—"The Countess Matilda, born in 1040, was daughter of Boniface, Marquis of Tuscany, and Beatrice, sister of the Emperor Henry III. On the death of her only brother, without issue, she succeeded to all his dominions, of Tuscany, Parma, Lucca, Mantua and Reggio. Rather late in life, she married Guelpho, son of the Duke of Bavaria—no issue resulting from their union. This princess displayed great energy and administrative ability in the troubled times in which she lived, occasionally appearing at the head of her own troops. Ever a devoted daughter of the Church, she specially venerated Pope Gregory VII., to whom she afforded much material support, in the difficulties by which he was constantly beset. To this Pontiff, she made a donation of a considerable portion of her dominions, for the benefit of the Holy See, 1077, confirming the same in a deed to Pope Pascal II., in 1102, entitled 'Cartula donationis Comitissæ Mathildis facta S. Gregorio PP. VII., et innovata Paschali PP.'; apud Theiner 'Codex Diplomaticus,' etc., tom. 1, p. 10. As the original deed to Gregory VII. is not extant, and the deed of confirmation or renewal does not recite the territories conveyed, there is some uncertainty about their exact limits. However, it is generally thought that they comprised the district formerly known as the Patrimony of Saint Peter, lying on the right bank of the Tiber, and extending from Aquapendente to Ostia. The Countess Matilda died in 1115, aged 75."—J. N. Murphy, *Chair of Peter*, p. 235, footnote.—See below: 1122-1250.

1086-1154.—Succession of popes.—Victor III, 1086-1087; Urban II, 1088-1099; Pascal II, 1099-1118; Gelasius II, 1118-1119; Callistus II, 1119-1124; Honorius II, 1124-1130; Innocent II, 1130-1143; Celestine II, 1143-1144; Lucius II, 1144-1145; Eugene III, 1145-1153; Anastasius IV, 1153-1154.

1095.—Pope Urban II and the First Crusade.—Council of Clermont. See CRUSADES: 1095.

12th century.—Papal control of Florence. See FLORENCE: 12th century.

1100-1135.—Attitude of Henry I towards papacy. See ENGLAND: 1100-1135.

1122-1250.—Continued conflict with the empire.—Influence of mendicant orders.—Popes and Hohenstaufen emperors.—"The struggle about investiture ended, as was to be expected, in a compromise; but it was a compromise in which all the glory went to the Papacy. Men saw that

the Papal claims had been excessive, even impossible; but the object at which they aimed, the freedom of the Church from the secularising tendencies of feudalism, was in the main obtained. . . . But the contest with the Empire still went on. . . . Some of the lands . . . [which Matilda had bequeathed to the Pope] were allodial, some were fiefs of the Empire; and the inheritance of Matilda was a fruitful source of contention to two powers already jealous of one another. The constant struggle that lasted for two centuries gave full scope for the development of the Italian towns. . . . The old Italian notion of establishing municipal freedom by an equilibrium of two contending powers was stamped still more deeply on Italian politics by the wars of Guelfs and Ghibellins. The union between the Papacy and the Lombard Republics was strong enough to humble the mightiest of the Emperors. Frederic Barbarossa, who held the strongest views of the Imperial prerogative, had to confess himself vanquished by Pope Alexander III. [see ITALY: 1154-1162, to 1174-1183], and the meeting of Pope and Emperor at Venice was a memorable ending to the long struggle; that the great Emperor should kiss the feet of the Pope whom he had so long refused to acknowledge, was an act which stamped itself with dramatic effect on the imagination of men and gave rise to fables of a still more lowly submission [see VENICE: 1177]. The length of the strife, the renown of Frederic, the unswerving tenacity of purpose with which Alexander had maintained his cause, all lent lustre to this triumph of the Papacy. The consistent policy of Alexander III., even in adverse circumstances, the calm dignity with which he asserted the Papal claims, and the wisdom with which he used his opportunities, made him a worthy successor of Gregory VII. at a great crisis in the fortunes of the Papacy. It was reserved, however, for Innocent III. to realise most fully the ideas of Hildebrand. If Hildebrand was the Julius, Innocent was the Augustus, of the Papal Empire. He had not the creative genius nor the fiery energy of his great forerunner; but his clear intellect never missed an opportunity, and his calculating spirit rarely erred from its mark. . . . On all sides Innocent III. enjoyed successes beyond his hopes. In the East, the crusading zeal of Europe was turned by Venice to the conquest of Constantinople [see CRUSADES: 1201-1203], and Innocent could rejoice for a brief space in the subjection of the Eastern Church. In the West, Innocent turned the crusading impulse to the interest of the Papal power, by diverting it against heretical sects which, in Northern Italy and the South of France, attacked the system of the Church [see ALBIGENSES]. . . . Moreover Innocent saw the beginning, though he did not perceive the full importance, of a movement which the reaction against heresy produced within the Church. The Crusades had quickened men's activity, and the heretical sects had aimed at kindling greater fervour of spiritual life. . . . By the side of the monastic aim of averting, by the prayers and penitence of a few, God's anger from a wicked world, there grew up a desire for self-devotion to missionary labour. Innocent III. was wise enough not to repulse this new enthusiasm, but find a place for it within the ecclesiastical system. Francis of Assisi gathered round him a body of followers who bound themselves to a literal following of the Apostles, to a life of poverty and labour, amongst the poor and outcast; Dominic of Castile formed a society which aimed at the suppression of heresy by assiduous teaching of the truth. The Franciscan and Dominican orders grew almost at once into power and importance,

and their foundation marks a great reformation within the Church [see DOMINICAN FRIARS; FRANCISCAN FRIARS]. The reformation movement of the eleventh century, under the skilful guidance of Hildebrand, laid the foundations of the Papal monarchy in the belief of Europe. The reformation of the thirteenth century found full scope for its energy under the protection of the Papal power; for the Papacy was still in sympathy with the conscience of Europe, which it could quicken and direct. These mendicant orders were directly connected with the Papacy, and were free from all episcopal control. Their zeal awakened popular enthusiasm; they rapidly increased in number and spread into every land. The Friars became the popular preachers and confessors, and threatened to supersede the old ecclesiastical order. Not only amongst the common people, but in the universities as well, did their influence become supreme. They were a vast army devoted to the service of the Pope, and overran Europe in his name. They



POPE INNOCENT III

preached Papal indulgences, they stirred up men to crusades in behalf of the Papacy, they gathered money for the Papal use. . . . The Emperor Frederic II., who had been brought up under Innocent's guardianship, proved the greatest enemy of the newly-won sovereignty of the Pope. King of Sicily and Naples, Frederic was resolved to assert again the Imperial pretensions of North Italy, and then win back the Papal acquisitions in the centre; if his plan had succeeded, the Pope would have lost his independence and sunk to be the instrument of the house of Hohenstaufen. Two Popes of inflexible determination and consummate political ability were the opponents of Frederic. Gregory IX. and Innocent IV. flung themselves with ardour into the struggle, and strained every nerve till the whole Papal policy was absorbed by the necessities of the strife. [See ITALY: 1183-1250; GERMANY: 1138-1107.] . . . Frederic II. died [1250], but the Popes pursued with their hostility his remotest descendants, and were resolved to sweep the very remembrance of him out of Italy. To accomplish their purpose, they did not hesitate to summon the aid of the stranger. Charles of Anjou appeared as their

champion, and in the Pope's name took possession of the Sicilian kingdom [see ITALY (Southern): 1250-1268]. By his help the last remnants of the Hohenstaufen house were crushed, and the claims of the Empire to rule over Italy were destroyed for ever. But the Papacy got rid of an open enemy only to introduce a covert and more deadly foe. The Angevin influence became superior to that of the Papacy, and French popes were elected that they might carry out the wishes of the Sicilian king. By its resolute efforts to escape from the power of the Empire, the Papacy only paved the way for a connexion that ended in its enslavement to the influence of France."—M. Creighton, *History of the papacy during the period of the Reformation*, v. 1, pp. 18-23.

ALSO IN: T. L. Kingston, *History of Frederick II., emperor of the Romans*.

1154-1198.—Succession of popes.—Hadrian IV, 1154-1159; Alexander III, 1159-1181; Lucius III, 1181-1185; Urban III, 1185-1187; Gregory VIII, 1187; Clement III, 1187-1191; Celestine III, 1191-1198.

1162-1170.—Conflict of church and state in England.—Becket and Henry II. See ENGLAND: 1162-1170.

1163-1164.—Struggle against Frederick Barbarossa. See ITALY: 1163-1164.

1198-1216.—Establishing of papal sovereignty in the states of the church.—"Innocent III. may be called the founder of the States of the Church. The lands with which Pippin and Charles had invested the Popes were held subject to the suzerainty of the Frankish sovereign and owned his jurisdiction. On the downfall of the Carolingian Empire the neighbouring nobles, calling themselves Papal vassals, seized on these lands; and when they were ousted in the Pope's name by the Normans, the Pope did not gain by the change of neighbours. Innocent III. was the first Pope who claimed and exercised the rights of an Italian prince. He exacted from the Imperial Prefect in Rome the oath of allegiance to himself; he drove the Imperial vassals from the Matildan domain [see TUSCANY: 685-1115], and compelled Constance, the widowed queen of Sicily, to recognise the Papal suzerainty over her ancestral kingdom. He obtained from the Emperor Otto IV. (1201) the cession of all the lands which the Papacy claimed, and so established for the first time an undisputed title to the Papal States."—M. Creighton, *History of the papacy during the period of the Reformation*, v. 1, p. 21.

1198-1294.—Succession of popes.—Innocent III, 1198-1216; Honorius III, 1216-1227; Gregory IX, 1227-1241; Celestine IV, 1241; Innocent IV, 1243-1254; Alexander IV, 1254-1261; Urban IV, 1261-1264; Clement IV, 1265-1268; Gregory X, 1271-1276; Innocent V, 1276; Hadrian V, 1276; John XXI, 1276-1277; Nicholas III, 1277-1280; Martin IV, 1281-1285; Honorius IV, 1285-1287; Nicholas IV, 1288-1292; Celestine V, 1294.

1198-1303.—Acme of papal power.—Pontificates from Innocent III to Boniface VIII.—"The epoch when the spirit of papal usurpation was most strikingly displayed was the pontificate of Innocent III. In each of the three leading objects which Rome had pursued, independent sovereignty, supremacy over the Christian church, control over the princes of the earth, it was the fortune of this pontiff to conquer. He realized . . . that fond hope of so many of his predecessors, a dominion over Rome and the central parts of Italy. During his pontificate Constantinople was taken by the Latins; and however he might seem to regret a diversion of the crusaders, which impeded the re-

covery of the Holy Land, he exulted in the obedience of the new patriarch and the reunion of the Greek church. Never, perhaps either before or since, was the great eastern schism in so fair a way of being healed; even the kings of Bulgaria and Armenia acknowledged the supremacy of Innocent, and permitted his interference with their ecclesiastical institutions. The maxims of Gregory VII. were now matured by more than a hundred years, and the right of trampling upon the necks of kings had been received, at least among churchmen, as an inherent attribute of the papacy. 'As the sun and the moon are placed in the firmament' (such is the language of Innocent), 'the greater as the light of the day, and the lesser of the night, thus are there two powers in the church—the pontifical, which, as having the charge of souls, is the greater; and the royal, which is the less, and to which the bodies of men only are intrusted.' Intoxicated with these conceptions (if we may apply such a word to successful ambition), he thought no quarrel of princes beyond the sphere of his jurisdiction. 'Though I cannot judge of the right to a fief,' said Innocent to the kings of France and England, 'yet it is my province to judge where sin is committed, and my duty to prevent all public scandals.' . . . Though I am not aware that any pope before Innocent III. had thus announced himself as the general arbiter of differences and conservator of the peace throughout Christendom, yet the scheme had been already formed, and the public mind was in some degree prepared to admit it. . . . The noonday of papal dominion extends from the pontificate of Innocent III. inclusively to that of Boniface VIII.; or, in other words, through the 13th century. Rome inspired during this age all the terror of her ancient name. She was once more the mistress of the world, and kings were her vassals."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, v. 2, ch. 7, pt. 1-2.

ALSO IN: J. Miley, *History of the Papal States*, v. 3, bk. 1, ch. 3.—M. Gosselin, *Power of the pope in the Middle Ages*, pt. 2, ch. 3.—M. Creighton, *History of the papacy during the Reformation*, introduction, v. 1, ch. 1.

1203.—Planting of germs of the papal Inquisition. See INQUISITION: 1203-1525.

1205-1213.—Subjugation of King John, of England. See ENGLAND: 1205-1213.

1214.—Battle of Bouvines. See BOUVINES, BATTLE OF: 1214.

1215.—Ban against Waldenses. See WALDENSES.

1215.—Beginning of wars of the Guelfs and Ghibellines in Italy. See ITALY: 1183-1250; 1215.

1216-1229.—Sixth Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1216-1229.

1220-1250.—Conflicts of Frederick II with the papacy. See GERMANY: 1197-1250.

1250-1268.—Opposition to House of Hohenstaufen. See ITALY (Southern): 1250-1268.

1264.—Transfer of Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to Charles of Anjou by Pope Urban IV. See ITALY (Southern): 1250-1268.

1268.—Pragmatic Sanction of St. Louis, affirming the rights of the Gallican church. See FRANCE: 1268.

1275.—Ratification of the donation of Charlemagne.—Capitulation of Otto IV renewed by Rudolph of Hapsburg. See GERMANY: 1273-1308.

1276.—Decline of papal power. See CHRISTIANITY: 1048-1309.

1279.—English statute of mortmain. See ENGLAND: 1270.

1294-1348.—Stormy pontificate of Boniface VIII.—Conflict with Philip IV of France.—

"Babylonish Captivity."—Purchase of Avignon. —Boniface VIII, who came to the Papal throne in 1294, "was a man of so much learning that Petrarch extols him as the wonder of the world. His craft and cruelty, however, were shown in his treatment of Celestine V. [his predecessor], whom he first persuaded to resign the pontificate, five months after his election, on account of his inexperience in politics; and then, having succeeded to the chair, instead of letting the good man return to the cloister for which he panted, he kept him in confinement to the day of his death. His resentment of the opposition of the two cardinals Colonna to his election was so bitter, that not content with degrading them, he decreed the whole family—one of the most illustrious in Rome—to be for ever infamous, and incapable of ecclesiastical dignities. He pulled down their town of Præneste, and ordered the site to be sown with salt to extinguish it, like Carthage, for ever. This pontificate is famous for the institution of the Jubilee, though, according to some accounts, it was established a century before by Innocent III. By a bull dated 22nd February 1300, Boniface granted a plenary remission of sins to all who, before Christmas, in that and every subsequent hundredth year, should visit the churches of St. Peter and St. Paul daily, for 30 days if inhabitants of Rome, and for half that time if strangers. His private enemies, the Colonnas, Frederic of Sicily, who had neglected to pay his tribute, and the abettors of the Saracens, were the only persons excluded. The city was crowded with strangers, who flocked to gain the indulgence; enormous sums were offered at the holy tombs; and the solemnity became so profitable that Clement VI. reduced the period for its observance from 100 years to 50, and later popes have brought it down to 25. Boniface appeared at the jubilee with the spiritual and temporal swords carried before him, the bearers of which proclaimed the text,—'Behold, here are two swords.' . . . The pope had the pleasure of receiving a . . . respectful recognition from the barons of Scotland. Finding themselves hard pressed by the arms of Edward I., they resolved to accept a distant, in preference to a neighbouring, master; accordingly, they tendered the kingdom to the pope, pretending that, from the most ancient times, Scotland had been a fief of the holy Roman See. Boniface, eagerly embracing the offer, commanded the archbishop of Canterbury to require the king to withdraw his troops, and submit his pretensions to the apostolic tribunal. . . . Boniface got no other satisfaction than to be told that the laws of England did not permit the king to subject the rights of his crown to any foreign tribunal. His conflict with the king of France was still more unfortunate. [See also FRANCE: 1285-1314.] Philip the Fair, like . . . Edward I., thought fit to compel the clergy to contribute towards the expenses of his repeated campaigns. The pope thereupon issued a bull entitled 'Clericis laicos' (1296), charging the laity with inveterate hostility to the clergy, and prohibiting, under pain of excommunication, any payment out of ecclesiastical revenues without his consent. [See also BULLS, PAPAL: 1296.] The king retorted by prohibiting the export of coin or treasure from his dominions, without license from the crown. This was cutting off the pope's revenue at a blow, and so modified his anger that he allowed the clergy to grant a 'free benevolence' to the king, when in urgent need. A few years after (1301), Philip imprisoned a bishop on charge of sedition, when Boniface thundered out his bulls 'Salvator mundi,' and 'Ausculta fili,' the first of which suspended all privileges accorded by the Holy See

to the French king and people, and the second, asserting the papal power in the now familiar text from Jeremiah [Jer. i. 10], summoned the superior clergy to Rome. Philip burned the bull, and prohibited the clergy from obeying the summons. The peers and people of France stood by the crown, treating the exhortations of the clergy with defiance. The pope, incensed at this resistance, published the decretal called 'Unam sanctam,' which affirms the unity of the Church, without which there is no salvation, and hence the unity of its head in the successor of St. Peter. Under the pope are two swords, the spiritual and the material—the one to be used by the church, the other for the church. . . . The temporal sword is . . . subject to the spiritual, and the spiritual to God only. The conclusion is, 'that it is absolutely essential to the salvation of every human being that he be subject unto the Roman pontiff.' The king, who showed great moderation, appealed to a general council, and forbade his subjects to obey any orders of Boniface till it should be assembled. The pope

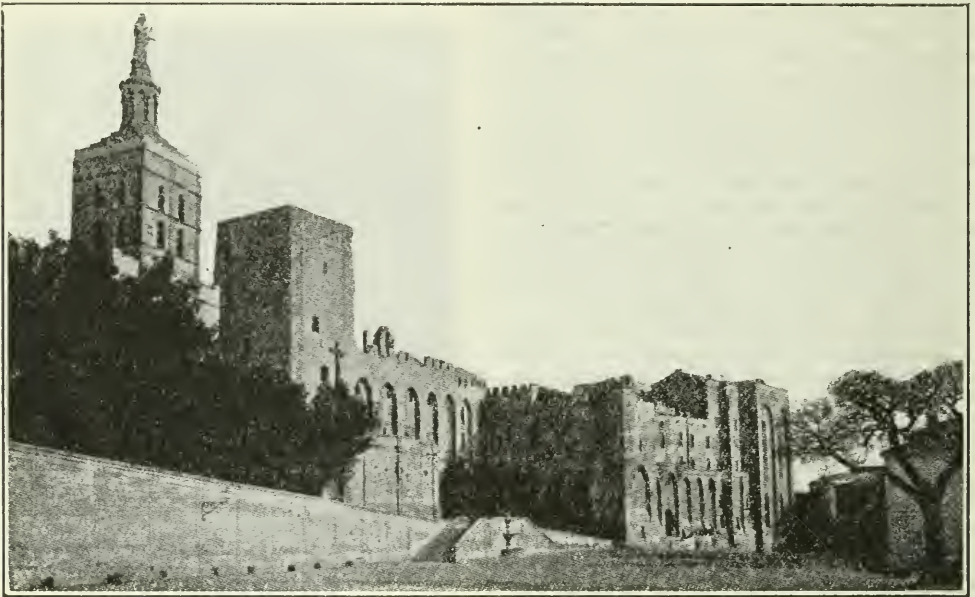


POPE BONIFACE VIII

resorted to the usual weapons. He drew up a bull for the excommunication of the king; offered France to Albert of Austria, king of the Romans, and wrote to the king of England to incite him to prosecute his war. Meantime, Philip having sent William de Nogaret on an embassy to the pope, this daring envoy conceived the design of making him prisoner. Entering Anagni [the pope's native town and frequent residence, forty miles from Rome] at the head of a small force, privately raised in the neighbourhood, the conspirators, aided by some of the papal household, gained possession of the palace and burst into the pope's presence. Boniface, deeming himself a dead man, had put on his pontifical robes and crown, but these had little effect on the irreverent intruders. De Nogaret was one of the Albigenses; his companion, a Colonna, was so inflamed at the sight of his persecutor that he struck him on the face with his mailed hand, and would have killed him but for the intervention of the other. The captors unaccountably delaying to carry off their prize, the people of the place rose and rescued the Holy Father. He hastened back to Rome, but died of the shock a month after, leaving a dangerous

feud between the Church and her eldest son."—G. Trevor, *Rome: From the fall of the Western empire, ch. 9.*—"Boniface has been consigned to infamy by contemporary poets and historians, for the exhibition of some of the most revolting features of the human character. Many of the charges, such as that he did not believe in eternal life; that he was guilty of monstrous heresy; that he was a wizard; and that he asserted that it is no sin to indulge in the most criminal pleasures—are certainly untrue. They are due chiefly to his cruelty to Celestine and the Celestinians, and his severity to the Colonnas, which led the two latter to go everywhere blackening his character. They have been exaggerated by Dante; and they may be ascribed generally to his pride and violence, and to the obstinate determination, formed by a man who 'was born an age too late,' to advance claims then generally becoming unpopular, far surpassing in arrogance those maintained by the most arbi-

of his quarrel against Philip. The archbishop, however, had secretly come to terms with the king, and his first act, as Clement V., was to summon the cardinals to attend him at Lyons, where he resolved to celebrate his coronation. The Sacred College crossed the Alps with undissembled repugnance, and two-and-seventy years elapsed before the Papal court returned to Rome. This period of humiliation and corruption the Italian writers not inaptly stigmatise as the 'Babylonish captivity.' Clement began his pontificate by honourably fulfilling his engagements with the French. He absolved the king and all his subjects. . . . If it be true that the king claimed . . . the condemnation of Boniface as a heretic, Clement had the manliness to refuse. He ventured to inflict a further disappointment by supporting the claim of Henry of Luxembourg to the empire in preference to the French king's brother. To escape the further importunities of his too powerful ally, the pope re-



PAPAL PALACE OF AVIGNON

The seat of the papal court, 1309-1377

trary of his predecessors. . . . This victory of Philip over Boniface was, in fact, the commencement of a wide-spread reaction on the part of the laity against ecclesiastical predominance. The Papacy had first shown its power by a great dramatic act, and its decline was shown in the same manner. The drama of Anagni is to be set against the drama of Canossa."—A. R. Pennington, *Church in Italy, ch. 6.*—"The next pope, Benedict XI., endeavoured to heal the breach by annulling the decrees of Boniface against the French king, and reinstating the Colonnas; but he was cut off by death in ten months from his election [1304], and it was generally suspected that his removal was effected by poison. . . . On the death of Benedict, many of the cardinals were for closing the breach with France by electing a French pope; the others insisted that an Italian was essential to the independence of the Holy See. The difference was compromised by the election of the archbishop of Bordeaux, a Frenchman by birth, but owing his preferments to Boniface, and an active supporter

moved into the dominions of his own vicar, the king of Naples (1309). The place selected was Avignon, belonging to Charles the Lame as count of Provence. . . . In the 6th century, it [Avignon] passed to the kings of Arles, or Burgundy, but afterwards became a free republic, governed by its own consuls, under the suzerainty of the count of Provence. . . . The Neapolitan dynasty, though of French origin, was independent of the French crown, when the pope took up his residence at Avignon. Charles the Lame was soon after succeeded by his third son Robert, who, dying in 1343, left his crown to his granddaughter Joanna, the young and beautiful wife of Andrew, prince of Hungary. . . . In one of her frequent exiles Clement took advantage of her necessities to purchase her rights in Avignon for 80,000 gold florins, but this inadequate price was never paid. The pope placed it to the account of the tribute due to himself from the Neapolitan crown, and having procured a renunciation of the paramount suzerainty of the emperor, he took possession of the city and

territory as absolute sovereign (1348).”—G. Trevor, *Rome: From the fall of the Western empire, ch. 9-10*.

ALSO IN: H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, v. 5, bk. 12.—J. E. Darras, *History of the Catholic church*, period 6, v. 3, ch. 1.

1298-1308.—Conflict of Boniface VIII with Albert of Austria. See GERMANY: 1273-1308.

1305-1377.—Popes of “the Babylonish Captivity” at Avignon.—The following is the succession of the popes during the Avignon period: Boniface VIII, 1294-1303; Benedict XI, 1303-1304; Clement V, 1305-1314; John XXII, 1316-1334; Benedict XII, 1334-1342; Clement VI, 1342-1352; Innocent VI, 1352-1362; Urban V, 1362-1370; Gregory XI, 1371-1378.—“The Avignon Popes without exception, were all more or less dependent upon France. Frenchmen themselves, and surrounded by a College of Cardinals in which the French element predominated, they gave a French character to the government of the Church. This character was at variance with the principle of universality inherent in it and in the Papacy. . . . The migration to France, the creation of a preponderance of French Cardinals, and the consequent election of seven French Popes in succession, necessarily compromised the position of the Papacy in the eyes of the world, creating a suspicion that the highest spiritual power had become the tool of France. This suspicion, though in many cases unfounded, weakened the general confidence in the Head of the Church, and awakened in the other nations a feeling of antagonism to the ecclesiastical authority which had become French. The bonds which united the States of the Church to the Apostolic See were gradually loosened. . . . The dark points of the Avignon period have certainly been greatly exaggerated. The assertion that the Government of the Avignon Popes was wholly ruled by the ‘will and pleasure of the Kings of France,’ is, in this general sense, unjust. The Popes of those days were not all so weak as Clement V., who submitted the draft of the Bull, by which he called on the Princes of Europe to imprison the Templars, to the French King. Moreover, even this Pope, the least independent of the 14th century Pontiffs, for many years offered a passive resistance to the wishes of France, and a writer [Wenck], who has thoroughly studied the period, emphatically asserts that only for a few years of the Pontificate of Clement V. was the idea so long associated with the ‘Babylonian Captivity’ of the Popes fully realized. The extension of this epithet to the whole of the Avignon sojourn is an unfair exaggeration.”—L. Pastor, *History of the popes from the close of the Middle Ages*, v. 1, pp. 58-60.

1306-1393.—Resistance to papal encroachments in England. See ENGLAND: 1306-1393.

1310-1313.—Under French influence. See ITALY: 1310-1313: Visitation of emperor.

1313-1330.—Granting of kingship of Naples to Robert of Sicily.—Clement V. See ITALY: 1313-1330.

1314-1347.—Attempt to settle disputed election of emperor.—Conflict with Louis of Bavaria in Germany and Italy. See GERMANY: 1314-1347; AUSTRIA: 1291-1349.

1347-1354.—Rienzi’s revolution at Rome. See ROME: Medieval city: 1347-1354.

1352-1378.—Subjugation of states of the church and the return from Avignon to Rome.—Revolt and war in Papal States, supported by Florence.—“Under the pontificate of Innocent VI. the advantages reaped by the Papal See from its sojourn at Avignon seemed to have come to an end. The disturbed condition of France no longer

offered them security and repose. . . . Moreover, the state of affairs in Italy called loudly for the Pope’s intervention. . . . The desperate condition of the States of the Church, which had fallen into the hands of small princes, called for energetic measures, unless the Popes were prepared to see them entirely lost to their authority. Innocent VI. sent into Italy a Spanish Cardinal, Gil Albornoz, who had already shown his military skill in fighting against the Moors. The fiery energy of Albornoz was crowned with success, and the smaller nobles were subdued in a series of hard fought battles. In 1367 Urban V. saw the States of the Church once more reduced into obedience to the Pope.” Several motives, accordingly, combined “to urge Urban V., in 1367, to return to Rome amid the cries of his agonised Cardinals, who shuddered to leave the luxury of Avignon for a land which they held to be barbarous. [See ROME: Modern city: 1367-1369.] A brief stay in Rome was sufficient to convince Urban V. that the fears of his Cardinals were not unfounded. . . . After a visit of three years Urban returned to Avignon; his death, which happened three months after his return, was regarded by many as a judgment of God upon his desertion of Rome. Urban V. had returned to Rome because the States of the Church were reduced to obedience: his successor, Gregory XI., was driven to return through dread of losing entirely all hold upon Italy. The French Popes awakened a strong feeling of natural antipathy among their Italian subjects, and their policy was not associated with any of the elements of state life existing in Italy. Their desire to bring the States of the Church immediately under their power involved the destruction of the small dynasties of princes, and the suppression of the democratic liberties of the people. Albornoz had been wise enough to leave the popular governments untouched, and to content himself with bringing the towns under the Papal obedience. But Urban V. and Gregory XI. set up French governors, whose rule was galling and oppressive; and a revolt against them was organised by Florence [1376], who, true to her old traditions, unfurled a banner inscribed only with the word ‘Liberty.’ The movement spread through all the towns in the Papal States, and in a few months the conquests of Albornoz had been lost. The temporal dominion of the Papacy might have been swept away if Florence could have brought about the Italian league which she desired. But Rome hung back from the alliance, and listened to Gregory XI., who promised to return if Rome would remain faithful. The Papal excommunication handed over the Florentines to be the slaves of their captors in every land, and the Kings of England and France did not scruple to use the opportunity offered to their cupidity. Gregory XI. felt that only the Pope’s presence could save Rome for the Papacy. In spite of evil omens—for his horse refused to let him mount when he set out on his journey—Gregory XI. left Avignon; in spite of the entreaties of the Florentines Rome again joyfully welcomed the entry of its Pope in 1377. But the Pope found his position in Italy to be surrounded with difficulties. His troops met with some small successes, but he was practically powerless, and aimed only at settling terms of peace with the Florentines. A congress was called for this purpose, and Gregory XI. was anxiously awaiting its termination that he might return to Avignon, when death seized him, and his last hours were embittered by the thoughts of the crisis that was now inevitable.”—M. Creighton, *History of the papacy during the period of the*

Reformation, introduction, v. 1, ch. 2.—See also FLORENCE: 1375-1378.

ALSO IN: H. E. Napier, *Florentine history, v. 2, bk. 1, ch. 26.*

1369-1378.—Dealings with the Free Company of Sir John Hawkwood.—Wars with Milan, Florence and other states. See ITALY: 1343-1393.

1377-1417.—Election of Urban VI and Clement VII.—Great western schism.—Council of Pisa.—Forty years of popes and anti-popes.—“Gregory XI. returned [to Rome], in January, 1377. The keys of the Castle St. Angelo were sent to him at Corneto; the papal Court was re-established in Rome; but he survived only about a year, and died in March, 1378. Then came the election of a new Pope, which was held in the Castle St. Angelo. While the conclave was sitting, a crowd gathered round the place, crying out, ‘Romano lo volemo’—we will have a Roman for Pope. Yet, notwithstanding this clamour, Cardinal Prignano, Archbishop of Bari, and a Neapolitan by birth, was finally chosen, under the title of Urban VI.—[this being an intended compromise between the Italian party and the French party in the college of cardinals]. When Cardinal Orsini presented himself at the window to announce that a new Pope had been elected, the mob below cried out, ‘His name, his name!’ ‘Go to St. Peter’s and you will learn,’ answered the Cardinal. The people, misunderstanding his answer, supposed him to announce the election of Cardinal Tebaldeschi, who was arch-priest of St. Peter’s, and a Roman by birth. This news was received with great joy and acclamation, [which turned to rage when the fact was known. Then] the people . . . broke into still fiercer cries, rushed to arms, and gathering round the conclave, threatened them with death unless a Roman was elected. But the conclave was strong in its position, and finally the people were pacified, and accepted Urban VI. Such, however, was the fear of the Cardinals, that they were with difficulty persuaded to proceed to the Vatican and perform the ceremonies necessary for the installation of the new Pope. This, however, finally was done, and the Castle was placed in the charge of Pietro Guntellino, a Frenchman, and garrisoned by a Gallic guard, the French Cardinals remaining also within its walls for safety.”—W. W. Story, *Castle of St. Angelo, ch. 5.*—See also CASTLE ST. ANGELO.—“Urban was a learned, pious, and austere man; but, in his zeal for the reformation of manners, the correction of abuses, and the retrenchment of extravagant expenditure, he appears to have been wanting in discretion; for immediately after his election he began to act with harshness to the members of the Sacred College, and he also offended several of the secular princes. Towards the end of June, 12 of the cardinals—11 Frenchmen and one Spaniard—obtained permission to leave Rome, owing to the summer heats, and withdrew to Anagni. Here, in a written instrument, dated 9th August, 1378, they protested against the election, as not having been free, and they called on Urban to resign. A few days later, they removed to Fondi, in the kingdom of Naples, where they were joined by three of the Italians whom they had gained over to their views; and, on the 19th of September, the 15 elected an anti-pope, the French Cardinal Robert of Cevennes [more frequently called Robert of Geneva], who took the name of Clement VII. and reigned at Avignon 16 years, dying September 16, 1394. Thus there were two claimants of the Papal throne—Urban holding his court at Rome, and Clement residing with his followers at Avignon. The latter was

strong in the support of the sovereigns of France, Scotland, Naples, Aragon, Castile, and Savoy; while the remainder of Christendom adhered to Urban. Clement was succeeded by Peter de Luna, the Cardinal of Aragon, who, on his election, assumed the name of Benedict XIII., and reigned at Avignon 23 years—1394-1417. This lamentable state of affairs lasted altogether 40 years. Urban’s successors at Rome, duly elected by the Italian cardinals and those of other nations acting with them, were, Boniface IX., a Neapolitan, 1389-1404; Innocent VII., a native of Sulmona, 1404-1406; Gregory XII., a Venetian, 1406-1409; Alexander V., a native of Candia, who reigned ten months, 1409-1410; and John XXIII., a Neapolitan, 1410-1417. . . . Although the Popes above enumerated, as having reigned at Rome, are now regarded as the legitimate pontiffs, and as such, are inscribed in the Catalogues of Popes, while Clement and Benedict are classed as anti-popes, there prevailed at the time much uncertainty on the subject. . . . In February, 1395, Charles VI. of France convoked an assembly of the clergy of his dominions, under the presidency of Simon Cramaudus, Patriarch of Alexandria, in order, if possible, to terminate the schism. The assembly advised that the rival Pontiffs, Boniface IX. and Benedict XIII., should abdicate. The same view was taken by most of the universities of Europe,” but the persons chiefly concerned would not accept it. Nor was it found possible in 1408 to bring about a conference of the two popes. The cardinals, then, of both parties, withdrew support from the factious pontiffs and held a general meeting at Leghorn. There they agreed that Gregory XII and Benedict XIII had equally lost all claim to obedience, and they resolved to convoke, on their own authority “a General Council, to meet at Pisa, on the 25th of March, 1409. Gregory and Benedict were duly informed thereof, and were requested to attend the council. . . . The Council of Pisa sat from March 25th to August 7th, 1409. There were present 24 cardinals of both ‘obediences,’ 4 patriarchs, 12 archbishops, 80 bishops, 87 abbots; the procurators of 102 absent archbishops and bishops, and of 200 absent abbots; the generals of 4 mendicant orders; the deputies of 13 Universities; . . . the representatives of over 100 cathedral and collegiate chapters, 282 doctors and licentiates of canon and civil law; and the ambassadors of the Kings of England, France, Poland, Bohemia, Portugal, Sicily, and Cyprus.” Both claimants of the papacy were declared unworthy to preside over the church, and forbidden to act as pope. In June, the conclave of cardinals assembled and elected a third pope—one Peter Filargo, a friar minor, who took the name of Alexander V, but who died ten months afterwards. The cardinals then elected as his successor Cardinal Cossa, “a politic worldly man, who assumed the name of John XXIII.” But, meantime, Germany, Naples and some of the other Italian states still adhered to Gregory, and Benedict kept the support of Scotland, Spain and Portugal. The church was as much divided as ever. “The Council of Pisa . . . only aggravated the evil which it laboured to cure. Instead of two, there were now three claimants of the Papal Chair. It was reserved for the General Council of Constance to restore union and peace to the Church.”—J. N. Murphy, *Chair of Peter, ch. 20.*—“The amount of evil wrought by the schism of 1378, the longest known” in the history of the Papacy, can only be estimated, when we reflect that it occurred at a moment, when thorough reform in ecclesiastical affairs was a most urgent need. This was now

utterly out of the question, and, indeed, all evils which had crept into ecclesiastical life were infinitely increased. Respect for the Holy See was also greatly impaired, and the Popes became more than ever dependent on the temporal power, for the schism allowed each Prince to choose which Pope he would acknowledge. In the eyes of the people, the simple fact of a double Papacy must have shaken the authority of the Holy See to its very foundations. It may truly be said that these fifty years of schism prepared the way for the great Apostasy of the 16th century."—L. Pastor, *History of the popes from the close of the Middle Ages*, v. 1, p. 141.—See also ITALY (Southern): 1343-1389.

ALSO IN: A. Neander, *General history of the Christian religion and church*, v. 9, sect. 1.—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, v. 6, bk. 13, ch. 1-5.—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 3, sect. 269-270.—J. C. Robertson, *History of the Christian church*, v. 7, bk. 8, ch. 5.—St. C. Baddeley, *Charles III of Naples and Urban VI*.—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 400-410.

1378-1415.—Rival popes during the great schism.—Urban VI, 1378-1389 (Rome); Clement VII, 1378-1394 (Avignon); Boniface IX, 1389-1404 (Rome); Benedict XIII, 1394-1423 (Avignon); Innocent VII, 1404-1406 (Rome); Gregory XII, 1406-1415 (Rome); Alexander V, 1409-1410 (elected by the council of Pisa); John XXIII, 1410-1415.

1386-1414.—Struggle of Italian popes against Ladislaus of Naples. See ITALY: (Southern): 1386-1414.

1414-1418.—Council of Constance.—Election of Martin V.—Ending of great schism and failure of church reform.—"In April, 1412, the Pope [John XXIII], to preserve appearances, opened at Rome the council which had been agreed upon at Pisa for the reformation of the Church in her Head and members. Quite a small number of bishops put in an appearance, who, after having condemned the antipopes, and some heretical propositions of Wycliffe and John Huss, hastily adjourned. John, who does not seem to have had any very earnest wish to correct his own life, and who, consequently, could not be expected to be over solicitous about the correction of those of others, was carefully provident to prevent the bishops coming to Rome in excessive numbers. He had come to a secret understanding with Ladislaus, [king of Naples] his former enemy, that the latter should have all the roads well guarded. Ladislaus soon turned against the Pope, and forced him to quit Rome, and seek refuge, first at Florence, and next at Bologna (A.D. 1413). From this city John opened communications with the princes of Europe with the purpose of fixing a place for holding the council. . . . The Emperor Sigismund appointed the city of Constance, where the council did, in fact, convene, November 1, A.D. 1414. . . . The abuses which prevailed generally throughout the Church, and which were considerably increased by the existence of three rival Popes, and by the various theories on Church government called forth by the controversy, greatly perplexed men's minds, and created much anxiety as to the direction affairs might eventually take. This unsettled state of feeling accounts for the unusually large number of ecclesiastics who attended the council. There were 18,000 ecclesiastics of all ranks, of whom, when the number was largest, 3 were patriarchs, 24 cardinals, 33 archbishops, close upon 150 bishops, 124 abbots, 50 provosts, and 300 doctors in the various degrees. Many princes attended

in person. There were constantly 100,000 strangers in the city, and, on one occasion, as many as 150,000, among whom were many of a disreputable character. Feeling ran so high that, as might have been anticipated, every measure was extreme. Owing to the peculiar composition of the Council, at which only a limited number of bishops were present, and these chiefly in the interest of John XXIII., it was determined to decide all questions, not by a majority of episcopal suffrages, but by that of the representatives of the various nations, including doctors. The work about to engage the Council was of a threefold character, viz., 1. To terminate the papal schism; 2. To condemn errors against faith, and particularly those of Huss; and 3. To enact reformatory decrees. . . . It was with some difficulty that John could be induced to attend at Constance, and when he did finally consent, it was only because he was forced to take the step by the representations of others. . . . Regarding the Council as a continuation of that of Pisa, he naturally thought that he would be recognized as the legitimate successor of the Pope chosen by the latter. . . . All questions were first discussed by the various nations, each member of which had the right to vote. Their decision was next brought before a general conference of nations, and this result again before the next session of the Council. This plan of organisation destroyed the hopes of John XXIII., who relied for success on the preponderance of Italian prelates and doctors. . . . To intimidate John, and subdue his resistance, a memorial, written probably by an Italian, was put in circulation, containing charges the most damaging to that pontiff's private character. . . . So timely and effective was this blow that John was thenceforth utterly destitute of the energy and consideration necessary to support his authority, or direct the affairs of the Council." In consequence, he sent a declaration to the Council that, in order to give peace to the Church, he would abdicate, provided his two rivals in the Papacy, Gregory XII and Benedict XIII, would also resign. Later, in March, 1415, he repeated this promise under oath. The Emperor, Sigismund, was about to set out to Nizza [Nice] to induce the other claimants to resign, when John's conduct gave rise to a suspicion that he did not intend to act in good faith. He was charged with an intention to escape from the Council, with the assistance of Frederic, Duke of Austria. He now gave his promise under oath not to depart from the city before the Council had dissolved. "But, notwithstanding these protestations, John escaped (March 21, 1415), disguised as a groom, during a great tournament arranged by the duke, and made his way to Schaffhausen, belonging to the latter, thence to Laufenburg and Freiburg, thence again to the fortress of Brisac, whence he had intended to pass to Burgundy, and on to Avignon. That the Council went on with its work after the departure of John, and amid the general perplexity and confusion, was entirely due to the resolution of the emperor, the eloquence of Gerson [of the University of Paris], and the indefatigable efforts of the venerable master, now cardinal, d'Ailly. The following memorable decrees were passed: . . . 'A Pope can neither transfer nor dissolve a general Council without the consent of the latter, and hence the present Council may validly continue its work even after the flight of the Pope. All persons, without distinction of rank, even the Pope himself, are bound by its decisions, in so far as these relate to matters of faith, to the closing of the present schism, and to the reformation of the

Church of God in her Head and members. All Christians, not excepting the Pope, are under obligation to obey the Council.' . . . Pope John, after getting away safe to Schaffhausen, complained formally of the action of the Council towards himself, summoned all the cardinals to appear personally before him within six days, and sent memorials to the King of France [and others], . . . justifying his flight. Still the Council went on with its work; disposed, after a fashion, of the papal difficulty, and of the cases of Huss and Jerome of Prague [whom it condemned and delivered to the civil authorities, to be burned. (See BOHEMIA: 1405-1415.)]. . . In the meantime, Frederic, Margrave of Brandenburg, acting under the joint order of Council and Emperor, arrested the fugitive Pope at Freiburg, and led him a prisoner to Radolfzell, near Constance, where 54 (originally 72) charges—some of them of a most disgraceful character—extracted from the testimony of a host of witnesses, were laid before him by a committee of the Council." He attempted no defense, and on May 29, 1415, John XXIII was formally and solemnly deposed and was kept in confinement for the next three years. In July, Gregory XII was persuaded to resign his papal claims and to accept the dignity of Cardinal Legate of Ancona. Benedict XII, more obstinate, refused to give up his pretensions, though abandoned even by the Spaniards, and was deposed, on July 26th, 1417. "The three claimants to the papacy having been thus disposed of, it now remained to elect a legitimate successor to St. Peter. Previously to proceeding to an election, a decree was passed providing that, in this particular instance, but in no other, six deputies of each nation should be associated with the cardinals in making the choice." It fell upon Otho Colonna, "a cardinal distinguished for his great learning, his purity of life, and gentleness of disposition." In November, 1417, he was anointed and crowned under the name of Martin V. The council was formally closed on the 16th of May following, without having accomplished the work of church reformation which had been part of its intended mission. "Sigismund and the German nation, and for a time the English also, insisted that the question of the reformation of the Church, the chief points of which had been sketched in a schema of 18 articles, should be taken up and disposed of before proceeding to the election of a Pope." But in this they were baffled. "Martin, the newly elected Pope, did not fully carry out all the proposed reforms. It is true, he appointed a committee composed of six cardinals and deputies from each nation, and gave the work into their hands; but their councils were so conflicting that they could neither come to a definite agreement among themselves, nor would they consent to adopt the plan of reform submitted by the Pope."—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 3, sect. 270-271.—"The election of Martin V. might have been a source of unalloyed happiness to Christendom, if he had at once taken the crucial question of Church Reform vigorously in hand; but the Regulations of the Chancery issued soon after his accession showed that little was to be expected from him in this respect. They perpetuated most of the practices in the Roman Court which the Synod had designated as abuses. Neither the isolated measures afterwards substituted for the universal reform so urgently required, nor the Concordats made with Germany, the three Latin nations, and England, sufficed to meet the exigencies of the case, although they produced a certain amount of good. The Pope was indeed placed in a most difficult

position, in the face of the various and opposite demands made upon him, and the tenacious resistance offered by interests now long established to any attempt to bring things back to their former state. The situation was complicated to such a degree that any change might have brought about a revolution. It must also be borne in mind that all the proposed reforms involved a diminution of the Papal revenues; the regular income of the Pope was small and the expenditure was very great. For centuries, complaints of Papal exactions had been made, but no one had thought of securing to the Popes the regular income they required. . . . The delay of the reform, which was dreaded by both clergy and laity, may be explained, though not justified, by the circumstances we have described. It was an unspeakable calamity that ecclesiastical affairs still retained the worldly aspect caused by the Schism, and that the much needed amendment was again deferred."—L. Pastor, *History of the popes, from the close of the Middle Ages*, v. 1, pp. 209-210.

ALSO IN: H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, v. 6, bk. 13, ch. 8-10.—J. C. Robertson, *History of the Christian church*, v. 7, bk. 8, ch. 8. 1419-1434.—Crusades against Hussites. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434.

1431.—Election of Eugenius IV.

1431-1448.—Council of Basel.—Triumph of the pope and defeat, once more, of church reform.—"The Papacy had come forth so little scathed from the perils with which at one time these assemblies menaced it, that a Council was no longer that word of terror which a little before it had been. There was more than one motive for summoning another, if indeed any help was to be found in them. Bohemia, wrapt in the flames of the Hussite War, was scorching her neighbours with fiercer fires than those by which she herself was consumed. The healing of the Greek Schism was not yet confessed to be hopeless, and the time seemed to offer its favourable opportunities. No one could affirm that the restoration of sound discipline, the reformation of the Church in head and in members, had as yet more than begun. And thus, in compliance with the rule laid down at the Council of Constance,—for even at Rome they did not dare as yet openly to set at nought its authority,—Pope Eugenius IV called a third Council together [1431], that namely of Basel. . . . Of those who sincerely mourned over the Church's ills, the most part, after the unhappy experience of the two preceding Councils, had so completely lost all faith in these assemblies that slight regard was at first yielded to the summons; and this Council seemed likely to expire in its cradle as so many had done before, as not a few should do after. The number of Bishops and high Church dignitaries who attended it was never great. A democratic element made itself felt throughout all its deliberations; a certain readiness to resort to measures of a revolutionary violence, such as leaves it impossible to say that it had not itself to blame for much of its ill-success. At the first indeed it displayed unlooked-for capacities for work, entering into important negotiations with the Hussites for their return to the bosom of the Church; till the Pope, alarmed at these tokens of independent activity, did not conceal his ill-will, making all means in his power to dissolve the Council. This, meanwhile, growing in strength and in self-confidence, reaffirmed all of strongest which had been affirmed already at Pisa and Constance, concerning the superiority of Councils over Popes; declared of itself that, as a lawfully assembled Council, it

could neither be dissolved, nor the place of its meeting changed, unless by its own consent; and, having summoned Eugenius and his Cardinals to take their share in its labours, began the work of reformation in earnest. Eugenius yielded for the time; recalled the Bull which had hardly stopped short of anathematizing the Council; and sent his legates to Basel. Before long, however, he and the Council were again at strife; Eugenius complaining, apparently with some reason, that in these reforms one source after another of the income which had hitherto sustained the Papal Court was being dried up, while no other provision was made for the maintenance of its due dignity, or even for the defraying of its necessary expenses. As the quarrel deepened the Pope removed the seat of the Council to Ferrara (Sept. 18, 1437), on the plea that negotiations with the envoys of the Greek Church would be more conveniently conducted in an Italian city; and afterwards to Florence. The Council refused to stir, first suspending (Jan. 24, 1438), then deposing the Pope (July 7, 1439), and electing another, Felix V, in his stead; this Felix being a retired Duke of Savoy, who for some time past had been playing the hermit in a villa on the shores of the lake of Geneva [see SAVOY: 11th-15th centuries]. The Council in this extreme step failed to carry public opinion with it. It was not merely that Eugenius denounced his competitor by the worst names he could think of, declaring him a hypocrite, a wolf in sheep's clothing, a Moloch, a Cerberus, a Golden Calf, a second Mahomet, an anti-Christ; but the Church in general shrank back in alarm at the prospect of another Schism, to last, it might be, for well-nigh another half century. And thus the Council lost ground daily; its members fell away; its confidence in itself departed; and, though it took long in dying, it did in the end die a death of inanition (June 23, 1448). Again the Pope remained master of the situation, the last reforming Council,—for it was the last,—having failed in all which it undertook as completely and as ingloriously as had done the two which went before.”—R. C. Trench, *Lectures on medieval church history*, lecture 20.—“In the year 1438 the Emperor John and the Greek Patriarch made their appearance at the council of Ferrara. In the following year the council was transferred to Florence, where, after long discussions, the Greek emperor, and all the members of the clergy who had attended the council, with the exception of the Bishop of Ephesus, adopted the doctrine of the Roman church concerning the possession of the Holy Ghost, the addition to the Nicene Creed, the nature of purgatory, the condition of the soul after its separation from the body until the day of judgment, the use of unleavened bread in the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, and the papal supremacy. The union of the two churches was solemnly ratified in the magnificent cathedral of Florence on the 6th of July 1439, when the Greeks abjured their ancient faith in a vaster edifice and under a loftier dome than that of their own much-vaunted temple of St. Sophia. The Emperor John derived none of the advantages he had expected from the simulated union of the churches. Pope Eugenius, it is true, supplied him liberally with money, and bore all the expenses both of the Greek court and clergy during their absence from Constantinople; he also presented the emperor with two galleys, and furnished him with a guard of 300 men, well equipped, and paid at the cost of the papal treasury; but his Holiness forgot his promise to send a fleet to defend Constantinople, and none of the Christian princes

showed any disposition to fight the battles of the Greeks, though they took up the cross against the Turks. On his return John found his subjects indignant at the manner in which the honour and doctrines of the Greek church had been sacrificed in an unsuccessful diplomatic speculation. The bishops who had obsequiously signed the articles of union at Florence, now sought popularity by deserting the emperor, and making a parade of their repentance, lamenting their wickedness in falling off for a time from the pure doctrine of the orthodox church. The only permanent result of this abortive attempt at Christian union was to increase the bigotry of the orthodox, and to furnish the Latins with just grounds for condemning the perfidious dealings and bad faith of the Greeks. In both ways it assisted the progress of the Othoman power. The emperor John, seeing public affairs in this hopeless state, became indifferent to the future fate of the empire, and thought only of keeping on good terms with the sultan.”—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 2, sect. 6.—Pope “Eugenius died, February 23, 1447; . . . but his successors were able to secure the fruits of the victory [over the Council of Basel] for a long course of years. The victory was won at a heavy cost, both for the Popes and for Christendom; for the Papacy recovered its ascendancy far more as a political than as a religious power. The Pope became more than ever immersed in the international concerns of Europe, and his policy was a tortuous course of craft and intrigue, which in those days passed for the new art of diplomacy. . . . To revert to a basis of spiritual domination lay beyond the vision of the energetic princes, the refined dilettanti, the dexterous diplomatists, who sat upon the chair of St. Peter during the age succeeding the Council of Basel. Of signs of uneasiness abroad they could not be quite ignorant; but they sought to divert men's minds from the contemplation of so perplexing a problem as Church reform, by creating or fostering new atmospheres of excitement and interest; . . . or at best (if we may adopt the language of their apologists) they took advantage of the literary and artistic movement then active in Italy as a means to establish a higher standard of civilisation which might render organic reform needless.”—R. L. Poole, *Wycliffe and movements for reform*, ch. 12.—See also FRANCE: 1438.

ALSO IN: J. E. Darras, *General history of the Catholic church*, v. 3, 6th period, ch. 4.

1438-1493.—Struggles with German princes. See AUSTRIA: 1438-1493.

1439.—Election of Felix V by the Council of Basel.

1447-1455.—Pontificate of Nicolas V.—Recovery of influence.—Beginning of the Renaissance. See ITALY: 1447-1480.

1451.—Bull of Nicholas V favoring the Jews. See JEWS: Austria-Hungary: 12th-19th centuries.

1455.—Election of Callistus III.

1458.—Election of Pius II.

1463.—Title to African discoveries granted to Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1463-1498.

1464.—Persecution of Podiebrad, king of Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1458-1471.

1464.—Election of Paul II.

1471-1513.—Darkest age of papal crime and vice.—Sixtus IV and the Borgias.—Warrior pontiff, Julius II.—“The impunity with which the Popes escaped the councils held in the early part of the 15th century was well fitted to inspire them with a reckless contempt for public opinion; and from that period down to the Reformation, it would be difficult to parallel among temporal princes the

ambitious, wicked, and profligate lives of many of the Roman Pontiffs. Among these, Francesco della Rovere, who succeeded Paul II with the title of Sixtus IV, was not the least notorious. Born at Savona, of an obscure family, Sixtus raised his nephews, and his sons who passed for nephews, to the highest dignities in Church and State, and sacrificed for their aggrandisement the peace of Italy and the cause of Christendom against the Turks. Of his two nephews, Julian and Leonard della Rovere, the former, afterwards Pope Julius II, was raised to the purple in the second year of his uncle's pontificate." It was this pope—Sixtus IV—who had a part in the infamous "Conspiracy of the Pazzi" to assassinate Lorenzo de' Medici and his brother (see FLORENCE: 1469-1492.) "This successor of St. Peter took a pleasure in beholding the mortal duels of his guards, for which he himself sometimes gave the signal. He was succeeded [1484] by Cardinal Gian Batista Cibò, a Genoese, who assumed the title of Innocent VIII. Innocent



POPE ALEXANDER VI (RODRIGO BORGIA)

was a weak man, without any decided principle. He had seven children, whom he formally acknowledged, but he did not seek to advance them so shamelessly as Sixtus had advanced his 'nephews.' . . . Pope Innocent VIII [who died July 25, 1492] was succeeded by the atrocious Cardinal Roderigo Borgia, a Spaniard of Valencia, where he had at one time exercised the profession of an advocate. After his election he assumed the name of Alexander VI. Of 20 cardinals who entered the conclave, he is said to have bought the suffrages of all but five; and Cardinal Ascanio Sforza, whom he feared as a rival, was propitiated with a present of silver that was a load for four mules. Alexander's election was the signal for flight to those cardinals who had opposed him. . . . Pope Alexander had by the celebrated Vanozza, the wife of a Roman citizen, three sons: John, whom he made Duke of Gandia, in Spain; Cæsar and Geoffrey; and one daughter, Lucretia."—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 1, pp. 105, 108, 175, 177-178.—Under the Borgias, "treasons, assassinations, tortures, open debauchery, the practice of poisoning, the worst and most shameless outrages, are unblushingly and publicly tolerated in the open

light of heaven. In 1490, the Pope's vicar having forbidden clerics and laics to keep concubines, the Pope revoked the decree, 'saying that that was not forbidden, because the life of priests and ecclesiastics was such that hardly one was to be found who did not keep a concubine, or at least who had not a courtesan.' Cæsar Borgia at the capture of Capua 'chose forty of the most beautiful women, whom he kept for himself; and a pretty large number of captives were sold at a low price at Rome.' Under Alexander VI, 'all ecclesiastics, from the greatest to the last, have concubines in the place of wives, and that publicly. If God hinder it not,' adds this historian, 'this corruption will pass to the monks and religious orders, although, to confess the truth, almost all the monasteries of the town have become bawdy-houses, without any one to speak against it.' With respect to Alexander VI., who loved his daughter Lucretia, the reader may find in Burchard the description of the marvellous orgies in which he joined with Lucretia and Cæsar and the enumeration of the prizes which he distributed. Let the reader also read for himself the story of the bestiality of Pietro Luigi Farnese, the Pope's son, how the young and upright Bishop of Fano died from his outrage, and how the Pope, speaking of this crime as 'a youthful levity,' gave him in this secret bull 'the fullest absolution from all the pains which he might have incurred by human incontinence, in whatever shape or with whatever cause.' As to civil security, Bentivoglio caused all the Marescotti to be put to death; Hippolyto d'Este had his brother's eyes put out in his presence; Cæsar Borgia killed his brother; murder is consonant with their public manners, and excites no wonder. A fisherman was asked why he had not informed the governor of the town that he had seen a body thrown into the water; 'he replied that he had seen about a hundred bodies thrown into the water during his lifetime in the same place, and that no one had ever troubled about it.' 'In our town,' says an old historian, 'much murder and pillage was done by day and night, and hardly a day passed but some one was killed.' Cæsar Borgia one day killed Peroso, the Pope's favourite, between his arms and under his cloak, so that the blood spurted up to the Pope's face. He caused his sister's husband to be stabbed and then strangled in open day, on the steps of the palace; count, if you can, his assassinations. Certainly he and his father, by their character, morals, open and systematic wickedness, have presented to Europe the two most successful images of the devil. . . . Despotism, the Inquisition, the Ciccisbei, dense ignorance and open knavery, the shamelessness and the smartness of harlequins and rascals, misery and vermin,—such is the issue of the Italian Renaissance."—H. A. Taine, *History of English literature*, v. 1, pp. 354-355.—"It is certain . . . that the profound horror with which the name of Alexander VI. strikes a modern ear, was not felt among the Italians at the time of his election. The sentiment of hatred with which he was afterwards regarded arose partly from the crimes by which his Pontificate was rendered infamous, partly from the fear which his son Cæsar inspired, and partly from the mysteries of his private life which revolted even the corrupt conscience of the 16th century. 'This sentiment of hatred had grown to universal execration at the time of his death. In course of time, when the attention of the Northern nations had been directed to the iniquities of Rome, and when the glaring discrepancy between Alexander's pretension as a Pope and his conduct as a man had been apprehended, it inspired a legend, which, like all

legends, distorts the facts which it reflects. Alexander was, in truth, a man eminently fitted to close an old age and to inaugurate a new, to demonstrate the paradoxical situation of the Popes by the inexorable logic of his practical impiety, and to fuse two conflicting world-forces in the cynicism of supreme corruption. . . . Alexander was a stronger and a firmer man than his immediate predecessors. 'He combined,' says Guicciardini, 'craft with singular sagacity, a sound judgment with extraordinary powers of persuasion; and to all the grave affairs of life he applied ability and pains beyond belief.' His first care was to reduce Rome to order. The old factions of Colonna and Orsini, which Sixtus had scotched, but which had raised their heads again during the dotage of Innocent, were destroyed in his pontificate. In this way, as Machiavelli observed, he laid the real basis for the temporal power of the Papacy. Alexander, indeed, as a sovereign, achieved for the Papal See what Louis XI. had done for the throne of France, and made Rome on its small scale follow the type of the large European monarchies. . . . Former Pontiffs had raised money by the sale of benefices and indulgences: this, of course, Alexander also practised—to such an extent, indeed, that an epigram gained currency; 'Alexander sells the keys, the altars, Christ. Well, he bought them; so he has a right to sell them.' But he went further and took lessons from Tiberius. Having sold the scarlet to the highest bidder, he used to feed his prelate with rich benefices. When he had fattened him sufficiently, he poisoned him, laid hands upon his hoards, and recommenced the game. . . . Former Popes had preached crusades against the Turk, languidly or energetically according as the coasts of Italy were threatened. Alexander frequently invited Bajazet to enter Europe and relieve him of the princes who opposed his intrigues in the favour of his children. The fraternal feeling which subsisted between the Pope and the Sultan was to some extent dependent on the fate of Prince Djem, a brother of Bajazet and son of the conqueror of Constantinople, who had fled for protection to the Christian powers, and whom the Pope kept prisoner, receiving 40,000 ducats yearly from the Porte for his jail fee. . . . Lucrezia, the only daughter of Alexander by Vannoza, took three husbands in succession, after having been formally betrothed to two Spanish nobles. . . . History has at last done justice to the memory of this woman, whose long yellow hair was so beautiful, and whose character was so colourless. The legend which made her a poison-brewing Mænad, has been proved a lie—but only at the expense of the whole society in which she lived. . . . It seems now clear enough that not hers, but her father's and her brother's, were the atrocities which made her married life in Rome a byword. She sat and smiled through all the tempests which tossed her to and fro, until she found at last a fair port in the Duchy of Ferrara."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: The age of the despots*, ch. 6.—"The ambition of Cæsar Borgia involved the Pope in war again and again. He had . . . married Charlotte d'Albret, and brought the papal policy round to assist the new French king, Louis XII., in his designs on Milan. The Orsini and Colonna at home, as well as Spain and Portugal abroad, threatened Alexander with evil consequences, but Louis XII., entered Milan in triumph through the papal aid. In like manner the same means secured for the French king part of Naples, the rest going to Ferdinand of Spain. Next Cæsar turned to the work of the subjection of the great Roman nobles, and all the power of a Captain General of the

Holy Roman Church was his. The Orsini, the Savelli, the Colonna, were successively attacked and subdued, and their possessions added to the Borgia domains. . . . At last nearly all the States of the Church and the Duchies of Central Italy were either directly or indirectly in the hands of the Borgia house. Further designs were planned, but the summer of 1503 was very unhealthy, and both Alexander and Cæsar fell ill. Cæsar, through his youth and greater strength, eventually rallied, but Alexander succumbed on the 18th of August, 1503. The suspicion of poison is rejected by the best authorities. The aged and infirm but exemplary Cardinal Francesco Piccolomini, nephew of Pius II., was chosen after a sort of deadlock had arisen, and became Pius III. . . . He was only Pope from 22nd September to 18th October, 1503. This time there was little delay and no hesitation in the papal election. Cardinal delle Rovere had practically secured the Tiara before the conclave began. Persuasion, liberal promises and monetary



POPE JULIUS II

bribes, it seems certain, had been used, and after the shortest conclave known, Cardinal Giuliano delle Rovere came forth as Julius II. He had played a great part in the affairs of the Church for many years, and was now an old man. The fiery spirit within, all the same, still burned keen and bright."—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 454-455.—"Whatever opinion may be formed of him considered as the high-priest of the Christian faith, there can be no doubt that Julius II. was one of the greatest figures of the Renaissance, and that his name, instead of that of Leo X., should by right be given to the golden age of letters and of arts in Rome. He stamped the century with the impress of a powerful personality. It is to him we owe the most splendid of Michael Angelo's and Raphael's masterpieces. The Basilica of St. Peter's, that materialized idea, which remains to symbolize the transition from the Church of the Middle Ages to the modern semi-secular supremacy of Papal Rome, was his thought. No nepotism, no loathsome sensuality, no flagrant violation of ecclesiastical justice stain his pontificate. His one purpose was to secure and extend

the temporal authority of the Popes; and this he achieved by curbing the ambition of the Venetians, who threatened to enslave Romagna, by reducing Perugia and Bologna to the Papal sway, by annexing Parma and Piacenza, and by entering on the heritage bequeathed to him by Caesar Borgia. At his death he transmitted to his successors the largest and most solid sovereignty in Italy. But restless, turbid, never happy unless fighting, Julius drowned the peninsula in blood. He has been called a patriot, because from time to time he raised the cry of driving the barbarians from Italy: it must, however, be remembered that it was he, while still Cardinal di San Pietro in Vincoli, who finally moved Charles VIII. from Lyons; it was he who stirred up the League of Cambray [see VENICE: 1508-1509] against Venice, and who invited the Swiss mercenaries into Lombardy [see ITALY: 1510-1513]; in each case adding the weight of the Papal authority to the forces which were enslaving his country. . . . Leo X. succeeded Julius in 1513, to the great relief of the Romans, wearied with the continual warfare of the old 'Pontefice terribile.'—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: The age of despots*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: J. C. Robertson, *History of the Christian church*, v. 8, bk. 9, ch. 5.—M. Creighton, *History of the papacy*, bk. 5, ch. 3-17.—R. Garnett, *Alleged poisoning of Alexander VI. (English Historical Review, Apr., 1894)*.—W. Gilbert, *Lucrezia Borgia*.—P. Villari, *Life and times of Machiavelli*, introduction, v. 1, ch. 4; v. 2-3, bk. 1, ch. 6-14.

1487-1567.—Extension of Inquisition. See INQUISITION: 1487-1567.

1493.—Pope's assumption of authority to give the New World to Spain. See AMERICA: 1493.

1496-1498.—Condemnation of Savonarola. See FLORENCE: 1490-1498.

15th-16th centuries.—Prelude to Reformation movement.—"An increase in pilgrimages first begins to mark a new phase of religious life which was encouraged by the admonitions of preachers of repentance like Capistrano. Like an avalanche did the numbers grow of the pilgrims who streamed together from all parts of Upper and Central Germany, from the foot of the Alps to the Harz Mountains. . . . If that way of striving after righteousness before God, vain and mistaken as it seems to us, may be looked upon as religion, then the last fifty or sixty years before the reformation show an exceptionally high degree of religious feeling, or at least of religious need; a feeling ever increasing through lack of means to satisfy it. With regard to the clergy, indeed, things looked dark enough, especially in North and Central Germany. One does not know which was greater, their lack of knowledge or their lack of morality. . . . That period of history, indeed, might be called a prosperous one by any one regarding merely superficially the condition of social and political affairs. It is well known how German commerce prospered at that time, extending to all parts of the world and ever having new paths opened up for it by the new discoveries. Frenchmen and Italians, astounded at the riches and princely splendor which the commercial magnates in the South German trade-centres were able to display, sang the praises of the prosperity and culture of the land. Industry and commerce were on the increase, and art, realizing its highest aims, found an abiding-place and self-sacrificing patrons in the houses of the citizens. With every year the number of high and low-grade schools on the Rhine and in South Germany increased in number, and were still scarcely able to do justice to the pressing educational needs.

An undercurrent of fresh and joyous creative impulse, full of promise for the future, can be traced among the burghers. But if one regards the age as a whole one sees everywhere not only a threatening, but actually a present decline. The abundant popular literature, more even than the writings of scholars, gives a clear insight into these matters. . . . There is reason to believe that never, even counting the present day, have there been so many beggars as in those decades. It must be borne in mind that, both practically and theoretically, beggary was furthered by the church. Much from her rich table fell into the lap of the poor man, and actually not only was it no shame to beg, but beggary was a vocation like any other. . . . Men did, on the other hand, have the consciousness that the great accumulation of capital in the hands of individuals furthered poverty as it always does. The complaints are general against 'selfishness'; the pauper, the town artisan, the noble and the scholar are remarkably in accord on this one point that deception, usury and cheating are the only explanation of the prosperity of the merchant. When the knight attacked the goods-waggons of the traders he believed that he was only taking what rightfully belonged to himself. The merchants and the rich prelates were responsible to his mind for the deterioration of his own class or estate which can no longer hold its own against the rich civilians. All the more does he oppress his own serfs. Only seldom among the higher classes do we hear a word of pity for the poor man, a word of blame against the fleecing and harassing of the peasants; much oftener bitter scorn and mockery, which nevertheless is founded on fear; for men know well enough in their inmost souls that the peasant is only waiting for a suitable moment in which to strike out and take bloody vengeance, and anxiously do they await the future. Even among the citizens themselves those who were without possessions were filled with hatred against the rich and against those of high degree. The introduction of Roman law, unintelligible to the burgher and peasant, made the feeling of being without law a common one. The more firmly did men pin their faith on that future in which the Last Judgment of God was to come and annihilate priests and lords. Such impressions which were kept vivid by an ever-spreading popular literature, by word of mouth and by pictorial representations, could only be heightened by the state of political affairs in the last decades of the 15th century and the first years of the 16th. . . . With intense interest did men follow the transactions of the diets which promised to better affairs. One plan of taxation followed on the heels of another. What project was left undiscussed for the better carrying out of the Peace of the Land! In the end everything remained as it had been save the want and general discomfort which increased from year to year. Bad harvests and consequent rise in prices, famine, severe sicknesses and plagues are once more the stock chapters in the chronicles. Frightful indeed were the ravages caused by the first, almost epidemic, appearance of the Syphilis; with regard to which, during the whole period of the reformation, the moral judgment wavered. . . . It is a wondrous, gloomy time, torn by contradictions, a time in which all is in a ferment, everything seems to totter. Everything but one institution, the firmly welded edifice of the Roman church. To Germany also came the news of the horrible vices with which the popes just at this time disgraced the Holy See: people knew that no deed was too black for them when it was a

question of satisfying their greed of power and their lust. But nevertheless they remained the successors of Peter and the representatives of Christ, and so little can one speak of a process of dissolution in the church, that the latter appears on the contrary the only stable power and the religious-ecclesiastical idea is rather the one that rules all things. Although men to a great extent scorn and mock her servants and long often with burning hatred for their annihilation, yet it continues always to be the church that holds the keys of the Kingdom of Heaven and that can avert the wrath of God; the church, to which the anxious soul turns as the last anchor of hope and tries to outdo itself in her service. It is not indeed pious reverence for a God who is holy and yet gracious that draws the sinners to their knees, but the dread of the tortures of purgatory and of the wrath of Him who sits above the world to judge it. This causes the soul, restless, dissatisfied, to be ceaseless in its endeavors to conciliate the Angry One through sacrificial service—the whole religious activity being one half-despairing ‘Miserere’ called forth by fear. Such was the spirit of the age in which Martin Luther was born and in which he passed his youth.”—Th. Kolde, *Martin Luther* (tr. from the German), v. 1, pp. 5-27.—See also EUROPE; Middle Ages: Background of the Protestant Reformation; Political background; Renaissance and Reformation: Characteristics of the period; Erasmus and the Reformation; Luther, his motives, etc.; Catholic reformation.

16th century.—Struggle of England with the papacy. See CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 1066-1534; 1534-1563.

1502-1569.—Control of Florentine affairs. See FLORENCE: 1502-1569.

1503 (September).—Election of Pius III.

1503 (October).—Election of Julius II.

1503-1513.—Origin of Swiss guards. See VATICAN: 15th century.

1508-1509.—Pope Julius II and the League of Cambrai against Venice. See VENICE: 1508-1509.

1510-1513.—Holy League against France.—Pseudo-council at Pisa.—Conquests of Julius II.

See ITALY: 1510-1513.

1513.—Election of Leo X.

1515-1518.—Treaty of Leo X with Francis I of France.—Abrogation of Pragmatic Sanction of Charles VII.—Concordat of Bologna.—Destruction of liberties of the Gallican church. See FRANCE: 1515-1518; CONCORDAT: 1515-1801.

1516-1517.—Monetary demands of the court and family of Pope Leo X, and his financial expedients.—Theory of indulgences and their marketability.—“The position which the pope [Leo X], now absolute lord of Florence and master of Siena, occupied, the powerful alliances he had contracted with the other powers of Europe, and the views which his family entertained on the rest of Italy, rendered it absolutely indispensable for him, spite of the prodigality of a government that knew no restraint, to be well supplied with money. He seized every occasion of extracting extraordinary revenues from the church. The Lateran council was induced, immediately before its dissolution (15th of March, 1517), to grant the pope a tenth of all church property throughout Christendom. Three different commissions for the sale of indulgences traversed Germany and the northern states at the same moment. These expedients were, it is true, resorted to under various pretexts. The tenths were, it was said, to be expended in a Turkish war, which was soon to be declared; the produce of indulgences was for the building of St. Peter’s Church, where

the bones of the martyrs lay exposed to the inclemency of the elements. But people had ceased to believe in these pretences. . . . For there was no doubt on the mind of any reasonable man, that all these demands were mere financial speculations. There is no positive proof that the assertion then so generally made—that the proceeds of the sale of indulgences in Germany was destined in part for the pope’s sister Madelena—was true. But the main fact is indisputable, that the ecclesiastical aids were applied to the uses of the pope’s family.”—L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.—“Indulgences, in the earlier ages of the Church, had been a relaxation of penance, or of the discipline imposed by the Church on penitents who had been guilty of mortal sin. The doctrine of penance required that for such sin satisfaction should be superadded to contrition and confession. Then came the custom of commuting these appointed temporal penalties. When Christianity spread among the northern nations, the canonical penances were frequently found to be inapplicable to their condition. The practice of accepting offerings of money in the room of the ordinary forms of penance, harmonized with the penal codes in vogue among the barbarian peoples. At first the priest had only exercised the office of an intercessor. Gradually the simple function of declaring the divine forgiveness to the penitent transformed itself into that of a judge. By Aquinas, the priest is made the instrument of conveying the divine pardon, the vehicle through which the grace of God passes to the penitent. With the jubilees, or pilgrimages to Rome, ordained by the popes, came the plenary indulgences, or the complete remission of all temporal penalties—that is, the penalties still obligatory on the penitent—on the fulfillment of prescribed conditions. These penalties might extend into purgatory, but the indulgence obliterated them all. In the 13th century, Alexander of Hales and Thomas Aquinas set forth the theory of supererogatory merits, or the treasure of merit bestowed upon the Church through Christ and the saints, on which the rulers of the Church might draw for the benefit of the less worthy and more needy. This was something distinct from the power of the keys, the power to grant absolution, which inhered in the priesthood alone. The eternal punishment of mortal sin being remitted or commuted by the absolution of the priest, it was open to the Pope or his agents, by the grant of indulgences, to remit the temporal or terminable penalties that still rested on the head of the transgressor. Thus souls might be delivered forthwith from purgatorial fire. Pope Sixtus IV., in 1477, had officially declared that souls already in purgatory are emancipated ‘per modum suffragii’; that is, the work done in behalf of them operates to effect their release in a way analogous to the efficacy of prayer. Nevertheless, the power that was claimed over the dead, was not practically diminished by this restriction. The business of selling indulgences had grown by the profitability of it. ‘Everywhere,’ says Erasmus, ‘the remission of purgatorial torment is sold; nor is it sold only, but forced upon those who refuse it.’ As managed by Tetzel and the other emissaries sent out to collect money for the building of St. Peter’s Church, the indulgence was a simple bargain, according to which, on the payment of a stipulated sum, the individual received a full discharge from the penalties of sin or procured the release of a soul from the flames of purgatory. The forgiveness of sins was offered in the market for money.”—G. P. Fisher, *Reformation*, ch. 4.—The doctrine con-

cerning indulgences which the Roman Catholic church maintains at the present day is stated by one of its most eminent prelates as follows: "What then is an Indulgence? It is no more than a remission by the Church, in virtue of the keys, or the judicial authority committed to her, of a portion, or the entire, of the temporal punishment due to sin. The infinite merits of Christ form the fund whence this remission is derived: but besides, the Church holds that, by the communion of Saints, penitential works performed by the just, beyond what their own sins might exact, are available to other members of Christ's mystical body; that, for instance, the sufferings of the spotless Mother of God, afflictions such as probably no other human being ever felt in the soul,—the austerities and persecutions of the Baptist, the friend of the Bridegroom, who was sanctified in his mother's womb, and chosen to be an angel before the face of the Christ,—the tortures endured by numberless martyrs, whose lives had been pure from vice and sin,—the prolonged rigours of holy anchorites, who, flying from the temptations and dangers of the world, passed many years in penance and contemplation, all these made consecrated and valid through their union with the merits of Christ's passion,—were not thrown away, but formed a store of meritorious blessings, applicable to the satisfaction of other sinners. It is evident that, if the temporal punishment reserved to sin was anciently believed to be remitted through the penitential acts, which the sinner assumed, any other substitute for them, that the authority imposing or recommending them received as an equivalent, must have been considered by it truly of equal value, and as acceptable before God. And so it must be now. If the duty of exacting such satisfaction devolves upon the Church,—and it must be the same now as it formerly was,—she necessarily possesses at present the same power of substitution, with the same efficacy, and, consequently, with the same effects. And such a substitution is what constitutes all that Catholics understand by the name of an Indulgence. . . . Do I then mean to say, that during the middle ages, and later, no abuse took place in the practise of indulgences? Most certainly not. Flagrant and too frequent abuses, doubtless, occurred through the avarice, and rapacity, and impiety of men; especially when indulgence was granted to the contributors towards charitable or religious foundations, in the erection of which private motives too often mingle. But this I say, that the Church felt and ever tried to remedy the evil. . . . The Council of Trent, by an ample decree, completely reformed the abuses which had subsequently crept in, and had been unfortunately used as a ground for Luther's separation from the Church."—N. Wiseman, *Lectures on the principal doctrines and practices of the Catholic church*, lecture 12.

1517.—Tetzel and the hawking of indulgences through Germany.—"In Germany the people were full of excitement. The Church had opened a vast market on earth. The crowd of customers, and the cries and jests of the sellers, were like a fair—and that, a fair held by monks. The article which they puffed off and offered at the lowest price, was, they said, the salvation of souls. These dealers travelled through the country in a handsome carriage, with three outriders, made a great show, and spent a great deal of money. . . . When the cavalcade was approaching a town, a deputy was dispatched to the magistrate: 'The grace of God and St. Peter is before your gates,' said the envoy; and immediately all the place was in commotion. The clergy, the priests, the nuns, the

council, the schoolmasters, the schoolboys, the trade corporations with their banners, men and women, young and old, went to meet the merchants, bearing lighted torches in their hands, advancing to the sound of music and of all the bells, 'so that,' says a historian, 'they could not have received God Himself in greater state.' The salutations ended, the whole cortège moved towards the church, the Pope's bull of grace being carried in advance on a velvet cushion, or on a cloth of gold. The chief indulgence-merchant followed next, holding in his hand a red wooden cross. In this order the whole procession moved along, with singing, prayers, and incense. The organ pealed, and loud music greeted the hawker monk and those who accompanied him, as they entered the temple. The cross he bore was placed in front of the altar; the Pope's arms were suspended from it. . . . One person especially attracted attention at these sales. It was he who carried the great red cross and played the principal part. He wore the garb of the Dominicans. He had an arrogant bearing and a thundering voice, and he was in full vigour, though he had reached his sixty-third year. This man, the son of a goldsmith of Leipsic, named Dietz, was called John Dietzel, or Tetzel. He had received numerous ecclesiastical honours. He was Bachelor in Theology, prior of the Dominicans, apostolic commissioner and inquisitor, and since the year 1502 he had filled the office of vendor of indulgences. The skill he had acquired soon caused him to be named commissioner-in-chief. . . . The cross having been elevated and the Pope's arms hung upon it, Tetzel ascended the pulpit, and with a confident air began to extol the worth of indulgences, in presence of the crowd whom the ceremony had attracted to the sacred spot. The people listened with open mouths. Here is a specimen of one of his harangues:—'Indulgences,' he said, 'are the most precious and sublime gifts of God. This cross (pointing to the red cross) has as much efficacy as the cross of Jesus Christ itself. Come, and I will give you letters furnished with seals, by which, even the sins that you may have a wish to commit hereafter, shall be all forgiven you. I would not exchange my privileges for those of St. Peter in heaven; for I have saved more souls by my indulgences than the Apostle by his discourses. There is no sin so great, that an indulgence cannot remit it. Repentance is not necessary. But, more than that; indulgences not only save the living, they save the dead also. Priest! noble! merchant! woman! young girl! young man!—hearken to your parents and your friends who are dead, and who cry to you from the depths of the abyss: "We are enduring horrible tortures! A small alms would deliver us. You can give it, and you will not!"' The hearers shuddered at these words pronounced in the formidable voice of the charlatan monk. 'The very instant,' continued Tetzel, 'the piece of money chinks at the bottom of the strong box, the soul is freed from purgatory, and flies to heaven.' . . . Such were the discourses heard by astonished Germany in the days when God was raising up Luther. The sermon ended, the indulgence was considered as 'having solemnly established its throne' in that place. Confessionals were arranged, adorned with the Pope's arms; and the people flocked in crowds to the confessors. They were told, that, in order to obtain the full pardon of all their sins, and to deliver the souls of others from purgatory, it was not necessary for them to have contrition of heart, or to make confession by mouth; only, let them be quick and bring money to the box. Women

and children, poor people, and those who lived on alms, all of them soon found the needful to satisfy the confessor's demands. The confession being over—and it did not require much time—the faithful hurried to the sale, which was conducted by a single monk. His counter stood near the cross. He fixed his sharp eyes upon all who approached him, scrutinized their manners, their bearing, their dress, and demanded a sum proportioned to the appearance of each. Kings, queens, princes, archbishops, bishops, had to pay, according to regulation, twenty-five ducats; abbots, counts, and barons, ten; and so on, or according to the discretion of the commissioner. For particular sins, too, both Tetzel in Germany, and Samson in Switzerland, had a special scale of prices."—J. N. Merle D'Aubigne, *Story of the Reformation*, pt. 1, ch. 6 (or *History of the Refor-*

money, and that the whole thing was a cheat. This his Augustinian theology had taught him, and he was not a man to hold back when he saw what ought to be done. He did see it. On the day [October 31] before the festival of All Saints, on which the relics of the Church were displayed to the crowds of country people who flocked into the town, Luther passed down the long street with a copy of ninety-five theses or Statements [see text below] against indulgences in his hand, and nailed them upon the door of the palace church ready for the festival on the morrow. Also on All Saints' day he read them to the people in the great parish church. It would not have mattered much to Tetzel or the Pope that the Monk of Wittenberg had nailed up his papers on the palace church, had it not been that he was backed by the Elector of Saxony."—F. Seebohm,



ALLEGORY ON LUTHER'S PROTEST AGAINST ABSOLUTION

(After an old engraving in the Royal Library at Berlin)

ation, bk 3, ch. 1).—See also EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Political situation in Luther's time; GERMANY: 1517-1523.

ALSO IN: M. J. Spalding, *History of the Protestant Reformation*, pt. 2, ch. 3.

1517.—Luther's attack upon indulgences.—Ninety-five theses nailed to the Wittenberg church.—Silent support of Elector Frederick of Saxony.—Satisfaction of awakened Germany.—To Wittenberg, "the town in which Luther had been preaching for years . . . [came] Tetzel, the seller of indulgences, . . . just as he did to other towns, vending his 'false pardons'—granting indulgences for sins to those who could pay for them, and offering to release from purgatory the souls of the dead, if any of their friends would pay for their release. As soon as the money chinked in his money-box, the souls of their dead friends would be let out of purgatory. This was the gospel of Tetzel. It made Luther's blood boil. He knew that what the Pope wanted was people's

Era of the Protestant revolution, pt. 2, ch. 3 (c).—

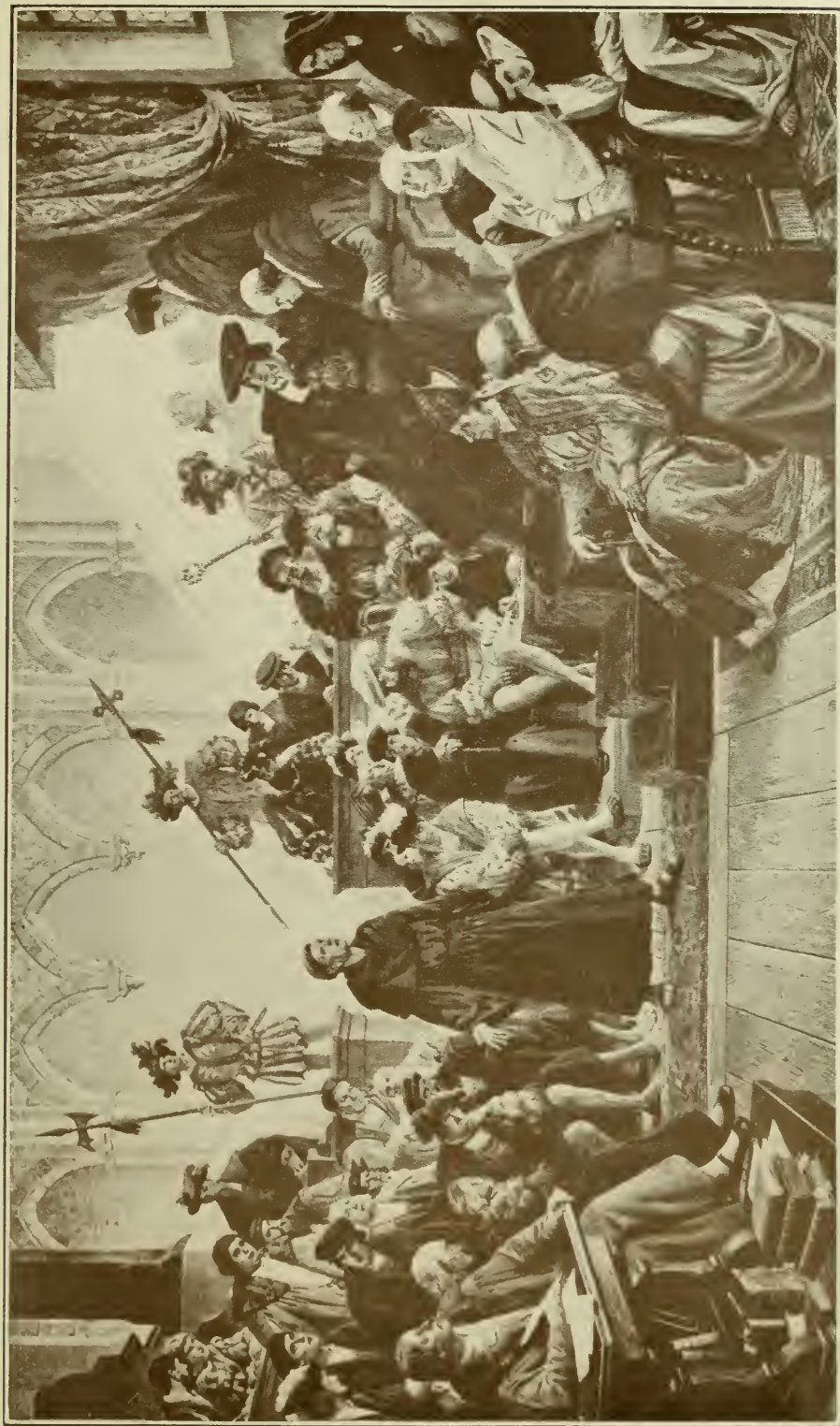
"As the abuse complained of had a double character, religious and political, or financial, so also political events came in aid of the opposition emanating from religious ideas. Frederick of Saxony [on the occasion of an indulgence proclaimed in 1501] . . . had kept the money accruing from it in his own dominions in his possession, with the determination not to part with it, till an expedition against the infidels, which was then contemplated, should be actually undertaken; the pope and, on the pope's concession, the emperor, had demanded it of him in vain: he held it for what it really was—a tax levied on his subjects; and after all the projects of a war against the Turks had come to nothing, he had at length applied the money to his university. Nor was he now inclined to consent to a similar scheme of taxation. . . . The sale of indulgences at Jüterbock and the resort of his subjects thither, was not less offensive to him on financial grounds than to Luther on

spiritual. Not that the latter were in any degree excited by the former; this it would be impossible to maintain after a careful examination of the facts; on the contrary, the spiritual motives were more original, powerful, and independent than the temporal, though these were important, as having their proper source in the general condition of Germany. The point whence the great events arose which were soon to agitate the world, was the coincidence of the two. There was . . . no one who represented the interests of Germany in the matter. There were innumerable persons who saw through the abuse of religion, but no one who dared to call it by its right name and openly to denounce and resist it. But the alliance between the monk of Wittenberg and the sovereign of Saxony was formed; no treaty was negotiated; they had never seen each other; yet they were bound together by an instinctive mutual understanding. The intrepid monk attacked the enemy; the prince did not promise him his aid—he did not even encourage him; he let things take their course. . . . Luther's daring assault was the shock which awakened Germany from her slumber. That a man should arise who had the courage to undertake the perilous struggle, was a source of universal satisfaction, and as it were tranquillised the public conscience. The most powerful interests were involved in it;—that of sincere and profound piety, against the most purely external means of obtaining pardon of sins; that of literature, against fanatical persecutors, of whom Tetzel was one; the renovated theology against the dogmatic learning of the schools, which lent itself to all these abuses; the temporal power against the spiritual, whose usurpations it sought to curb; lastly, the nation against the rapacity of Rome.”—L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.—See also GERMANY: 1517-1523.

ALSO IN: J. Köstlin, *Life of Luther*, pt. 3, ch. 1. —C. Beard, *Martin Luther and the Reformation*, ch. 5.

1517.—Ninety-five theses of Luther.—The following is a translation of the ninety-five theses: “In the desire and with the purpose of elucidating the truth, a disputation will be held on the under-written propositions at Wittenberg, under the presidency of the Reverend Father Martin Luther, Monk of the Order of St. Augustine, Master of Arts and of Sacred Theology, and ordinary Reader of the same in that place. He therefore asks those who cannot be present and discuss the subject with us orally, to do so by letter in their absence. In the name of our Lord, Jesus Christ. Amen. (1) Our Lord and Master Jesus Christ in saying: ‘Repent ye,’ etc., intended that the whole life of believers should be penitence. (2) This word cannot be understood of sacramental penance, that is, of the confession and satisfaction which are performed under the ministry of priests. (3) It does not, however, refer solely to inward penitence; nay such inward penitence is naught, unless it outwardly produces various mortifications of the flesh. (4) The penalty thus continues as long as the hatred of self—that is, true inward penitence—continues; namely, till our entrance into the kingdom of heaven. (5) The Pope has neither the will nor the power to remit any penalties, except those which he has imposed by his own authority, or by that of the canons. (6) The Pope has no power to remit any guilt, except by declaring and warranting it to have been remitted by God; or at most by remitting cases reserved for himself; in which cases, if his power were despised, guilt would certainly remain. (7) God never remits any man's guilt, without at the same time subject-

ing him, humbled in all things, to the authority of his representative the priest. (8) The penitential canons are imposed only on the living, and no burden ought to be imposed on the dying, according to them. (9) Hence the Holy Spirit acting in the Pope does well for us, in that, in his decrees, he always makes exception of the article of death and of necessity. (10) Those priests act wrongly and unlearnedly, who, in the case of the dying, reserve the canonical penances for purgatory. (11) Those tares about changing of the canonical penalty into the penalty of purgatory seem surely to have been sown while the bishops were asleep. (12) Formerly the canonical penalties were imposed not after, but before absolution, as tests of true contrition. (13) The dying pay all penalties by death, and are already dead to the canon laws, and are by right relieved from them. (14) The imperfect soundness or charity of a dying person necessarily brings with it great fear, and the less it is, the greater the fear it brings. (15) This fear and horror is sufficient by itself, to say nothing of other things, to constitute the pains of purgatory, since it is very near to the horror of despair. (16) Hell, purgatory, and heaven appear to differ as despair, almost despair, and peace of mind differ. (17) With souls in purgatory it seems that it must needs be that, as horror diminishes, so charity increases. (18) Nor does it seem to be proved by any reasoning or any scriptures, that they are outside of the state of merit or of the increase of charity. (19) Nor does this appear to be proved, that they are sure and confident of their own blessedness, at least all of them, though we may be very sure of it. (20) Therefore the Pope, when he speaks of the plenary remission of all penalties, does not mean simply of all, but only of those imposed by himself. (21) Thus those preachers of indulgences are in error who say that, by the indulgence of the Pope, a man is loosed and saved from all punishment. (22) For in fact he remits to souls in purgatory no penalty which they would have had to pay in this life according to the canons. (23) If any entire remission of all penalties can be granted to any one, it is certain that it is granted to none but the most perfect, that is, to very few. (24) Hence the greater part of the people must needs be deceived by this indiscriminate and high-sounding promise of release from penalties. (25) Such power as the Pope has over purgatory in general, such has every bishop in his own diocese, and every curate in his own parish, in particular. (26) The Pope acts most rightly in granting remission to souls, not by the power of the keys (which is of no avail in this case) but by the way of suffrage. (27) They preach man, who say that the soul flies out of purgatory as soon as the money thrown into the chest rattles. (28) It is certain that, when the money rattles in the chest, avarice and gain may be increased, but the suffrage of the Church depends on the will of God alone. (29) Who knows whether all the souls in purgatory desire to be redeemed from it, according to the story told of Saints Severinus and Paschal. (30) No man is sure of the reality of his own contrition, much less of the attainment of plenary remission. (31) Rare as is a true penitent, so rare is one who truly buys indulgences—that is to say, most rare. (32) Those who believe that, through letters of pardon, they are made sure of their own salvation, will be eternally damned along with their teachers. (33) We must especially beware of those who say that these pardons from the Pope are that inestimable gift of God by which man is reconciled to God. (34) For the grace conveyed by these pardons has



LUTHER AT THE DIET OF WORMS

(After mural painting of Hermann Wislicenus in the Kaiserhaus at Goslar, Prussia)

respect only to the penalties of sacramental satisfaction, which are of human appointment. (35) They preach no Christian doctrine, who teach that contrition is not necessary for those who buy souls out of purgatory or buy confessional licenses. (36) Every Christian who feels true compunction has of right plenary remission of pain and guilt, even without letters of pardon. (37) Every true Christian, whether living or dead, has a share in all the benefits of Christ and of the Church, given him by God, even without letters of pardon. (38) The remission, however, imparted by the Pope is by no means to be despised, since it is, as I have said, a declaration of the Divine remission. (39) It is a most difficult thing, even for the most learned theologians, to exalt at the same time in the eyes of the people the ample effect of pardons and the necessity of true contrition. (40) True contrition seeks and loves punishment; while the amplex of pardons relaxes it, and causes men to hate it, or at least gives occasion for them to do so. (41) Apostolic pardons ought to be proclaimed with caution, lest the people should falsely suppose that they are placed before other good works of charity. (42) Christians should be taught that it is not the mind of the Pope that the buying of pardons is to be in any way compared to works of mercy. (43) Christians should be taught that he who gives to a poor man, or lends to a needy man, does better than if he bought pardons. (44) Because, by a work of charity, charity increases, and the man becomes better; while, by means of pardons, he does not become better, but only freer from punishment. (45) Christians should be taught that he who sees any one in need, and, passing him by, gives money for pardons, is not purchasing for himself the indulgences of the Pope, but the anger of God. (46) Christians should be taught that, unless they have superfluous wealth, they are bound to keep what is necessary for the use of their own households, and by no means to lavish it on pardons. (47) Christians should be taught that, while they are free to buy pardons, they are not commanded to do so. (48) Christians should be taught that the Pope, in granting pardons, has both more need and more desire that devout prayer should be made for him, than that money should be readily paid. (49) Christians should be taught that the Pope's pardons are useful, if they do not put their trust in them, but most hurtful, if through them they lose the fear of God. (50) Christians should be taught that, if the Pope were acquainted with the exactions of the preachers of pardons, he would prefer that the Basilica of St. Peter should be burnt to ashes, than that it should be built up with the skin, flesh, and bones of his sheep. (51) Christians should be taught that, as it would be the duty, so it would be the wish of the Pope, even to sell, if necessary, the Basilica of St. Peter, and to give of his own money to very many of those from whom the preachers of pardons extract money. (52) Vain is the hope of salvation through letters of pardon, even if a commissary—nay the Pope himself—were to pledge his own soul for them. (53) They are enemies of Christ and of the Pope, who, in order that pardons may be preached, condemn the word of God to utter silence in other churches. (54) Wrong is done to the word of God when, in the same sermon, an equal or longer time is spent on pardons than on it. (55) The mind of the Pope necessarily is that, if pardons, which are a very small matter, are celebrated with single bells, single processions, and single ceremonies, the Gospel, which is a very great matter, should be preached with a

hundred bells, a hundred processions, and a hundred ceremonies. (56) The treasures of the Church, whence the Pope grants indulgences, are neither sufficiently named nor known among the people of Christ. (57) It is clear that they are at least not temporal treasures, for these are not so readily lavished, but only accumulated, by many of the preachers. (58) Nor are they the merits of Christ and of the saints, for these, independently of the Pope, are always working grace to the inner man, and the cross, death, and hell to the outer man. (59) St. Lawrence said that the treasures of the Church are the poor of the Church, but he spoke according to the use of the word in his time. (60) We are not speaking rashly when we say that the keys of the Church, bestowed through the merits of Christ, are that treasure. (61) For it is clear that the power of the Pope is alone sufficient for the remission of penalties and of reserved cases. (62) The true treasure of the Church is the Holy Gospel of the glory and grace of God. (63) This treasure, however, is deservedly most hateful, because it makes the first to be last. (64) While the treasure of indulgences is deservedly most acceptable, because it makes the last to be first. (65) Hence the treasures of the Gospel are nets, wherewith of old they fished for the men of riches. (66) The treasures of indulgences are nets, wherewith they now fish for the riches of men. (67) Those indulgences, which the preachers loudly proclaim to be the greatest graces, are seen to be truly such as regards the promotion of gain. (68) Yet they are in reality in no degree to be compared to the grace of God and the piety of the cross. (69) Bishops and curates are bound to receive the commissaries of apostolic pardons with all reverence. (70) But they are still more bound to see to it with all their eyes, and take heed with all their ears, that these men do not preach their own dreams in place of the Pope's commission. (71) He who speaks against the truth of apostolic pardons, let him be anathema and accursed. (72) But he, on the other hand, who exerts himself against the wantonness and licence of speech of the preachers of pardons, let him be blessed. (73) As the Pope justly thunders against those who use any kind of contrivance to the injury of the traffic in pardons. (74) Much more is it his intention to thunder against those who, under the pretext of pardons, use contrivances to the injury of holy charity and of truth. (75) To think that Papal pardons have such power that they could absolve a man even if—by an impossibility—he had violated the Mother of God, is madness. (76) We affirm on the contrary that Papal pardons cannot take away even the least of venial sins, as regards its guilt. (77) The saying that, even if St. Peter were now Pope, he could grant no greater graces, is blasphemy against St. Peter and the Pope. (78) We affirm on the contrary that both he and any other Pope has greater graces to grant, namely, the Gospel, powers, gifts of healing, etc. (1 Cor. xii. 9). (79) To say that the cross set up among the insignia of the Papal arms is of equal power with the cross of Christ, is blasphemy. (80) Those bishops, curates, and theologians who allow such discourses to have currency among the people, will have to render an account. (81) This licence in the preaching of pardons makes it no easy thing, even for learned men, to protect the reverence due to the Pope against the calumnies, or, at all events, the keen questionings of the laity. (82) As for instance:—Why does not the Pope empty purgatory for the sake of most holy charity and of the supreme necessity of souls—this being the

most just of all reasons—if he redeems an infinite number of souls for the sake of that most fatal thing money, to be spent on building a basilica—this being a very slight reason? (83) Again; why do funeral masses and anniversary masses for the deceased continue, and why does not the Pope return, or permit the withdrawal of the funds bequeathed for this purpose, since 'it is a wrong to pray for those who are already redeemed? (84) Again; what is this new 'kindness of God and the Pope, in that for money's sake, they permit an impious man and an enemy of God to redeem a pious soul which loves God, and yet do not redeem that same pious and beloved soul, out of free charity, on account of its own need? (85) Again; why is it that the penitential canons, long since abrogated and dead in themselves in very fact and not only by usage, are yet still redeemed with money, through the granting of indulgences, as if they were full of life? (86) Again; why does not the Pope, whose riches are at this day more ample than those of the wealthiest of the



POPE LEO X

wealthy, build the one basilica of St. Peter with his own money, rather than with that of poor believers? (87) Again; what does the Pope remit or impart to those who, through perfect contrition, have a right to plenary remission and participation? (88) Again; what greater good would the Church receive if the Pope, instead of once, as he does now, were to bestow these remissions and participations a hundred times a day on any one of the faithful? (89) Since it is the salvation of souls, rather than money, that the Pope seeks by his pardons, why does he suspend the letters and pardons granted long ago, since they are equally efficacious. (90) To repress these scruples and arguments of the laity by force alone, and not to solve them by giving reasons, is to expose the Church and the Pope to the ridicule of their enemies, and to make Christian men unhappy. (91) If then pardons were preached according to the spirit and mind of the Pope, all these questions would be resolved with ease; nay, would not exist. (92) Away then with all those prophets who say to the people of Christ: 'Peace, peace,' and there is no peace. (93) Blessed be all those prophets, who say to the people of Christ: 'The cross, the

cross,' and there is no cross. (94) Christians should be exhorted to strive to follow Christ their head through pains, deaths, and hells. (95) And thus trust to enter heaven through many tribulations, rather than in the security of peace."—H. Wace and C. A. Buchheim, *First principles of the Reformation*, pp. 6-13.

1517-1521.—Favoring circumstances under which the Reformation in Germany gained ground.—Bull "Exurge Domine."—Excommunication of Luther.—Imperial summons from Worms.—"It was fortunate for Luther's cause that he lived under a prince like the Elector of Saxony. Frederick, indeed, was a devout catholic. . . . His attention, however, was now entirely engrossed by his new university, and he was unwilling to offer up to men like Tetzel so great an ornament of it as Dr. Martin Luther, since whose appointment at Wittenberg the number of students had so wonderfully increased as to throw the universities of Erfurt and Leipsic quite into the shade. . . . As one of the principal Electors he was completely master in his own dominions; and indeed throughout Germany he was as much respected as the Emperor; and Maximilian, besides his limited power, was deterred by his political views from taking any notice of the quarrel. Luther had thus full liberty to prepare the great movement that was to ensue. . . . The contempt entertained by Pope Leo X. for the whole affair was also favourable to Luther; for Frederick might not at first have been inclined to defend him against the Court of Rome. . . . The Court of Rome at length became more sensible of the importance of Luther's innovations and in August 1518, he was commanded either to recant, or to appear and answer for his opinions at Rome, where Silvester Prierias and the bishop Ghenucci di Arcoli had been appointed his judges. Luther had not as yet dreamt of throwing off his allegiance to the Roman See. In the preceding May he had addressed a letter to the Pope himself, stating his views in a firm but modest and respectful tone, and declaring that he could not retract them. The Elector Frederick, at the instance of the university of Wittenberg, which trembled for the life of its bold and distinguished professor, prohibited Luther's journey to Rome, and expressed his opinion that the question should be decided in Germany by impartial judges. Leo consented to send a legate to Augsburg to determine the cause, and selected for that purpose Cardinal Thomas di Vio, better known by the name of Cajetan, derived from his native city of Gaeta. . . . Luther set out for Augsburg on foot provided with several letters of recommendation from the Elector, and a safe conduct from the Emperor Maximilian. . . . Luther appeared before the cardinal for the first time, October 12th, at whose feet he fell; but it was soon apparent that no agreement could be expected. . . . Cajetan, who had at first behaved with great moderation and politeness, grew warm, demanded an unconditional retraction, forbade Luther again to appear before him till he was prepared to make it, and threatened him with the censures of the Church. The fate of Huss stared Luther in the face, and he determined to fly. His patron Staupitz procured him a horse, and on the 20th of October, Langemantel, a magistrate of Augsburg, caused a postern in the walls to be opened for him before day had well dawned. . . . Cajetan now wrote to the Elector Frederick complaining of Luther's refractory departure from Augsburg, and requiring either that he should be sent to Rome or at least be banished from Saxony. . . . So uncertain were Luther's prospects

that he made preparations for his departure. . . . At length, just on the eve of his departure, he received an intimation from Frederick that he might remain at Wittenberg. Before the close of the year he gained a fresh accession of strength by the arrival of Melancthon, a pupil of Reuchlin, who had obtained the appointment of Professor of Greek in the university. Frederick offered a fresh disputation at Wittenberg; but Leo X. adopted a course more consonant with the pretensions of an infallible Church by issuing a Bull dated November 9th 1518, which, without adverting to Luther or his opinions, explained and enforced the received doctrine of indulgences. It failed, however, to produce the desired effect. . . . Leo now tried the effects of seduction. Carl Von Miltitz, a Saxon nobleman, canon of Mentz, Trèves, and Meissen, . . . was despatched to the Elector Frederick with the present of a golden rose, and with instructions to put an end, as best he might, to the Lutheran schism. On his way through Germany, Miltitz soon perceived that three fourths of the people were in Luther's favour; nor was his reception at the Saxon Court of a nature to afford much encouragement. . . . Miltitz saw the necessity for conciliation. Having obtained an interview with Luther at Altenburg, Miltitz persuaded him to promise that he would be silent, provided a like restraint were placed upon his adversaries. . . . Luther was even induced to address a letter to the Pope, dated from Altenburg, March 3rd 1519, in which, in humble terms, he expressed his regret that his motives should have been misinterpreted, and solemnly declared that he did not mean to dispute the power and authority of the Pope and the Church of Rome, which he considered superior to everything except Jesus Christ alone. . . . The truce effected by Miltitz lasted only a few months. It was broken by a disputation to which Dr. Eck challenged Bodenstein, a Leipsic professor, better known by the name of Carlstadt. . . . The Leipsic disputation was preceded and followed by a host of controversies. The whole mind of Germany was in motion, and it was no longer with Luther alone that Rome had to contend. All the celebrated names in art and literature sided with the Reformation; Erasmus, Ulrich von Hutten, Melancthon, Lucas Cranach, Albert Dürer, and others. Hans Sachs, the Meistersänger of Nuremberg, composed in his honour the pretty song called 'the Wittenberg Nightingale.' Silvester von Schaumburg and Franz von Sickingen invited Luther to their castles, in case he were driven from Saxony; and Schaumburg declared that 100 more Franconian knights were ready to protect him. . . . The Elector Frederick became daily more convinced that his doctrines were founded in Scripture. . . . Meanwhile, Luther had made great strides in his opinions since the publication of his Theses. . . . He had begun to impugn many of the principles of the Romish church; and so far from any longer recognising the paramount authority of the Pope, or even of a general council, he was now disposed to submit to no rule but the Bible. The more timid spirits were alarmed at his boldness, and even Frederick himself exhorted him to moderation. It must be acknowledged, indeed, that Luther sometimes damaged his cause by the intemperance of his language; an instance of which is afforded by the remarkable letter he addressed to Leo X., April 6th 1520, as a dedication to his treatise 'De Libertate Christiana.' . . . The letter just alluded to was, perhaps, the immediate cause of the famous Bull, 'Exurge Domine,' which Leo fulminated against Luther, June 15th 1520. The Bull, which is con-

ceived in mild terms, condemned forty-one propositions extracted from Luther's works, allowed him sixty days to recant, invited him to Rome, if he pleased to come, under a safe conduct, and required him to cease from preaching and writing, and to burn his published treatises. If he did not conform within the above period, he was condemned as a notorious and irreclaimable heretic; all princes and magistrates were required to seize him and his adherents, and to send them to Rome; and all places that gave them shelter were threatened with an interdict. The Bull was forwarded to Archbishop Albert of Mentz; but in North Germany great difficulty was found in publishing it. . . . On December 10th Luther consummated his rebellion by taking that final step which rendered it impossible for him to recede. On the banks of the Elbe before the Elster Gate of Wittenberg, . . . Luther, in the presence of a large body of professors and students, solemnly committed with his own hands to the flames the Bull by which he had been condemned, together with the code of the canon law, and the writings of Eck and Emser, his opponents. . . . On January 3rd 1521, Luther and his followers were solemnly excommunicated by Leo with bell, book, and candle, and an image of him, together with his writings, was committed to the flames. . . . At the Diet of Worms which was held soon after, the Emperor [Charles V, who succeeded Maximilian in 1519] having ordered that Luther's books should be delivered up to the magistrates to be burnt, the States represented to him the uselessness and impolicy of such a step, pointing out that the doctrines of Luther had already sunk deep into the hearts of the people; and they recommended that he should be summoned to Worms and interrogated whether he would recant without any disputation. . . . In compliance with the advice of the States, the Emperor issued a mandate, dated March 6th 1521, summoning Luther to appear at Worms within twenty-one days. It was accompanied with a safe conduct."—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 3.—"At Rome the trouble in Germany was one of the main subjects that engaged the attention of the Curia. It was felt that the time had come when decisive measures must be taken. After long and anxious deliberations Leo X. published the Bull, *Exurge Domine* (June 1520), in which forty propositions taken from Luther's writings were condemned, his works were ordered to be burned, the full penalties of excommunication were proclaimed against him unless he withdrew his errors and made his submission within sixty days, while his aiders and abettors were besought in the most touching terms to abandon the dangerous path into which they had been betrayed. Had such a pronouncement been issued at the beginning of the movement it might have done much to restore peace to the Church, but, coming as it did at a time when Luther's movement, backed by all the revolutionary forces of Germany, had already acquired considerable dimensions, it failed to put an end to the tumult. Besides, the papal decision was deprived of much of its force by the fact that Eck, Caraccioli, and Aleandro were appointed as a commission to superintend its execution. The appointment of Eck was a great tactical blunder, as it afforded Luther and his friends an opportunity of proclaiming that the sentence of excommunication was procured by the intrigues and misrepresentations of their personal enemies; while the fact that the German bishops were disregarded in the execution of the Bull as if they were not above suspicion themselves, was looked upon by

many as a studied insult to the entire German hierarchy. Even though Luther had entertained any thoughts of submission, the triumph of Eck would have created very serious obstacles, but, knowing as he did, that even at the worst he could reckon upon the support of a certain number of the discontented nobles who had pledged themselves to put their swords at his disposal, he had no intention of making his submission. The reception accorded to the papal document varied according to the views of the local authorities and the state of public feeling in the different cities and provinces. Thus, while its publication was welcomed in Cologne, Mainz, Halberstadt, and Freising, it was received with very mixed feelings at Leipzig and at Eriurt. Frederick of Saxony, to whom Leo X. had addressed a personal appeal, refused to abandon Luther's cause unless it were proved from the Scriptures that he was wrong. He did, indeed, suggest that Luther should write a respectful letter to the Pope, but his suggestion passed unheeded. At first Luther pretended that the Bull was a forgery brought forward by Eck to discredit him, but when this line of defence proved useless, he boldly attacked the papal pronouncement in his pamphlet, *Against the Bull of Anti-Christ*, in which he denounced Leo X. as a heretic and apostate, an enemy of the Holy Scriptures, a tyrant, and a calumniator. Lest, however, the courage of his supporters might be overcome by the terrors of excommunication, he issued an appeal from the sentence of the Pope to the judgment of a future General Council. Finally, on the 10th December, 1520, in the presence of an immense concourse of the citizens and students of Wittenberg, he burned publicly the papal Bull and the writings of his principal opponents. On this occasion he proclaimed his intention of overthrowing the ecclesiastical organisation, and of introducing a new theological system."—J. McCaffrey, *History of the Catholic church*, v. 1, pp. 73-75.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 1, bk. 2.—P. Bayne, *Martin Luther: His life and work*, v. 1-2, bk. 5, ch. 3, bk. 8, ch. 6.—J. E. Darras, *History of the church*, seventh period, v. 4, ch. 1.—P. Schaff, *History of the Christian church*, v. 6, ch. 4.

1519-1524.—Sale of indulgences in Switzerland.—Beginning of the Reformation under Zwingli.—Near the close of the year 1518, Ulric Zwingli, or Zwingli, or Zuinglius, already much respected for his zealous piety and his learning, "was appointed preacher in the collegiate church at Zurich. The crisis of his appearance on this scene was so extraordinary as to indicate to every devout mind a providential dispensation, designed to raise up a second instrument in the work of reformation, and that, almost by the same means which had been employed to produce the first. One Bernhard Samson, or Sanson, a native of Milan, and a Franciscan monk, selected this moment to open a sale of indulgences at Zurich. He was the Tetzel of Switzerland. He preached through many of its provinces, exercising the same trade, with the same blasphemous pretensions and the same clamorous effrontery; and in a land of greater political freedom his impostures excited even a deeper and more general disgust. . . . He encountered no opposition till he arrived at Zurich. But here appears a circumstance which throws a shade of distinction between the almost parallel histories of Samson and Tetzel. The latter observed in his ministration all the necessary ecclesiastical forms; the former omitted to present his credentials to the bishop of the diocese, and acted

solely on the authority of the pontifical bulls. Hugo, Bishop of Constance, was offended at this disrespectful temerity, and immediately directed Zwingli and the other pastors to exclude the stranger from their churches. The first who had occasion to show obedience to this mandate was John Frey, minister of Stauffberg. Bullinger, Dean of Bremgarten, was the second. From Bremgarten, after a severe altercation which ended by the excommunication of that dignitary, Samson proceeded to Zurich. Meanwhile Zwingli had been engaged for about two months in rousing the indignation of the people against the same object; and so successfully did he support the instruction of the Bishop, and such efficacy was added to his eloquence by the personal unpopularity of Samson, that the senate determined not so much as to admit him within the gates of the city. A deputation of honour was appointed to welcome the pontifical legate without the walls. He was then commanded to absolve the Dean from the sentence launched against him, and to depart from the canton. He obeyed, and presently turned his steps towards Italy and repassed the mountains. This took place at the end of February, 1519. The Zurichers immediately addressed a strong remonstrance to the Pope, in which they denounced the misconduct of his agent. Leo replied, on the last of April, with characteristic mildness; for though he maintained, as might be expected, the Pope's authority to grant those indulgences, . . . yet he accorded the prayer of the petition so far as to recall the preacher, and to promise his punishment, should he be convicted of having exceeded his commission. . . . But Zwingli's views were not such as long to be approved by an episcopal reformer in that [the Roman] church. . . . He began to invite the Bishop, both by public and private solicitations, with perfect respect but great earnestness, to give his adhesion to the evangelical truth . . . and to permit the free preaching of the gospel throughout his diocese. . . . From the beginning of his preaching at Zurich it was his twofold object to instruct the people in the meaning, design, and character of the scriptural writings; and at the same time to teach them to seek their religion only there. His very first proceeding was to substitute the gospel of St. Matthew, as the textbook of his discourses, for the scraps of Scripture exclusively treated by the papal preachers; and he pursued this purpose by next illustrating the Acts of the Apostles, and the epistles of Paul and Peter. He considered the doctrine of justification by faith as the corner-stone of Christianity, and he strove to draw away his hearers from the gross observances of a pharasaical church to a more spiritual conception of the covenant of their redemption. . . . His success was so considerable, that at the end of 1519 he numbered as many as 2,000 disciples; and his influence so powerful among the chiefs of the commonwealth, that he procured, in the following year, an official decree to the effect: That all pastors and ministers should thenceforward reject the unfaithful devices and ordinances of men, and teach with freedom such doctrines only as rested on the authority of the prophecies, gospels, and apostolical epistles."—G. Waddington, *History of the Reformation*, v. 2, ch. 27.—"With unflagging zeal and courage Zwingli followed his ideal in politics, viz., to rear a republic on the type of the Greek free states of old, with perfect national independence. Thanks to his influence Zurich in 1521 abolished 'Reislaufen,' and the system of foreign pay [mercenary military service]. This step, however, brought down on the head of Zurich the wrath of the twelve sister

republics, which had just signed a military contract with Francis I. . . . It was only in 1522 that he began to launch pamphlets against the abuses in the Church—fasting, celibacy of the clergy and the like. On the 29th of January, 1523, Zwingli obtained from the Council of Zurich the opening of a public religious discussion in presence of the whole of the clergy of the canton, and representatives of the Bishop of Constance, whose assistance in the debate the Council had invited. In 67 theses, remarkable for their penetration and clearness, he sketched out his confession of faith and plan of reform. . . . On the 25th of October, 1523, a second discussion initiated the practical consequences of the reformed doctrine—the abrogation of the mass and image worship. Zwingli's system was virtually that of Calvin, but was conceived in a broader spirit, and carried out later on in a far milder manner by Bullinger. . . . The Council gave the fullest approval to the Reformation. In 1524 Zwingli married Anne Reinhard, the widow of a Zurich nobleman (Meyer von Knonau), and so discarded the practice of celibacy obtaining amongst priests. . . . In 1524 Zwingli began to effect the most sweeping changes with the view of overthrowing the whole fabric of mediæval superstition. In the direction of reform he went far beyond Luther, who had retained oral confession, altar pictures, &c. The introduction of his reforms in Zurich called forth but little opposition. True, there were the risings of the Anabaptists, but these were the same everywhere. . . . Pictures and images were removed from the churches, under government direction. . . . At the Landgemeinden [parish gatherings] called for the purpose, the people gave an enthusiastic assent to his doctrines, and declared themselves ready 'to die for the gospel truth.' Thus a national Church was established, severed from the diocese of Constance, and placed under the control of the Council of Zurich and a clerical synod. The convents were turned into schools, hospitals, and poorhouses."—Mrs. L. Hug and R. Stead, *Switzerland*, ch. 22.—See also EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Genevan reformers.

ALSO IN: H. Stebbing, *History of the Reformation*, v. 1, ch. 7.—C. Beard, *Reformation (Hibbert Lectures, 1883, lecture 7)*.—J. H. Merle D'Aubigné, *History of the Reformation*, v. 2-3, bk. 8, 11.—M. J. Spalding, *History of the Protestant Reformation*, pt. 2, ch. 5.—P. Schaff, *History of the Christian church*, v. 7, ch. 1-3.

1521-1522.—Luther before the Diet at Worms.—Friendly abduction and concealment at Wartburg.—Translation of the Bible.—"The Diet met in January 1521, but despite the efforts of Aleandro the majority of the princes still failed to realise the gravity of the situation. Feeling against Rome was running very high in Germany at the time. Many of the princes insisted on presenting a document embodying the grievances of Germany (*Centum Gravamina*) to the papal ambassador, while even such an orthodox supporter of the Church as Duke George of Saxony, brought forward very serious complaints against the clergy, accompanied by a demand that a General Council should be summoned to restore peace to the Church."—J. McCaffrey, *History of the Catholic church*, v. 1, p. 76.—"On the 2nd of April [1521], the Tuesday after Easter, Luther set out on his momentous journey. He travelled in a cart with three of his friends, the herald riding in front in his coat of arms. . . . The Emperor had not waited for his appearance to order his books to be burnt. When he reached Erfurt on the way the sentence had just been proclaimed. The herald

asked him if he still meant to go on. 'I will go,' he said, 'if there are as many devils in Worms as there are tiles upon the house-tops. Though they burnt Huss, they could not burn the truth.' The Erfurt students, in retaliation, had thrown the Bull into the water. The Rector and the heads of the university gave Luther a formal reception as an old and honoured member; he preached at his old convent, and he preached again at Gotha and at Eisenach. Caietan had protested against the appearance in the Diet of an excommunicated heretic. The Pope himself had desired that the safe conduct should not be respected, and the bishops had said that it was unnecessary. Manœuvres were used to delay him on the road till the time allowed had expired. But there was a fierce sense of fairness in the lay members of the Diet, which it was dangerous to outrage. Franz von Sickingen hinted that if there was foul play it might go hard with Cardinal Caietan—and Von Sickingen was a man of his word in such matters. On the 16th of April, at ten in the morning, the cart entered Worms, bringing Luther in his monk's dress, followed and attended by a crowd of cavaliers. The town's people were all out to see the person with whose name Germany was ringing. As the cart passed through the gates the warder on the walls blew a blast upon his trumpet. . . . Luther needed God to stand by him, for in all that great gathering he could count on few assured friends. The princes of the empire were resolved that he should have fair play, but they were little inclined to favour further a disturber of the public peace. The Diet sate in the Bishop's palace, and the next evening Luther appeared. The presence in which he found himself would have tried the nerves of the bravest of men: the Emperor, sternly hostile, with his retinue of Spanish priests and nobles; the archbishops and bishops, all of opinion that the stake was the only fitting place for so insolent a heretic; the dukes and barons, whose stern eyes were little likely to reveal their sympathy, if sympathy any of them felt. One of them only, George of Frundsberg, had touched Luther on the shoulder as he passed through the ante-room. 'Little monk, little monk,' he said, 'thou hast work before thee, that I, and many a man whose trade is war, never faced the like of. If thy heart is right, and thy cause good, go on in God's name. He will not forsake thee.' A pile of books stood on a table when he was brought forward. An officer of the court read the titles, asked if he acknowledged them, and whether he was ready to retract them. Luther was nervous, not without cause. He answered in a low voice that the books were his. To the other question he could not reply at once. He demanded time. His first appearance had not left a favourable impression; he was allowed a night to consider. The next morning, April 18, he had recovered himself; he came in fresh, courageous, and collected. His old enemy, Eck, was this time the spokesman against him, and asked what he was prepared to do. He said firmly that his writings were of three kinds: some on simple Gospel truth, which all admitted, and which of course he could not retract; some against Papal laws and customs, which had tried the consciences of Christians and had been used as excuses to oppress and spoil the German people. If he retracted these he would cover himself with shame. In a third sort he had attacked particular persons, and perhaps had been too violent. Even here he declined to retract simply, but would admit his fault if fault could be proved. He gave his answers in a clear strong voice, in Latin first, and

then in German. There was a pause, and then Eck said that he had spoken disrespectfully; his heresies had been already condemned at the Council at Constance; let him retract on these special points, and he should have consideration for the rest. He required a plain Yes or No from him, 'without horns.' The taunt roused Luther's blood. His full brave self was in his reply. 'I will give you an answer,' he said, 'which has neither horns nor teeth. Popes have erred and councils have erred. Prove to me out of Scripture that I am wrong, and I submit. Till then my conscience binds me. Here I stand. I can do no more. God help me. Amen.' All day long the storm raged. Night had fallen, and torches were lighted in the hall before the sitting closed. Luther was dismissed at last. . . . When he had reached his lodging again, he flung up his hands. 'I am through!' he cried. 'I am through! If I had a thousand heads they should be struck off one by one before I would retract.' The same evening the Elector Frederick sent for him, and told him he had done well and bravely. But though he had escaped so far, he was not acquitted. Charles conceived that he could be now dealt with as an obstinate heretic. At the next session (the day following), he informed the Diet that he would send Luther home to Wittenberg, there to be punished as the Church required. The utmost that his friends could obtain was that further efforts should be made. The Archbishop of Treves was allowed to tell him that if he would acknowledge the infallibility of councils, he might be permitted to doubt the infallibility of the Pope. But Luther stood simply upon Scripture. There, and there only, was infallibility. The Elector ordered him home at once, till the Diet should decide upon his fate."—J. A. Froude, *Luther: A short biography*, p. 28.—"He [Luther] refused to retract his opinions, and made it clear that he acknowledged no longer the authority of the Pope or of General Councils as a safe guide in matters religious. Thereupon the Emperor intimated to the princes that he was determined to take vigorous action against such a heretic and disturber of the public peace, though at the request of some of the princes he allowed time for private conferences between Luther and representative Catholic theologians, notably Eck and Cochlaeus. These conferences having failed to produce any result the Emperor issued an order (25th April) commanding Luther to depart from Worms without delay, and forbidding him to preach to the people on his journey under pain of forfeiting his safe conduct. A month later Charles V. published a decree placing Luther under the ban of the Empire. He was denounced as a public heretic whom no one should receive or support; he was to be seized by any one who could do so, and delivered to the Emperor; his writings were to be burned, and all persons proved guilty of countenancing himself or his errors were liable to severe punishment. Many hoped that the decree might put an end to the confusion, but in reality Charles V. was powerless to enforce it, especially as the majority of the princes were unwilling to carry out its terms in their territories. Hence, outside the hereditary dominions of the House of Habsburg, the lands of Joachim I. of Brandenburg and of Duke George of Saxony, and in Bavaria, it remained a dead letter."—J. McCaffrey, *History of the Catholic church*, v. 1, pp. 76-77.—"It was decided [by Luther's friends] that he should disappear, and disappear so completely that no trace of him should be discernible. On his way back through the Thuringian Forest, three or four miles from Alten-

stein, a party of armed men started out of the wood, set upon his carriage, seized and carried him off to Wartburg Castle. There he remained, passing by the name of the Ritter George, and supposed to be some captive knight. The secret was so well kept, that even the Elector's brother was ignorant of his hiding place. Luther was as completely lost as if the earth had swallowed him. . . . The revolution, deprived of its leader, ran wild meanwhile. An account of the scene at Worms, with Luther's speeches, and wood cut illustrations, was printed on broadsheets and circulated in hundreds of thousands of copies. The people were like schoolboys left without a master. Convents and monasteries dissolved by themselves; monks and nuns began to marry; there was nothing else for the nuns to do, turned as they were adrift without provision. The Mass in most of the churches in Saxony was changed into a Communion. But without Luther it was all chaos, and no order could be taken. So great was the need of him, that in December he went to Wittenberg in disguise; but it was not yet safe for him to remain there. He had to retreat to his castle again, and in that compelled retreat he bestowed on Germany the greatest of all the gifts which he was able to offer. He began to translate the Bible into clear vernacular German. . . . He had probably commenced the work at the beginning of his stay at the castle. In the spring of 1522 the New Testament was completed. In the middle of March, the Emperor's hands now being fully occupied, the Elector sent him word that he need not conceal himself any longer; and he returned finally to his home and his friends. The New Testament was printed in November of that year, and became at once a household book in Germany. . . . The Old Testament was taken in hand at once, and in two years half of it was roughly finished."—J. A. Froude, *Luther: A short biography*, pp. 28-35.

ALSO IN: G. Waddington, *History of the Reformation*, v. 1, ch. 13-14.—W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V*, v. 1, bk. 2.—C. Beard, *Martin Luther and the Reformation*, ch. 9.—J. Köstlin, *Life of Luther*, pt. 3, ch. 9.

1521-1535.—Beginning of Protestant reform movement in France.—Hesitation of Francis I.—Final persecution of reformers.—"The long contest for Gallican rights had lowered the prestige of the popes in France, but it had not weakened the Catholic Church, which was older than the monarchy itself, and, in the feeling of the people, was indissolubly associated with it. The College of the Sorbonne, or the Theological Faculty at Paris, and the Parliament, which had together maintained Gallican liberty, were united in stern hostility to all doctrinal innovations. . . . In Southern France a remnant of the Waldenses had survived, and the recollection of the Catharists was still preserved in popular songs and legends. But the first movements towards reform emanated from the Humanist culture. A literary and scientific spirit was awakened in France through the lively intercourse with Italy which subsisted under Louis XII and Francis I. By Francis especially, Italian scholars and artists were induced in large numbers to take up their abode in France. Frenchmen likewise visited Italy and brought home the classical culture which they acquired there. Among the scholars who cultivated Greek was Budeus, the foremost of them, whom Erasmus styled the 'wonder of France.' After the 'Peace of the Dames' was concluded at Cambray, in 1529, when Francis surrendered Italy to Charles V, a throng of patriotic Italians who feared or

hated the Spanish rule, streamed over the Alps and gave a new impulse to literature and art. Poets, artists, and scholars found in the king a liberal and enthusiastic patron. The new studies, especially Hebrew and Greek, were opposed by all the might of the Sorbonne, the leader of which was the Syndic, Beda. He and his associates were on the watch for heresy, and every author who was suspected of overstepping the bounds of orthodoxy was immediately accused and subjected to persecution. Thus two parties were formed, the one favorable to the new learning, and the other inimical to it and rigidly wedded to the traditional theology. The Father of the French Reformation, or the one more entitled to this distinction than any other, is Jacques Lefèvre. . . . Lefèvre was honored among the Humanists as the restorer of philosophy and science in the University. Deeply imbued with a religious spirit, in 1509 he put forth a commentary on the Psalms, and in 1512 a commentary on the Epistles of Paul. As early as about 1512, he said to his pupil Farel: 'God will renovate the world, and you will be a witness of it'; and in the last named work, he says that the signs of the times betoken that a renovation of the Church is near at hand. He teaches the doctrine of gratuitous justification, and deals with the Scriptures as the supreme and sufficient authority. But a mystical, rather than a polemical vein characterizes him; and while this prevented him from breaking with the Church, it also blunted the sharpness of the opposition which his opinions were adapted to produce. One of his pupils was Briçonnet, Bishop of Meaux, who held the same view of justification with Lefèvre, and fostered the evangelical doctrine in his diocese. The enmity of the Sorbonne to Lefèvre and his school took a more aggressive form when the writings of Luther began to be read in the University and elsewhere. . . . The Sorbonne [1521] formally condemned a dissertation of Lefèvre on a point of evangelical history, in which he had controverted the traditional opinion. He, with Farel, Gérard Roussel, and other preachers, found an asylum with Briçonnet. Lefèvre translated the New Testament from the Vulgate, and, in a commentary on the Gospels, explicitly pronounced the Bible the sole rule of faith, which the individual might interpret for himself, and declared justification to be through faith alone, without human works or merit. It seemed as if Meaux aspired to become another Wittenberg. At length a commission of parliament was appointed to take cognizance of heretics in that district. Briçonnet, either intimidated, as Beza asserts, or recoiling at the sight of an actual secession from the Church, joined in the condemnation of Luther and of his opinions, and even acquiesced in the persecution which fell upon Protestantism within his diocese. Lefèvre fled to Strasburg, was afterwards recalled by Francis I., but ultimately took up his abode in the court of the King's sister, Margaret, the Queen of Navarre. Margaret, from the first, was favorably inclined to the new doctrines. There were two parties at the court. The mother of the King, Louisa of Savoy, and the Chancellor Duprat, were allies of the Sorbonne. . . . Margaret, on the contrary, a versatile and accomplished princess, cherished a mystical devotion which carried her beyond Briçonnet in her acceptance of the teaching of the Reformers. . . . Before the death of her first husband, the Duke of Alençon, and while she was a widow, she exerted her influence to the full extent in behalf of the persecuted Protestants, and in opposition to the Sorbonne. After her marriage to Henry d'Albret, the King of Navarre, she con-

tinued, in her own little court and principality, to favor the reformed doctrine and its professors. [See NAVARRE: 1528-1563.] . . . The grift of her influence appears in the character of her daughter, the heroic Jeanne d'Albret, the mother of Henry IV.; and in the readiness of the people over whom Margaret immediately ruled to receive the Protestant faith. . . . Francis I., whose generous patronage of artists and men of letters gave him the title of 'Father of Science,' had no love for the Sorbonne, for the Parliament, or for the monks. He entertained the plan of bringing Erasmus to Paris, and placing him at the head of an institution of learning. He read the Bible with his mother and sister, and felt no superstitious aversion to the leaders of reform. . . . The revolt of the Constable Bourbon [see FRANCE: 1520-1523] made it necessary for Francis to conciliate the clergy; and the battle of Pavia, followed by the captivity of the King, and the regency of his mother, gave a free rein to the persecutors. An inquisitorial court, composed partly of laymen, was ordained by Parliament. Heretics were burned at Paris and in the provinces. Louis de Berquin, who combined a culture which won the admiration of Erasmus, with the religious earnestness of Luther, was thrown into prison. [Three times the King interposed and rescued him from the persecutors; but at last, in November, 1529, Berquin was hanged and burned.]—"G. P. Fisher, *Reformation*, ch. 8.—"Such scenes [as the execution of Berquin], added to the preaching and dissemination of the Scriptures and religious tracts, caused the desire for reform to spread far and wide. In the autumn of 1534, a violent placard against the mass was posted about Paris, and one was even fixed on the king's own chamber. The cry was soon raised, 'Death! death to the heretics!' Francis had long dallied with the Reformation. . . . Now . . . he develops into what was quite contrary to his disposition, a cruel persecutor. A certain bourgeois of Paris, unaffected by any heretical notions, kept in those days a diary of what was going on in Paris, and from this precious document . . . we learn that between the 13th of November, 1534, and the 13th of March, 1535, twenty so-called Lutherans were put to death in Paris. . . . The panic caused by the Anabaptist outbreak at Munster may perhaps account for the extreme cruelty, . . . as the siege was in actual progress at the time. It was to defend the memories of the martyrs of the 29th of January, 1535, and of others who had suffered elsewhere, and to save, if possible, those menaced with a similar fate, that Calvin wrote his 'Institution of the Christian Religion.' A timid, feeble-bodied young student, he had fled from France [1535], in the hope of finding some retreat where he might lose himself in the studies he loved. Passing through Geneva [1536] with the intention of staying there only for a night, he met the indefatigable, ubiquitous, enterprising, courageous Farel, who, taking him by the hand, adjured him to stop and carry on the work in that city. Calvin shrank instinctively, but . . . was forced to yield. . . . Calvin once settled at Geneva had no more doubt about his calling than if he had been Moses himself."—R. Heath, *Reformation in France*, bk. 1, ch. 2-3.—See also EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Genevan reformers.

ALSO IN: H. M. Baird, *History of the rise of the Huguenots of France*, v. 1, ch. 2-4.—R. T. Smith, *Church in France*, ch. 12.

1521-1555.—Beginnings of the Reformation in the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1521-1555.

1522.—Election of Adrian VI.

1522-1525.—Deepening and strengthening of Lutheran Reformation and its systematic organization.—Two diets of Nuremberg.—Catholic league of Ratisbon.—Formal adoption of reformed religion in northern Germany.—“Fortunately for the reformation, the emperor was prevented from executing the edict of Worms by his absence from Germany, by the civil commotions in Spain, and still more by the war with Francis I., which extended into Spain, the Low Countries, and Italy, and for above eight years involved him in a continued series of contests and negotiations at a distance from Germany. His brother, Ferdinand, on whom, as joint president of the council of regency, the administration of affairs devolved, was occupied in quelling the discontents in the Austrian territories, and defending his right to the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia; and thus the government of the empire was left to the council of regency, of which several members were inclined to favour innovation. In consequence of these circumstances, the Lutherans were enabled to overcome the difficulties to which innovators of every kind are exposed; and they were no less favoured by the changes at the court of Rome. Leo dying in 1521, Adrian, his successor, who, by the influence of Charles, was raised to the pontifical chair, on the 9th of January, 1522, saw and lamented the corruptions of the church, and his ingenuous, but impolitic confessions, that the whole church, both in its head and members, required a thorough reformation, strengthened the arguments of his opponents. . . . Nothing, perhaps, proved more the surprising change of opinion in Germany, the rapid increase of those whom we shall now distinguish by the name of Lutherans, and the commencement of a systematic opposition to the church of Rome, than the transactions of the two diets of Nuremberg, which were summoned by the archduke Ferdinand, principally for the purpose of enforcing the execution of the edict of Worms. In a brief dated in November, 1522, and addressed to the first diet, pope Adrian, after severely censuring the princes of the empire for not carrying into execution the edict of Worms, exhorted them, if mild and moderate measures failed, to cut off Luther from the body of the church, as a gangrened and incurable member. . . . At the same time, with singular inconsistency, he acknowledged the corruptions of the Roman court as the source of the evils which overspread the church, [and] promised as speedy a reformation as the nature of the abuses would admit. . . . The members of the diet, availing themselves of his avowal, advised him to assemble a council in Germany for the reformation of abuses, and drew up a list of a hundred grievances which they declared they would no longer tolerate, and, if not speedily delivered from such burdens, [they] would procure relief by the authority with which God had intrusted them. . . . The recess of the diet, published in March, 1523, was framed with the same spirit; instead of threats of persecution, it only enjoined all persons to wait with patience the determination of a free council, forbade the diffusion of doctrines likely to create disturbances, and subjected all publications to the approbation of men of learning and probity appointed by the magistrate. Finally, it declared, that as priests who had married, or monks who had quitted their convents, were not guilty of a civil crime, they were only amenable to an ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and liable at the discretion of the ordinary to be deprived of their ecclesiastical privileges and benefices. The Lutherans derived their greatest advantages from these proceedings, as the gross corruptions of the

church of Rome were now proved by the acknowledgment of the pontiff himself. . . . From this period they confidently appealed to the confession of the pontiff, and as frequently quoted the hundred grievances which were enumerated in a public and authentic act of the Germanic body. They not only regarded the recess as a suspension of the edict of Worms, but construed the articles in their own favour. . . . Hitherto the innovators had only preached against the doctrines and ceremonies of the Roman church, without exhibiting a regular system of their own. [But now] Luther was persuaded, at the instances of the Saxon clergy, to form a regular system of faith and discipline; he translated the service into the German tongue, modified the form of the mass, and omitted many superstitious ceremonies; but he made as few innovations as possible, consistently with his own principles. To prevent also the total alienation or misuse of the ecclesiastical revenues, he digested a project for their administration, by means of an annual committee, and by his writings and influence effected its introduction. Under this judicious system the revenues of the church, after a provision for the clergy, were appropriated for the support of schools; for the relief of the poor, sick, and aged, of orphans and widows; for the reparation of churches and sacred buildings; and for the erection of magazines and the purchase of corn against periods of scarcity. These regulations and ordinances, though not established with the public approbation of the elector, were yet made with his tacit acquiescence, and may be considered as the first institution of a reformed system of worship and ecclesiastical polity; and in this institution the example of the churches of Saxony was followed by all the Lutheran communities in Germany. The effects of these changes were soon visible, and particularly at the meeting of the second diet of Nuremberg, on the 10th of January, 1524. Faber, canon of Strasburgh, who had been enjoined to make a progress through Germany for the purpose of preaching against the Lutheran doctrines, durst not execute his commission, although under the sanction of a safe conduct from the council of regency. Even the legate Campegio could not venture to make his public entry into Nuremberg with the insignia of his dignity, . . . for fear of being insulted by the populace. . . . Instead, therefore, of annulling the acts of the preceding diet, the new assembly pursued the same line of conduct. . . . The recess was, if possible, still more galling to the court of Rome, and more hostile to its prerogatives than that of the former diet. . . . The Catholics, thus failing in their efforts to obtain the support of the diet, on the 6th of July, 1524, entered into an association at Ratisbon, under the auspices of Campegio, in which the archduke Ferdinand, the duke of Bavaria, and most of the German bishops concurred, for enforcing the edict of Worms. At the same time, to conciliate the Germans, the legate published 29 articles for the amendment of some abuses; but these being confined to points of minor importance, and regarding only the inferior clergy, produced no satisfaction, and were attended with no effect. Notwithstanding this formidable union of the Catholic princes, the proceedings of the diet of Nuremberg were but the prelude to more decisive innovations, which followed each other with wonderful rapidity. Frederic the Wise, elector of Saxony, dying in 1525, was succeeded by his brother, John the Constant, who publicly espoused and professed the Lutheran doctrines. The system recently digested by Luther, with many additional alterations, was introduced by his

authority, and declared the established religion; and by his order the celebrated Melancthon drew up an apology in defence of the reformed tenets for the princes who adopted them. Luther himself, who had in the preceding year thrown off the monastic habit, soon after the accession of the new sovereign ventured to give the last proof of his emancipation from the fetters of the church of Rome, by espousing, on the 13th of July, 1525, Catherine Bora, a noble lady, who had escaped

profession of the Lutheran tenets, and, with the consent of Sigismund, king of Poland, secularised Eastern Prussia."—W. Coxe, *History of the house of Austria*, v. 1, ch. 28.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 2-5.—P. Bayne, *Martin Luther: His life and work*, v. 2, bk. 10-13.—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*, ch. 5-6.

1523.—Election of Clement VII.—Demand for general council.—"Clement VII (1523-34), one of



CLEMENT VII AND CHARLES V IN CEREMONIAL PROCESSION TO THE CORONATION AT BOLOGNA

from the nunnery at Nimptschen, and taken up her residence at Wittenberg. The example of the elector of Saxony was followed by Philip, landgrave of Hesse Cassel, a prince of great influence and distinguished civil and military talents; by the dukes of Mecklenburgh, Pomerania, and Zell; and by the imperial cities of Nuremberg, Strasburgh, Frankfort, Nordhausen, Magdeburgh, Brunswick, Bremen, and others of less importance. . . . Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, grand-master of the Teutonic order, . . . in 1525, renounced his vow of celibacy, made a public

the de'Medici family, succeeded to the Papacy at a most critical period in the civil and religious history of Europe. The time that he spent at the court of his cousin, Leo X., and the traditions of his family and of his native city of Florence made it almost impossible for him to throw himself into the work of reform or to adopt the stern measures that the situation demanded. . . . During the earlier years of Clement VII's reign the German people, Catholic as well as Lutheran, demanded the convocation of a general or at least a national council, and their demands met with the

approval of Charles V. The naturally indolent temperament of the Pope, the fear that the eagerness for reform might develop into a violent revolution, and the danger that a council dominated by the Emperor might be as distasteful to France and England as dangerous to the rights and prerogatives of the Holy See, made him more willing to accept the counsels of those who suggested delay. When peace was at last concluded between the Pope and the Emperor (1529) Charles V. had changed his mind about the advisability of a General Council, having convinced himself in the meantime that more could be done for the cause of peace in his territories by private negotiations between the different parties."—J. McCaffrey, *History of the Catholic church*, v. 1, pp. 182-183.

1523-1527.—Double-dealings of Pope Clement VII with the emperor and the king of France.—Imperial revenge.—Sack of Rome. See ITALY: 1523-1527; 1527; ROME: Modern city: 1527.

1524.—Institution of the Order of the Theatines. See THEATINES.

1525-1529.—League of Torgau.—Contradictory action of the Diets at Spire.—Protest of Lutheran princes which gave rise to the name "Protestants."—"At the Diet of Nuremberg it had been determined to hold an assembly shortly after at Spire for the regulation of ecclesiastical affairs. The princes were to procure beforehand from their councillors and scholars a statement of the points in dispute. The grievances of the nation were to be set forth, and remedies were to be sought for them. The nation was to deliberate and act on the great matter of religious reform. The prospect was that the evangelical party would be in the majority. The papal court saw the danger that was involved in an assembly gathered for such a purpose, and determined to prevent the meeting. At this moment war was breaking out between Charles and Francis. Charles had no inclination to offend the Pope. He forbade the assembly at Spire, and, by letters addressed to the princes individually, endeavored to drive them into the execution of the edict of Worms. In consequence of these threatening movements, the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hesse entered into the defensive league of Torgau, in which they were joined by several Protestant communities. The battle of Pavia and the capture of Francis I. [see FRANCE: 1523-1525] were events that appeared to be fraught with peril to the Protestant cause. In the Peace of Madrid (January 14, 1526) both sovereigns avowed the determination to suppress heresy. But the dangerous preponderance obtained by the Emperor created an alarm throughout Europe; and the release of Francis was followed by the organization of a confederacy against Charles, of which Clement was the leading promoter [see ITALY: 1523-1527]. This changed the imperial policy in reference to the Lutherans. The Diet of Spire in 1526 unanimously resolved that, until the meeting of a general council, every state should act in regard to the edict of Worms as it might answer to God and his imperial majesty. Once more Germany refused to stifle the Reformation, and adopted the principle that each of the component parts of the Empire should be left free to act according to its own will. It was a measure of the highest importance to the cause of Protestantism. It is a great landmark in the history of the German Reformation. The war of the Emperor and the Pope involved the necessity of tolerating the Lutherans. In 1527, an imperial army, composed largely of Lutheran infantry, captured and sacked the city of Rome. For several months the Pope was held a prisoner. For a num-

ber of years the position of Charles with respect to France and the Pope, and the fear of Turkish invasion, had operated to embolden and greatly strengthen the cause of Luther. But now that the Emperor had gained a complete victory in Italy, the Catholic party revived its policy of repression."—G. P. Fisher, *Reformation*, ch. 4.—"While Charles and Clement were arranging matters in 1529, a new Diet was held at Spire, and the reactionists exerted themselves to obtain a reversal of that ordinance of the Diet of 1526 which had given to the reformed doctrines a legal position in Germany. Had it been possible, the Papist leaders would have forced back the Diet on the old Edict of Worms, but in this they were baffled. Then they took up another line of defence and aggression. Where the Worms Edict had been enforced, it was, they urged, to be maintained; but all further propagation of the reformed doctrines, all religious innovation whatever, was to be forbidden, pending the assembling of a General Council. . . . This doom of arrest and paralysis—this imperious mandate, 'Hitherto shall ye come, but no further,'—could not be brooked by the followers of Luther. They possessed the advantage of being admirably led. Philip of Hesse supplied some elements of sound counsel that were wanting in Luther himself. . . . Luther regarded with favour . . . the doctrine of passive obedience. It was too much his notion that devout Germans, if their Emperor commanded them to renounce the truth, should simply die at the stake without a murmur. . . . The most ripe and recent inquiries seem to prove that it was about this very time, when the Evangelical Princes and Free Cities of Germany were beginning to put shoulder to shoulder and organise resistance, in arms if necessary, to the Emperor and the Pope, that Luther composed 'Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott,' a psalm of trust in God, and in God only, as the protector of Christians. He took no fervent interest, however, in the Diet; and Philip and his intrepid associates derived little active support from him. These were inflexibly determined that the decree of the majority should not be assented to. Philip of Hesse, John of Saxony, Markgraf George the Pious of Brandenburg-Anspach, the Dukes of Lunenburg and Brunswick, the Prince of Anhalt, and the representatives of Strasburg, Nürnberg, and twelve other free cities [Ulm, Constance, Reutlingen, Windsheim, Memmingen, Lindau, Kempten, Heilbron, Isna, Weissemburg, Nordlingen, and St. Gallen], entered a solemn protest against the Popish resolution. They were called Protestants. The name, as is customary with names that felicitously express and embody facts, was caught up in Germany and passed into every country in Europe and the world."—P. Bayne, *Martin Luther: His life and work*, v. 2, bk. 14, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 2-3, bk. 4-5.—J. H. Merle D' Aubigné, *History of the Reformation*, v. 3-4, bk. 10, ch. 14, and bk. 13, ch. 1-6.—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal Church history*, v. 3, sect. 311.

1527-1529.—Captivity of Pope Clement VII. See ITALY: 1527-1529.

1527-1533.—Rupture with England. See ENGLAND: 1527-1534; CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 1534-1563.

1530-1531.—Diet at Augsburg.—Presentation and condemnation of the protestant confession of faith.—Breach with the Reformation complete.—"In the year 1530, Charles V, seeing France prostrate, Italy quelled, and Solymán driven within his own boundaries, determined upon undertaking the decision of the great question of the Reforma-

tion. The two conflicting parties were summoned, and met at Augsburg. The sectaries of Luther, known by the general name of protestants, were desirous to be distinguished from the other enemies of Rome, the excesses committed by whom would have thrown odium upon their cause; to be distinguished from the Swinglian republicans of Switzerland, odious to the princes and to the nobles; above all, they desired not to be confounded with the anabaptists, proscribed by all as the enemies of society and of social order. Luther, over whom there was still suspended the sentence pronounced against him at Worms, whereby he was declared a heretic, could not appear at Augsburg; his place was supplied by the learned and pacific Melancthon, a man timid and gentle as Erasmus, whose friend he continued to be, despite of Luther. The elector, however, conveyed the great reformer as near to the place of convocation as regard to his friend's personal safety rendered advisable. He had him stationed in the strong fortress of Coburg. From this place, Luther was enabled to maintain with ease and expedition a constant intercourse with the protestant ministers. . . . Melancthon believed in the possibility of effecting a reconciliation between the two parties. Luther, at a very early period of the schism, saw that they were utterly irreconcilable. In the commencement of the Reformation, he had frequently had recourse to conferences and to public disputations. It was then of moment to him to resort to every effort, to try, by all the means in his power to preserve the bond of Christianity, before he abandoned all hope of so doing. But towards the close of his life, dating from the period of the Diet of Augsburg, he openly discouraged and disclaimed these wordy contests, in which the vanquished would never avow his defeat. On the 26th of August, 1530, he writes: 'I am utterly opposed to any effort being made to reconcile the two doctrines; for it is an impossibility, unless, indeed, the pope will consent to abjure papacy. Let it suffice us that we have established our belief upon the basis of reason, and that we have asked for peace. Why hope to convert them to the truth?' And on the same day (26th August), he tells Spalatin: 'I understand you have undertaken a notable mission—that of reconciling Luther and the pope. But the pope will not be reconciled and Luther refuses. Be mindful how you sacrifice both time and trouble.' . . . These prophecies were, however, unheeded: the conferences took place, and the protestants were required to furnish their profession of faith. This was drawn up by Melancthon. [The Confession, as drawn up by Melancthon, was adopted and signed by five electors, 30 ecclesiastical princes, 23 secular princes, 22 abbots, 32 counts and barons, and 39 free and imperial cities, and has since been known as the Augsburg Confession.]—J. Michelet, *Life of Luther* (tr. by W. Hazlitt), bk. 3, ch. 1.—"A difficulty now arose as to the public reading of the Confession in the Diet. The Protestant princes, who had severally signed it, contended against the Catholic princes, that, in fairness, it should be read; and, against the emperor, that, if read at all, it should be read in German, and not in Latin. They were successful in both instances, and the Confession was publicly read in German by Bayer, one of the two chancellors of the Elector of Saxony, during the afternoon session of June 25, held in the chapel of the imperial palace. Campeggio, the Papal Legate, was absent. The reading occupied two hours, and the powerful effect it produced was, in a large measure, due to the rich, sonorous voice of Bayer, and to his distinct articulation and the

musical cadence of his periods. Having finished, he handed the Confession to the Emperor, who submitted it for examination to Eck, Conrad Wimpina, Cochläus, John Faber, and others of the Catholic theologians present in the Diet." These prepared a "Confutation" which was "finally agreed upon and read in a public session of the Diet, held August 3rd, and with which the Emperor and the Catholic princes expressed themselves fully satisfied. The Protestant princes were commanded to disclaim their errors, and return to the allegiance of the ancient faith, and 'should you refuse,' the Emperor added, 'we shall regard it a conscientious duty to proceed as our coronation oath and our office of protector of Holy Church require.' This declaration roused the indignant displeasure of the Protestant princes. Philip of Hesse . . . excited general alarm by abruptly breaking off the transactions, lately entered upon between the princes and the bishops, and suddenly quitting Augsburg. Charles V. now ordered the controverted points to be discussed in his presence, and appointed seven Protestants and an equal number of Catholics to put forward and defend the views of their respective parties." Subsequently Melancthon "prepared and published his 'Apology for the Augsburg Confession,' which was intended to be an answer to the 'Confutation' of the Catholic theologians. The Protestant princes laid a copy of the 'Apology' before the emperor, who rejected both it and the Confession. . . . After many more fruitless attempts to bring about a reconciliation, the emperor, on the 22nd of September, the day previous to that fixed for the departure of the Elector of Saxony, published an edict, in which he stated, among other things, that 'the Protestants have been refuted by sound and irrefragable arguments drawn from Holy Scripture.' 'To deny free will,' he went on to say, 'and to affirm that faith without works avails for man's salvation, is to assert what is absurdly erroneous; for, as we very well know from past experience, were such doctrines to prevail, all true morality would perish from the earth. But that the Protestants may have sufficient time to consider their future course of action, we grant them from this to the 15th of April of next year for consideration.' On the following day, Joachim, Elector of Brandenburg, speaking in the emperor's name, addressed the evangelical princes and deputies of the Protestant cities as follows: 'His majesty is extremely amazed at your persisting in the assertion that your doctrines are based on Holy Scripture. Were your assertion true, then would it follow that his Majesty's ancestors, including so many kings and emperors, as well as the ancestors of the Elector of Saxony, were heretics!' . . . The Protestant princes forthwith took their leave of the emperor. On the 13th of October, the 'Recess,' or decree of the Diet, was read to the Catholic States, which on the same day entered into a Catholic League. On the 17th of the same month, sixteen of the more important German cities refused to aid the emperor in repelling the Turks, on the ground that peace had not yet been secured to Germany. The Zwinglian and Lutheran cities were daily becoming more sympathetic and cordial in their relations to each other. Charles V. informed the Holy See, October 23, of his intention of drawing the sword in defence of the faith. The 'Recess' was read to the Protestant princes November 11, and rejected by them on the day following, and the deputies of Hesse and Saxony took their departure immediately after. . . . The decree was rather more severe than the Protestants had anticipated, inasmuch as the emperor declared that he felt it to be his conscientious duty

to defend the ancient faith, and that 'the Catholic princes had promised to aid him to the full extent of their power.' . . . The appointment of the emperor's brother, Ferdinand, as King of the Romans (1531), gave deep offence to the Protestant princes, who now expressed their determination of withholding all assistance from the emperor until the 'Recess' of Augsburg should have been revoked. Assembling at Smalkald, . . . they entered into an alliance offensive and defensive, known as the League of Smalkald, on March 29, 1531, to which they severally bound themselves to remain faithful for a period of six years."—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 3, sect. 312.—See also GERMANY: 1530-1532.

ALSO IN: H. Worsley, *Life of Luther*, v. 2, ch. 7.—F. A. Cox, *Life of Melancthon*, ch. 8 (giving the text of the "Augsburg Confession").

1530-1532.—Protestant League of Smalkalde and alliance with the king of France.—Pacification of Nuremberg. See GERMANY: 1530-1532.

1530-1600.—Alliance with Spain during Counter-Reformation. See ITALY: 1530-1600.

1533.—Treaty of Pope Clement VII with Francis I of France, providing for the marriage of Catherine de' Medici. See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

1533-1546.—Mercenary aspects of the Reformation in Germany.—Catholic Holy League.—Preparations for war. See GERMANY: 1533-1546.

1534.—Break in relations with Henry VIII of England over Act of Supremacy. See SUPREMACY, ACT OF.

1534-1540.—Election of Paul III.—Beginnings of the Counter-Reformation.—"Clement VII. died in September (1534) and was succeeded by Paul III. (1534-49). He convoked a General Council to meet at Mantua in 1537, but the League refused once more to attend (1535). Even had there been no other difficulties in the way, the war that broke out with renewed bitterness between Charles V. and Francis I. would have made it impossible for such a body to meet with any hope of success. The helpless condition of the Emperor, confronted, as he was, on the one side by the French and on the other by the Turks, raised the hopes of the Protestant party, and made them more determined than ever to attend no Council in which the authority of the bishops or the jurisdiction of the Pope should be recognised. Moreover, each year brought new accessions to their ranks. The appearance of organised Christian bodies, completely national in character, accepting the civil rulers as their head, and conceding to them full power to deal as they liked with ecclesiastical property, created a deep impression on several princes and free cities, and made them not averse to giving the new religion a fair trial. In 1530, the Elector of Saxony, Philip of Hesse and the rulers of Ansbach, Anhalt, Brunswick-Lüneburg, Bayreuth, East Friesland, and a few of the larger cities had gone over to Luther. Before ten years had elapsed the greater part of Northern Germany had fallen from the Catholic Church, and even in Southern Germany Protestantism had made serious inroads. Several of the more important cities such as Wittenberg, Strassburg, Nürnberg, Magdeburg, Frankfurt-on-Main, Hamburg, and Erfurt became leading centres for the spread of the new teaching, while many of the German universities, for example, Erfurt, Basel, Frankfurt, Rostock, and Marburg supported strongly the efforts of Luther."—J. McCaffrey, *History of the Catholic church*, v. 1, pp. 97-98.—"A well-known sentence in Macaulay's Essay on Ranke's 'History

of the Popes', asserts, correctly enough, that in a particular epoch of history 'the Church of Rome, having lost a large part of Europe, not only ceased to lose, but actually regained nearly half of what she had lost.' Any fairly correct use of the familiar phrase 'the Counter-Reformation' must imply that this remarkable result was due to a movement pursuing two objects, originally distinct, though afterwards largely blended, viz., the regeneration of the Church of Rome, and the recovery of the losses inflicted upon her by the early successes of Protestantism. . . . The earliest continuous endeavour to regenerate the Church of Rome without impairing her cohesion dates from the Papacy of Paul III. [1534-1549], within which also falls the outbreak of the first religious war of the century [see GERMANY: 1546-1552]. Thus the two impulses which it was the special task of the Counter-Reformation to fuse were brought into immediate contact. The onset of the combat is marked by the formal establishment of the Jesuit Order [1540] as a militant agency devoted alike to both the purposes of the Counter-Reformation, and by the meeting of the Council of Trent [1545] under conditions excluding from its programme the task of conciliation."—A. W. Ward, *Counter-Reformation*, pp. vii-viii.—"I intend to use this term Counter-Reformation to denote the reform of the Catholic Church, which was stimulated by the German Reformation, and which, when the Council of Trent had fixed the dogmas and discipline of Latin Christianity, enabled the Papacy to assume a militant policy in Europe, whereby it regained a large portion of the provinces that had previously lapsed to Lutheran and Calvinistic dissent. . . . The centre of the world-wide movement which is termed the Counter-Reformation was naturally Rome. Events had brought the Holy See once more into a position of prominence. It was more powerful as an Italian State now, through the support of Spain and the extinction of national independence, than at any previous period of history. In Catholic Christendom its prestige was immensely augmented by the Council of Trent. At the same epoch, the foreigners who dominated Italy, threw themselves with the enthusiasm of fanaticism into this Revival. Spain furnished Rome with the militia of the Jesuits and with the engines of the Inquisition. The Papacy was thus able to secure successes in Italy which were elsewhere only partially achieved. . . . In order to understand the transition of Italy from the Renaissance to the Counter-Reformation manner, it will be well to concentrate attention on the history of the Papacy during the eight reigns [1534-1605] of Paul III., Julius III., Paul IV., Pius IV., Pius V., Gregory XIII., Sixtus V., and Clement VIII. In the first of these reigns we hardly notice that the Renaissance has passed away. In the last we are aware of a completely altered Italy."—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: Catholic reaction*, v. 1, ch. 2, with footnote.

1535.—Perugia captured. See PERUGIA.

1537-1563.—Popular weakness of Reformation in Italy.—Momentary inclination towards the reform at Rome.—Beginning of Catholic reaction.—Council of Trent and its consolidating work.—"The conflict with the hierarchy did not take the same form in Italy as elsewhere. . . . There is no doubt that the masses saw no cause for discontent under it. We have proof that the hierarchy was popular—that among the people, down to the lowest grades, the undiminished splendour of the Papacy was looked upon as a pledge of the power of Italy. But this did not prevent reform movements from taking place. The Humanistic school had its home here; its opposition ten-

dencies had not spared the Church any more than Scholasticism; it had everywhere been the precursor and ally of the intellectual revolt, and not the least in Italy. There were from the first eminent individuals at Venice, Modena, Ferrara, Florence, even in the States of the Church themselves, who were more or less followers of Luther. The cardinals Contarini and Morone, Bembo and Sadoleto, distinguished preachers like Peter Martyr, Johann Valdez, and Bernardino Ochino, and from among the princely families an intellectual lady, Renata of Ferrara, were inclined to the new doctrines. But they were leaders without followers; the number of their adherents among the masses was surprisingly small. The Roman Curia, under the Pontificate of Paul III., 1534-49, vacillated in its policy for a time; between 1537-41, the prevailing sentiments were friendly and conciliatory towards Reform. . . . They were, in fact, gravely entertaining the question at Rome, whether it would not be better to come to terms with Reform, to adopt the practicable part of its programme, and so put an end to the schism which was spreading so fast in the Church. . . . An honest desire then still prevailed to effect a reconciliation. Contarini was in favour of it with his whole soul. But it proceeded no further than the attempt; for once the differences seemed likely to be adjusted, so far as this was possible; but in 1542, the revulsion took place, which was never again reversed. Only one result remained. The Pope could no longer refuse to summon a council. The Emperor had been urging it year after year; the Pope had acceded to it further than any of his predecessors had done; and, considering the retreat which now took place, this concession was the least that could be demanded. At length, therefore, three years after it convened, in May, 1542, the council assembled at Trent in December, 1545. It was the Emperor's great desire that a council should be held in Germany, that thus the confidence of the Germans in the supreme tribunal in the great controversy might be gained; but the selection of Trent, which nominally belonged to Germany, was the utmost concession that could be obtained. The intentions of the Emperor and the Pope with regard to the council were entirely opposed to each other. The Pope was determined to stifle all opposition in the bud, while the Emperor was very desirous of having a counterpoise to the Pope's supremacy in council, provided always that it concurred in the imperial programme. . . . The assembly consisted of Spanish and Italian monks in overwhelming majority, and this was decisive as to its character. When consulted as to the course of business, the Emperor had expressed a wish that those questions on which agreement between the parties was possible should first be discussed. There were a number of questions on which they were agreed, as, for example, Greek Christianity. Even now there are a number of points on which Protestants and Catholics are agreed, and differ from the Eastern Church. If these questions were considered first, the attendance of the Protestants would be rendered very much easier; it would open the door as widely as possible, they would probably come in considerable numbers, and might in time take a part which at least might not be distasteful to the Emperor, and might influence his ideas on Church reform. The thought that they were heretics was half concealed. But Rome was determined to pursue the opposite course, and at once to agitate those questions on which there was the most essential disagreement, and to declare all who would not submit to be incorrigible heretics. . . . The first subjects of discussion were, the authority of the

Scriptures in the text of the Vulgate, ecclesiastical tradition, the right of interpretation, the doctrine of justification. These were the questions on which the old and new doctrines were irreconcilably at variance; all other differences were insignificant in comparison. And these questions were decided in the old Roman Catholic sense; not precisely as they had been officially treated in 1517—for the stream of time had produced some little effect—but in the main the old statutes were adhered to, and everything rejected which departed from them. This conduct was decisive. . . . Nevertheless some reforms were carried out. Between the time of meeting and adjournment, December, 1545, to the spring of 1547, the following were the main points decided on:—1. The bishops were to provide better teachers and better schools. 2. The bishops should themselves expound the word of God. 3. Penalties were to be enforced for the neglect of their duties, and various rules were laid down as to the necessary qualifications for the office of a bishop. Dispensations, licenses, and privileges were abolished. The Church was therefore to be subjected to a reform which abolished sundry abuses, without conceding any change in her teaching. The course the council was taking excited the Emperor's extreme displeasure. . . . He organized a sort of opposition to Rome; his commissaries kept up a good understanding with the Protestants, and it was evident that he meant to make use of them for an attack on the Pope. This made Rome eager to withdraw the assembly from the influence of German bishops and imperial agents as soon as possible. A fever which had broken out at Trent, but had soon disappeared, was made a pretext for transferring the council to Bologna, in the spring of 1547. The imperial commissioners protested that the decrees of such a hole-and-corner council would be null and void. The contest remained undecided for years. Paul III. died in the midst of it, in November, 1549, and was succeeded by Cardinal del Monte, one of the papal legates at the council, as Pope Julius III. The Emperor at length came to an understanding with him, . . . the council was again opened at Trent. . . . The assembly remained Catholic; the Protestant elements, which were represented at first, all disappeared after the turn of affairs in 1552 [see GERMANY: 1546-1552; 1552-1561]. After that there was no further thought of an understanding with the heretics. The results for reform were very small indeed. The proceedings were dragging wearily on when a fresh adjournment was announced in 1552. Pope Julius III. died in March, 1555. His successor, the noble Cardinal Cervin, elected as Marcellus II. died after only twenty-two days, and was succeeded by Cardinal Caraffa as Paul IV., 1555-9. . . . He was the Pope of the Restoration. The warm Neapolitan blood flowed in his veins, and he was a fiery, energetic character. He was not in favour of any concessions or abatement, but for a complete breach with the new doctrines, and a thorough exclusiveness for the ancient Church. He was one of the ablest men of the time. As early as in 1542, he had advised that no further concessions should be made, but that the Inquisition, of which indeed he was the creator, should be restored. It was he who decidedly initiated the great Catholic reaction. He established the Spanish Inquisition in Italy, instituted the first Index, and gave the Jesuits his powerful support in the interest of the restoration. This turn of affairs was the answer to the German religious Peace. Since the Protestants no longer concerned themselves about Rome, Rome was about to set her house in order without them, and as a matter of course the council stood still." But

in answer to demands from several Catholic princes, "the council was convened afresh by the next Pope, Pius IV. (1559-65), in November, 1560, and so the Council of Trent was opened for the third time in January, 1562. Then began the important period of the council, during which the legislation to which it has given a name was enacted. . . . The Curia reigned supreme, and, in spite of the remonstrances of the Emperor and of France, decided that the council should be considered a continuation of the previous ones, which meant—"All the decrees aimed against the Protestants are in full force; we have no further idea of coming to terms with them." The next proceeding was to interdict books and arrange an Index. [See below: 1559-1595.] . . . The restoration of the indisputable authority of the Pope was the ruling principle of all the decrees. . . . The great achievement of the council for the unity of the Catholic Church was this: it formed into a code of laws, on one consistent principle, that which in ancient times had been variable and uncertain, and which had been almost lost sight of in the last great revolution. Controverted questions were replaced by dogmas, doubtful traditions by definite doctrines; a uniformity was established in matters of faith and discipline which had never existed before, and an impregnable bulwark was thus erected against the sectarian spirit and the tendency to innovation. Still when this unity was established upon a solid basis, the universal Church of former times was torn asunder." The Council of Trent was closed December 4, 1563, 18 years after its opening.—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*, ch. 19, 16.—"It was one of the greatest benefits that Paul III. conferred on the Church, that he remodelled this all-important body [the Council of Trent], and made it a fit instrument for reform. And it would be hard to exaggerate the influence of the General Council held at Trent, so surrounded with obstacles, and so sparsely attended at first, and yet patiently pursuing its labours under the encouragement of pontiff after pontiff, and cardinal legates one after the other, till after eighteen years. . . . It had given system and unity to a multitude of disciplinary decrees, which meant, when they were put into execution, a thorough renewal of the interior life of the Church. It had set on foot a restoration of liturgy and worship which afterwards, in the hands of such men as Pius V. and Sixtus V., had helped largely to a new order of things, replacing variety, and to some extent disorder, by a world-wide unity and regularity. It had defined what was vague, it had drawn clearly the dividing line between the . . . reformers."—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, p. 530.

Also in: J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: Catholic reaction*, v. 1, ch. 2-3.—L. von Ranke, *History of the popes*, v. 1, bk. 2-3.—L. F. Bunsen, *History of the Council of Trent*.—T. R. Evans, *Council of Trent*.—A. de Reumont, *Carafas of Maddaloni*, bk. 1, ch. 3.

1540.—Founding of the order of the Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1540-1556.

1545-1550.—Separation of Parma and Placentia from the states of the church to form a duchy for the pope's family.—The Farnese. See PARMA: 1545-1592.

1547-1557.—Decline of power in Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 1547-1557.

1548-1575.—Work of Philip of Neri and Congregation of the Oratory. See ORATORY, CONGREGATION OF THE.

1550.—Election of Julius III.

1550-1650.—Loss of power. See ROME: Modern city: 1550-1650.

1555 (April).—Election of Marcellus II.

1555 (May).—Election of Paul IV.

1555-1558.—Revival of Catholicism in England under Mary Tudor. See ENGLAND: 1555-1558.

1555-1603.—Aggressive age of the reinvigorated church.—Attachment and subserviency to Spain.—Giovanni Piero Caraffa, founder of the Order of the Theatines, was raised to the papal chair in 1555, assuming the title of Paul IV. He "entered on his station with the haughty notions of its prerogatives which were natural to his austere and impetuous spirit. Hence his efforts in concert with France, unsuccessful as they proved, to overthrow the Spanish greatness, that he might extricate the papedom from the galling state of dependence to which the absolute ascendancy of that power in Italy had reduced it. Paul IV. is remarkable as the last pontiff who embarked in a contest which had now become hopeless, and as the first who, giving a new direction to the policy of the holy see, employed all the influence, the arts, and the resources of the Roman church against the protestant cause. He had, during the pontificate of Paul III. [1534-1549], already made himself conspicuous for his persecuting zeal. He had been the principal agent in the establishment of the inquisition at Rome, and had himself filled the office of grand inquisitor. He seated himself in the chair of St. Peter with the detestable spirit of that vocation; and the character of his pontificate responded to the violence of his temper. His mantle descended upon a long series of his successors. Pius IV., who replaced him on his death in 1559; Pius V., who received the tiara in the following year; Gregory XIII., who was elected in 1572, and died in 1585; Sixtus V., who next reigned until 1590; Urban VII., Gregory XIV., and Innocent IX., who each filled the papal chair only a few months; and Clement VIII., whose pontificate commenced in 1592 and extended beyond the close of the century [1603]: all pursued the same political and religious system. Resigning the hope, and perhaps the desire, of re-establishing the independence of their see, they maintained an intimate and obsequious alliance with the royal bigot of Spain; they seconded his furious persecution of the protestant faith; they fed the civil wars of the Low Countries, of France, and of Germany."—G. Procter, *History of Italy*, ch. 9.—"The Papacy and Catholicism had long maintained themselves against these advances of their enemy [the Protestant Reformation], in an attitude of defence it is true, but passive only; upon the whole they were compelled to endure them. Affairs now assumed a different aspect. . . . It may be affirmed generally that a vital and active force was again manifested, that the church had regenerated her creed in the spirit of the age, and had established reforms in accordance with the demands of the times. The religious tendencies which had appeared in southern Europe were not suffered to become hostile to herself, she adopted them, and gained the mastery of their movements; thus she renewed her powers, and infused fresh vigour into her system. . . . The influence of the restored Catholic system was first established in the two southern peninsulas, but this was not accomplished without extreme severities. The Spanish Inquisition received the aid of that lately revived in Rome; every movement of Protestantism was violently suppressed. But at the same time those tendencies of the inward life which renovated Catholicism claimed and enchained as her own, were peculiarly powerful in those countries. The sovereigns also attached themselves to the interests of the church. It was of the highest

importance that Philip II., the most powerful of all, adhered so decidedly to the popedom; with the pride of a Spaniard, by whom unimpeachable Catholicism was regarded as a sign of a purer blood and more noble descent, he rejected every adverse opinion; the character of his policy was however not wholly governed by mere personal feeling. From remote times, and more especially since the regulations established by Isabella, the kingly dignity of Spain had assumed an ecclesiastical character; in every province the royal authority was strengthened by the addition of spiritual power; deprived of the Inquisition, it would not have sufficed to govern the kingdom. Even in his American possessions, the king appeared above all in the light of a disseminator of the Christian and Catholic faith. This was the bond by which all his territories were united in obedience to his rule; he could not have abandoned it, without incurring real danger. The extension of Huguenot opinions in the south of France caused the utmost alarm in Spain; the Inquisition believed itself bound to redoubled vigilance. . . . The power possessed by Philip in the Netherlands secured to the southern system an immediate influence over the whole of Europe; but besides this, all was far from being lost in other countries. The emperor, the kings of France and Poland, with the duke of Bavaria, still adhered to the Catholic church. On all sides there were spiritual princes whose expiring zeal might be reanimated; there were also many places where Protestant opinions had not yet made their way among the mass of the people. The majority of the peasantry throughout France, Poland, and even Hungary, still remained Catholic. Paris, which even in those days exercised a powerful influence over the other French towns, had not yet been affected by the new doctrines. In England a great part of the nobility and commons were still Catholic; and in Ireland the whole of the ancient native population remained in the old faith. Protestantism had gained no admission into the Tyrolean or Swiss Alps, nor had it made any great progress among the peasantry of Bavaria. Canisius compared the Tyrolean and Bavarians with the two tribes of Israel, 'who alone remained faithful to the Lord.' The internal causes on which this pertinacity, this immovable attachment to tradition, among nations so dissimilar, was founded, might well repay a more minute examination. A similar constancy was exhibited in the Walloon provinces of the Netherlands. And now the papacy resumed a position in which it could once more gain the mastery of all these inclinations, and bind them indissolubly to itself. Although it had experienced great changes, it still possessed the inestimable advantage of having all the externals of the past and the habit of obedience on its side. In the council so prosperously concluded, the popes had even gained an accession of that authority which it had been the purpose of the temporal powers to restrict; and had strengthened their influence over the national churches; they had moreover abandoned that temporal policy by which they had formerly involved Italy and all Europe in confusion. They attached themselves to Spain with perfect confidence and without any reservations, fully returning the devotion evinced by that kingdom to the Roman church. The Italian principality, the enlarged dominions of the pontiff, contributed eminently to the success of his ecclesiastical enterprises; while the interests of the universal Catholic church were for some time essentially promoted by the overplus of its revenues. Thus strengthened internally, thus supported by powerful adherents, and by the idea of which they were the representatives,

the popes exchanged the defensive position, with which they had hitherto been forced to content themselves, for that of assailants."—L. von Ranke, *History of the popes*, v. 1, bk. 5, sect. 2.

1556-1609.—Religious policy of Rudolph II of Germany. See GERMANY: 1556-1609.

1559.—Election of Pius IV.

1559-1595.—Institution of the Index.—"The first 'Index' of prohibited books published by Papal authority, and therefore, unlike the 'catalogi' previously issued by royal, princely, or ecclesiastical authorities, valid for the whole Church, was that authorised by a bull of Paul IV. in 1559. In 1564 followed the Index published by Pius IV., as drawn up in harmony with the decrees of the Council of Trent, which, after all, appears to be a merely superficial revision of its predecessor. Other Indices followed, for which various authorities were responsible, the most important among them being the Index Expurgatorius, sanctioned by a bull of Clement VIII. in 1595, which proved so disastrous to the great printing trade of Venice."—A. W. Ward, *Counter-Reformation*, ch. 2.—See also CENSORSHIP: Press and speech; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1564-1581.

1562-1566.—Struggle against Protestants in the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1562-1566.

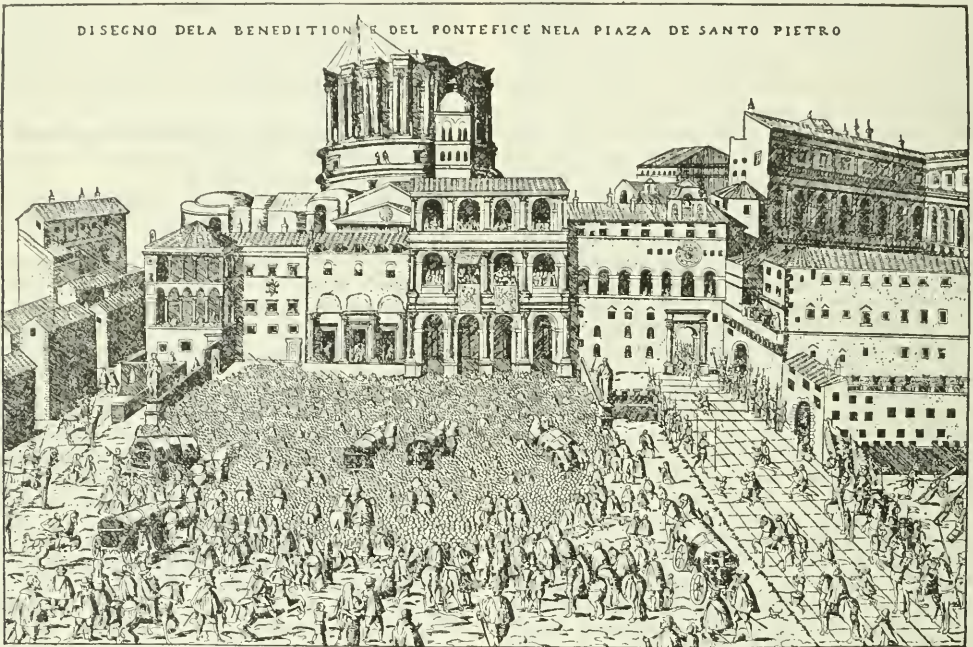
1566.—Election of Pius V.

1570-1571.—Holy League with Venice and Spain against the Turks.—Great battle and victory of Lepanto. See TURKEY: 1566-1571.

1570-1597.—Catholic reaction in Germany.—"Altogether about the year 1570 the spread of protestantism in Germany and the lands under its influence had reached its zenith. . . . Yet beyond a doubt its lasting success was only legally assured in places where it had won over the governing power and could stand on the generally recognized basis of the religious peace. This was the case in the secular principalities of the protestant dynasties, but not in the Wittelsbach and Hapsburg lands, where its lawful existence depended only on the personal concessions of the existing ruler, and still less in the ecclesiastical territories. . . . To give it here the secure legal basis which it lacked was the most important problem, as regarded internal German affairs, of the protestant policy. . . . The only way to attain this was to secure the recognition on the part of the empire of the free right of choosing a confession in the bishoprics; in other words the renunciation of the 'Ecclesiastical Reservation.' . . . This goal could only be attained if the protestants advanced in a solid phalanx. This is, however, just what they could not do. For they themselves were torn by bitter contentions with regard to the faith. . . . From this point of view it was no boon that Calvinism, the specifically French form of protestantism, found entrance also into Germany. . . . Under its influence, to begin with, the Saxon-Thuringian church became divided in its interpretation of the teachings concerning justification and the Lord's Supper. . . . The complications were still further increased when Frederick III. of the Palatinate, elector since 1559, disgusted at the quarrelsomeness of the Lutheran theologians, dismissed the zealot Tilemann in August 1560, and in 1563 gave over the recognized church of the Palatinate to Calvinism. Herewith he completely estranged the Lutherans who did not regard the Calvinists as holding the same faith. . . . Germany could no longer count itself among the great powers and at home the discord was ever increasing. The motion of the Palatinate in the electoral diet of October 1575 to incorporate in the religious peace the so-called 'Declaration of King Ferdinand' with regard to it, and thus to se-

cure the local option with regard to a creed in the bishoprics, was opposed not only by the ecclesiastical members of the electoral college but also by the electorate of Saxony. In consequence of the same party strife a similar motion of the Palatinate, made in the diet of Regensburg, was lost. . . . On the one hand hostilities grew more bitter among the German protestants, on the other the Roman church, supported by the power of the Spanish world-monarchy, advanced everywhere, within and without the German empire, to a well-planned attack. . . . She had won her first victory in the empire with the refusal in 1576 to grant the local option of creed, for this was almost equivalent to a recognition on the protestant side of the 'Ecclesiastical Reservation.' The more eagerly did Rome, by demanding the oath drawn up in the council of Trent, strive to chain fast her bishops to her, to

healthy, natural development and wrought havoc in the moral life of the people. Thus did the reaction gain the ascendancy in most of the ecclesiastical principalities of the South; in the North the scale still hung in the balance. . . . And in this condition of affairs the discord among the protestants grew worse year by year! 'Their war is our peace,' was the exultant cry of the catholics when they looked upon this schism. In order to preserve pure Lutheranism from any deviation, the electoral court of Saxony caused the 'Formula of Concord' to be drawn up by three prominent theologians in the monastery of Bergen near Magdeburg (20 May 1577), and compelled all pastors and teachers of the land to accept them under pain of dismissal from office. As this necessarily accentuated the differences with the Calvinists, John Casimir of the Palatinate endeavored, in the Convention of Frank-



BESTOWING THE PAPAL BLESSING IN THE FORECOURT OF ST. PETER'S

In the rear are the old basilica and the cupola in the course of construction. At the right is the Vatican (After a 16th century engraving. Part of the Fresco in the Coronation of Sixtus V (1585) in the Vatican Library)

remove those who made opposition even if it had to happen by disregarding the law of the land and the religious treaties, to bring zealous catholic men into the episcopal sees—everywhere to set the reaction in motion. The manner of proceeding was always the same: the protestant pastors and teachers were banished; the catholic liturgy, in which the utmost splendor was unfolded, was reintroduced into the churches, and competent catholic clergy were put in office. The members of the community, left without a leader, had now only the choice allowed to them of joining the catholic church or of emigrating; the protestant officials were replaced by catholic ones; new institutions of learning, conducted by Jesuits, were founded for the purpose of winning the rising generation, inwardly also, for catholicism. Beyond a doubt this whole work of restoration put an end in many cases to a confused and untenable state of affairs, but at least as often it crushed down by force a

fort on the Main in 1577, to unite the protestants of all denominations and all lands . . . in a common effort at defence; but his appeal and the embassy which he sent to the evangelical princes met with no very favorable reception. On the contrary in course of time 86 estates of the empire accepted the Formula of Concord which was now published in Dresden, together with the names of those who had signed it, on the 25th of June 1580, the 50th anniversary of handing in the Augsburg Confession. What a pass had matters come to since that great epoch! . . . At any rate the unity of the German protestants was completely at an end, and especially any joint action between Saxony and the Palatinate had been rendered impossible. . . . In 1582 the Roman party opened a well-planned campaign for the purpose of putting itself in full possession of the power in the empire. The emperor belonged as it was to their confession, so all depended on the manner in which the diet

should be made up; and this again depended on who should be members of the college of princes: for in the college of electors the votes of the protestants and catholics were equal inasmuch as the Bohemian vote was 'dormant,' and of the imperial cities only a few were still catholic. In the electoral college, then, the protestants possessed the majority so long as the 'administrators' [of the bishoprics] maintained as hitherto their seat and their vote." But the Catholics, acting unitedly, while the Protestants were hopelessly divided, succeeded at last in expelling Archbishop Gebhard, who had renounced their communion, from the princely see of Cologne, and finally (1597) they secured a majority in the electoral college.—Kaemmel, *Deutsche Geschichte* (tr. from the German), pp. 701-715.

1572 (May).—Election of Gregory XIII.

1572 (August).—Reception at Rome of the news of the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day. See FRANCE: 1572 (August-October).

1573-1592.—Interference in Jesuit rule. See JESUITS: 1573-1592.

1585.—Election of Sixtus V.

1585.—Bull against Henry of Navarre, called "Brutum Fulmen." See FRANCE: 1584-1589.

1585-1921.—Works of Vatican press. See VATICAN: 1585-1921.

1587-1588.—Philip II of Spain encouraged by pope to invade England. See ENGLAND: 1587-1588.

1590 (September).—Election of Urban VII.

1590 (December).—Election of Gregory XIV.

1591.—Election of Innocent IX.

1592.—Election of Clement VIII.

1597.—Annexation of Ferrara to the states of the church.—"The loss which the papal states sustained by the alienation of Parma and Placentia was repaired, before the end of the 16th century, by the acquisition of a duchy little inferior in extent to those territories:—that of Ferrara." With the death, in 1597, of Alfonso II, the persecutor of Tasso, "terminated the legitimate Italian branch of the ancient and illustrious line of Este. But there remained an illegitimate representative of his house, whom he designed for his successor; don Cesare da Este, the grandson of Alfonso I. by a natural son of that duke. The inheritance of Ferrara and Modena had passed in the preceding century to bastards, without opposition from the popes, the feudal superiors of the former duchy. But the imbecile character of don Cesare now encouraged the reigning pontiff, Clement VIII., to declare that all the ecclesiastical fiefs of the house of Este reverted, of right, to the holy see on the extinction of the legitimate line. The papal troops, on the death of Alfonso II. invaded the Ferrarese state; and Cesare suffered himself to be terrified by their approach into an ignominious and formal surrender of that duchy to the holy see. By the indifference of the Emperor Rodolph II. he was permitted to retain the investiture of the remaining possessions of his ancestors: the duchies of Modena and Reggio, over which, as imperial and not papal fiefs, the pope could not decently assert any right. In passing beneath the papal yoke, the duchy of Ferrara, which, under the government of the house of Este, had been one of the most fertile provinces of Italy, soon became a desert and marshy waste. The capital itself lost its industrious population and commercial riches; its architectural magnificence crumbled into ruins, and its modern aspect retains no trace of that splendid court in which literature and art repaid the fostering protection of its sovereigns, by reflecting lustre on their heads."—G. Procter, *History of Italy*, ch. 9.

1605 (April).—Election of Leo XI.

1605 (May).—Election of Paul V.

1605-1700.—Conflict with Venice.—Opposition of Urban VIII to the Emperor.—Annexation of Urbino to the states of the church.—Half a century of unimportant history.—"Paul V. (1605-1621) was imbued with mediæval ideas as to the papal authority and the validity of the canon-law. These speedily brought him into collision with the secular power, especially in Venice, which had always maintained an attitude of independence towards the papacy. Ecclesiastical disputes [growing out of a Venetian decree forbidding alienations of secular property in favor of the churches] were aggravated by the fact that the acquisition of Ferrara had extended the papal states to the frontiers of Venice, and that frequent differences arose as to the boundary line between them. The defence of the republic and of the secular authority in church affairs was undertaken with great zeal and ability by Fra Paolo Sarpi, the famous historian of the Council of Trent. Paul V. did not hesitate to excommunicate the Venetians [1606], but the government compelled the clergy to disregard the pope's edict. The Jesuits, Theatines, and Capuchins were the only orders that adhered to the papacy, and they had to leave the city. If Spain had not been under the rule of the pacific Lerma, it would probably have seized the opportunity to punish Venice for its French alliance. But France and Spain were both averse to war, and Paul V. had to learn that the papacy was powerless without secular support. By the mediation of the two great powers, a compromise was arranged in 1607. The Jesuits, however, remained excluded from Venetian territory for another half-century. This was the first serious reverse encountered by the Catholic reaction. [See VENICE: 1606-1607.] . . . The attention of the Catholic world was now absorbed in the Austrian schemes for the repression of Protestantism in Germany, which received the unhesitating support, both of Paul and of his successor, Gregory XV. [1621-1623]. The latter was a great patron of the Jesuits. Under him the Propaganda was first set on foot. . . . The pontificate of Urban VIII. (1623-1644) was a period of great importance. He regarded himself rather as a temporal prince than as head of the Church. He fortified Rome and filled his states with troops. The example of Julius II. seemed to find an imitator. Urban was imbued with the old Italian jealousy of the imperial power, and allied himself closely with France. . . . At the moment when Ferdinand II. had gained his greatest success in Germany he was confronted with the hostility of the pope. Gustavus Adolphus landed in Germany, and by a strange coincidence Protestantism found support in the temporal interests of the papacy. The Catholics were astounded and dismayed by Urban's attitude. . . . Urban VIII. succeeded in making an important addition to the papal states by the annexation of Urbino, in 1631, on the death of Francesco Maria, the last duke of the Della Rovere family. But in the government of the states he met with great difficulties. . . . Urban VIII's relatives, the Barberini, quarreled with the Farnesi, who had held Parma and Piacenza since the pontificate of Paul III. The pope was induced to claim the district of Castro, and this claim aroused a civil war (1641-1644) in which the papacy was completely worsted. Urban was forced to conclude a humiliating treaty and directly afterwards died. His successors [Innocent X, 1644-1655; Alexander VII, 1655-1667; Clement IX, 1667-1669; Clement X, 1670-1676; Innocent XI, 1676-1680; Alexander VIII, 1680-1691; Innocent XII, 1691-1700] are of very slight importance to the history of Europe. . . . The only important

questions in which the papacy was involved in the latter half of the century were the schism of the Jansenists and the relations with Louis XIV."—R. Lodge, *History of modern Europe*, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: J. E. Darras, *General history of the Catholic church*, period 7, v. 4, ch. 7, period 8, ch. 1-3.—T. A. Trollope, *Paul the pope and Paul the friar*.—A. Robertson, *Fra Paolo Sarpi*.

1618.—Extent of lands claimed by papacy. See EUROPE: Map of central Europe: 1618.

1621.—Election of Gregory XV.

1622.—Founding of College of the Propaganda.—Cardinal Alexander Ludovisio, elected pope on February 9th, 1621, taking the name of Gregory XV, "had always shown the greatest zeal for the conversion of infidels and heretics; this zeal inspired the design of founding the College of the Propaganda (1622). The origin of the Propaganda is properly to be traced to an edict of Gregory XIII., in virtue of which a certain number of cardinals were charged with the direction of missions to the East, and catechisms were ordered to be printed in the less-known languages. But the institution was neither firmly established nor provided with the requisite funds. Gregory XV. gave it a constitution, contributed the necessary funds from his private purse, and as it met a want the existence of which was really felt and acknowledged, its success was daily more and more brilliant. Who does not know what the Propaganda has done for philological learning? But it chiefly labored, with admirable grandeur of conception and energy, to fulfil its great mission—the propagation of the Catholic faith—with the most splendid results. Urban VIII., the immediate successor of Gregory XV., completed the work by the addition of the 'Collegium de Propaganda Fide,' where youth are trained in the study of all the foreign languages, to bear the name of Christ to every nation on the globe."—J. E. Darras, *General history of the Catholic church*, period 7, v. 4, ch. 7, sect. 10.

1623.—Election of Urban VIII.

1623-1626.—Valtelline War. See FRANCE: 1624-1626.

1641.—Massacre of Protestants in Ireland. See IRELAND: 1641

1644-1667.—Pontificates of Innocent X and Alexander VII.—Growth of nepotism.—Sixtus V had "invented a system of nepotism which was so actively followed up by his successors, that even a short reign provided the means of accumulating a brilliant fortune. That pontiff raised one nephew to the rank of cardinal, with a share of the public business and an ecclesiastical income of a hundred thousand crowns. Another he created a marquess, with large estates in the Neapolitan territory. The house of Ferretti thus founded, long maintained a high position, and was frequently represented in the College of Cardinals. The Aldobrandini, founded in like manner by Clement VIII., the Borghesi by Paul V., the Ludovisi by Gregory XV., and the Barberini by Urban VIII., now vied in rank and opulence with the ancient Roman houses of Colonna and Orsini, who boasted that for centuries no peace had been concluded in Christendom in which they were not expressly included. On the death of Urban VIII. (29th July, 1644) the Barberini commanded the votes of eight-and-forty cardinals, the most powerful faction ever seen in the conclave. Still, the other papal families were able to resist their dictation, and the struggle terminated in the election of Cardinal Pamfili, who took the name of Innocent X. During the interval of three months, the city was abandoned to complete lawlessness; assassinations in the streets were frequent; no private house was safe without a military guard,

and a whole army of soldiers found occupation in protecting the property of their employers. This was then the usual state of things during an interregnum. Innocent X., though seventy-two years of age at his election, was full of energy. He restrained the disorders in the city. . . . Innocent brought the Barberini to strict account for malpractices under his predecessor, and wrested from them large portions of their ill-gotten gain. So far, however, from reforming the system out of which these abuses sprang, his nepotism exhibited itself in a form which scandalised even the Roman courtiers. The pope brought his sister-in-law, Donna Olimpia Maidalchini, from Viterbo to Rome, and established her in a palace, where she received the first visits of foreign ambassadors on their arrival, gave magnificent entertainments, and dispensed for her own benefit the public offices of the government. . . . Her daughters were married into the noblest families. Her son, having first been appointed the cardinal-nephew, soon after renounced his orders, married, and became the secular-nephew. The struggle for power between his mother and his wife divided Rome into new factions, and the feud was enlarged by the ambition of a more distant kinsman, whom Innocent appointed to the vacant post of cardinal-nephew. The pontiff sank under a deep cloud from the disorders in his family and the palace, and when he died (5th January, 1655) the corpse lay three days uncared for, till an old canon, who had been long dismissed from his household, expended half-a-crown on its interment. . . . Fabio Chigi, who came next as Alexander VIII. [VII] brought to the tottering chair a spotless reputation, and abilities long proved in the service of the church. His first act was to banish the scandalous widow; her son was allowed to retain her palace and fortune. Beginning with the loudest protestations against nepotism, now the best established institution at Rome, in the phrase of the time, the pope soon 'became a man.' The courtiers remonstrated on his leaving his family to live a plain citizen's life at Siena: it might involve the Holy See in a misunderstanding with Tuscany. . . . The question was gravely proposed in consistory, and the flood-gates being there authoritatively unclosed, the waters of preferment flowed abundantly on all who had the merit to be allied with Fabio Chigi. After discharging this arduous duty, the pope relieved himself of further attention to business, and spent his days in literary leisure. His nephews, however, had less power than formerly, from the growth of the constitutional principle. The cardinals, in their different congregations, with the official secretaries, aspired to the functions of responsible advisers."—G. Trevor, *Rome, from the fall of the Western empire*, pp. 416-418.—See also ROME: Modern city: 1664.

1646.—Hostility of Mazarin and France. See ITALY: 1646-1654.

1653.—First condemnation of Jansenism. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.

1654-1655.—Persecution of Waldenses. See WALDENSES: 1655.

1655-1659.—Great schism in the Russian church known as the Rascol. See RUSSIA: 1655-1659.

1667.—Election of Clement IX.

1670.—Election of Clement X.

1676.—Election of Innocent XI.

1676-1689.—End of nepotism.—Doctrine of casuistry.—"Innocent XI. [1676-1689] . . . found the revenues of the See of Rome in a lamentable state of deficiency, and by various reforms, such as by abolishing the College of Secretaries, lowering the rate of interest on loans, and by differ-

ent sumptuary reforms, he succeeded in balancing his accounts, and even providing the papal treasury with a surplus. . . . He made laws against the luxury of women's attire, suppressed gambling houses, and enforced a stricter standard of living on religious, both men and women, but the Pope was inflexible and incorruptible, and by his steady refusal to have his family around him, or to enrich them, he gave almost the final blow to nepotism. Out of moral theology grew the practical science of casuistry, or the art of applying the various principles of that science to the particular cases of conscience which might call for solution."—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, p. 552.

1682-1693.—Successful contest with Louis XIV.—Gallicanism.—"When Alexander died in 1667, a unanimous vote of his colleagues raised Cardinal Rospigliosi to the papal chair. Perhaps Clement IX. was the most amiable pope that ever sat in Peter's place. . . . His influence was felt on a large scale in the great work of the pacification of Europe. The 'Pax Clementina,' giving some interval of repose in the Jansenist controversy, was his work; so also was, to a great extent, the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1667, which ended the strife between France and Spain on a basis very honourable, to the power of Louis XIV. . . . In 1669, when he [Clement] died in his seventieth year, the conclave was a long and troublesome one. It was more than four months before, all the leading candidates being set aside, the votes were united upon the aged Cardinal Altieri, eighty years of age. . . . It was an expedient to secure a short reign. But it was not to be so very short after all. Altieri assumed the name of Clement X., and filled in the greater part of his ninth decade, dying in his eighty-seventh year. . . . Cardinal Odescalchi had been a strong candidate in the conclave which elected Clement X., but Louis XIV. had instructed the French cardinals to oppose him, and now the same difficulty turned up again. There was the same French opposition, and the same deadlock. But cardinals and Roman people were united in their wish to have the cardinal [who was elected and took the title of Innocent XI]. . . . At once the new Pope had to take up the contest against the usurpations on ecclesiastical right which the French Court was practising under the pretext of '*Jus Regalium*,' which meant that the revenues of all vacant sees were to go to the Crown. A limited right of this kind, with regard to some dioceses, had been admitted even in the thirteenth century, but the Council of Lyons (1274) had forbidden its further extension, and this was what the French king was now doing. . . . A wearisome and hot controversy was carried on, but neither Pope nor king would yield."—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 550-551.—"Ever since the days of Hugh Capet, the French bishops had complained of Rome's encroachments, and had made much of the comparative independence of the Gallican Church [see GALRICAN CHURCH] with regard to Rome, in which sentiment they had the sympathies of the Crown. In the days of Henry IV. (1594), when the reaction against the League had again exalted the Crown, and when the thought of the power and significance of the State had gained greater distinctness, Pithou had collected the documents upon which were founded the so-called Gallican rights. The programme of Gallicanism turned upon these two chief propositions; that the Kings of France were in secular matters independent of the Pope; and that the Pope's spiritual authority was limited by the laws of the Church. From the first

proposition they concluded that the King, as the born protector of the Church, had the right of calling together national and provincial Councils in his dominions, in order with their help to legislate for the Church, and that the Pope's Bulls could not be published in France without the King's consent (*pareatis, placet*). Gallicanism took a strong hold, partly because the bishops were indisposed to submit to Rome, and partly because the sense which the Parliaments entertained of their own independence was steadily on the increase; and with the national movement in the beginning of the 17th century the Gallican theory gained still more adherents. . . . The Crown gained much by the spread of Gallicanism. Gallicanism was to no small degree promoted by legists who had studied the Roman law and who sought to introduce the conceptions of Roman law into French territory. Without reserve it allowed to the King divine authority and made him the equal of the Pope. . . . On the strength of his divine authority the King is lord over the property of the Church, and in this way he acquires the means to satisfy the nobles, and to keep the third estate in check. But power brings its duties. Just as the Roman Empire from the beginning was tinged with a spiritual character, so the Most Christian King in France had, according to the theory of the Gallicans, ecclesiastical obligations. He was not only bound to watch over Church and school, but also to extirpate all heresies. . . . Gallicanism reached its height under Louis XIV. The Gallican theory concerning the origin and rights of the Crown gave the basis for his autocracy. He believed fully in his ecclesiastical mission, but he also took a firm stand upon the fundamental Gallican propositions. When Ultramontanism [see ULTRAMONTANE] began to raise its head, the Sorbonne fearlessly declared (in 1663) that it was not the doctrine of that renowned faculty that the Pope had any authority whatever over the Most Christian King in secular concerns, or that the Pope could take any measures which conflicted with the law of the French Church. At the same time the Sorbonne repudiated the assertion that the Pope was above a General Council or could be infallible without the consent of the Church (*nullo accedente Ecclesie consensu*). This declaration was confirmed by Louis XIV., and he forbade any other teaching in his kingdom. Following upon this, the Sorbonne pronounced censure upon several works of an ultramontane tendency, and when Alexander VII. in a severe Bull disapproved of the censure, the Parliament of Paris, with the King's consent, opposed the publication of the papal Bull. . . . At that time the French priesthood was assembled in synod at Paris (1681-1682). The Gallican spirit which prevailed amongst the prelates present displayed itself. . . . The assembly approved of Louis XIV's extension of the *droit de régale*, and accepted the four Gallican propositions, which maintained that the secular power was independent of the spiritual, that a General Council was above the Pope, that the ancient rules of the Gallican Church were not to be violated, and that it was a valid affirmation that the Pope's decrees in matters of faith are only incapable of being reversed (*irreformabiles*) when they have the Church's assent (*Ecclesie consensu*). This famous Gallican declaration for a while obtained in France the authority of a religious formula. Louis XIV. made it the basis of religious instruction in all French schools, and required that everyone who wished to take a degree in divinity or law should take his oath to observe it. The Pope felt his spiritual authority

greatly outraged by the four Gallican propositions, and never since the days of Francis I. had the relations between the papal power and the French King been so strained. When Louis XIV. went on to fill the French sees with prominent members of this Gallican-minded synod, the patience of Innocent XI. gave way, and he refused to permit the new bishops to receive the canonical institution, without which they could not perform a bishop's duties. It was in vain that Louis XIV. sought to appease the angry Pope by crowning his persecutions of the Protestants with the treacherous revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the token of a complete break with Richelieu's policy, and forming a challenge to all the Protestant powers of Europe. . . . As Louis XIV. would not yield, Innocent at last laid an interdict upon the church of St. Louis at Rome, where the French embassy used to hear Mass. By way of a rejoinder, Louis laid siege to Avignon, and appealed to a General Council. . . . The situation at this time was so dangerous for Rome, that Innocent XI. in spite of his dislike of Protestantism found it expedient to promise great subsidies to the Prince of Orange, in the hope that he might defend the interests of the Roman Church against Louis XIV. upon the Rhine. By this means the Papacy unwillingly came to pave the Protestant prince's way to the English throne. . . . The seriousness of the circumstances soon compelled Louis XIV. to show a conciliatory disposition towards the Papacy. Already under Innocent XI.'s successor, Alexander VIII. [1689] he restored Avignon and opened negotiations. But not until the time of Innocent XII. [who assumed the tiara July 12, 1691] was peace with Rome concluded, upon the condition that the French bishops, who had hitherto been unable to obtain the recognition of Rome, should profess their 'inexpressible grief' at the declaration of 1682, while Louis XIV. informed the Pope that he had given the necessary orders for depriving the four Gallican propositions of their rank as an authoritative formula in France. Thus the Papacy came victorious out of the conflict; but the strife over the Gallican rights was nevertheless in the highest degree fraught with consequences for Rome."—F. Nielsen, *History of the papacy in the XIXth century*, v. 1, pp. 7-12.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the popes*, v. 2, bk. 8, sec. 16.

1689.—Election of Alexander VIII.

1691.—Election of Innocent XII.

1700.—Election of Clement XI.

1700-1790.—Effects of the War of the Spanish Succession.—Declining Powers.—The issue of the War of the Spanish Succession "will serve to show us that when the Pope was not, as in his contest with Louis XIV., favoured by political events, he could no longer laugh to scorn the edicts of European potentates. Charles II. of Spain, that wretched specimen of humanity, weak in body, and still weaker in mind, haunted by superstitious terrors which almost unsettled his reason, was now, in the year 1700, about to descend to a premature grave. He was without male issue, and was uncertain to whom he should bequeath the splendid inheritance transmitted to him by his ancestors. The Pope, Innocent XII., who was wholly in the interests of France, urged him to bequeath Spain, with its dependencies, to Philip, Duke of Anjou, the grandson of Louis XIV., who claimed through his grandmother, the eldest sister of Charles. He would thus prevent the execution of the partition treaty concluded between France, England, and Holland, according to which the Archduke Charles . . . was to have Spain, the

Indies, and the Netherlands, while France took the Milanese, or the Province of Lorraine. The Archbishop of Toledo seconded the exhortation of the Pope, and so worked on the superstitious terrors of the dying monarch that he signed a will in favour of the Duke of Anjou, which was the cause of lamentation, and mourning, and woe, for twelve years, throughout Europe, from the Vistula to the Atlantic Ocean. [See SPAIN: 1701-1702; ENGLAND: 1701-1702.] . . . The Duke of Marlborough's splendid victories of Blenheim and Ramillies . . . placed the Emperor Joseph (1705-11), the brother of the Archduke Charles, in possession of Germany and the Spanish Netherlands [See GERMANY: 1704; NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707]; and the victory of Prince Eugene before Turin made him supreme in the north of Italy and the kingdom of Naples [see ITALY: 1701-1713]. The Pope, Clement XI., was now reduced to a most humiliating position. Political events had occurred . . . which served to show very plainly that the Pope, without a protector, could not, as in former days, bid defiance to the monarchs of Europe. [See ROME: Modern city: 1707.] His undutiful son, the Emperor, compelled him to resign part of his territories as a security for his peaceful demeanour, and to acknowledge the Archduke Charles, the Austrian claimant to the Spanish throne. The peace of Utrecht, concluded in 1713 [see UTRECHT: 1712-1714], which produced the dismemberment of the monarchy, but left Philip in the peaceful occupation of the throne of Spain, did indeed release him from that obligation; but it did not restore him to the 'high and palmy state' which he occupied before he was obliged to submit to the Imperial arms. It inflicted a degradation upon him, for it transferred to other sovereigns, without his consent, his fiefs of Sicily and Sardinia. Now, also, it became manifest that the Pope could no longer assert an indirect sovereignty over the Italian States; for, notwithstanding his opposition, it conferred a large extent of territory on the Duke of Savoy, which has, in our day, been expanded into a kingdom under the sceptre of Victor Emmanuel and his successor. We have a further evidence of the decline of the Papacy in the change in the relative position of the States of Europe as Papal and anti-Papal during the eighteenth century, after the death of Louis XIV. The Papal powers of Spain in the sixteenth century, and of France, Spain, and Austria, in the latter half of the seventeenth century, determined the policy of Europe. . . . On the other hand, England, Prussia, and Russia became, in the eighteenth century, the great leading powers in the world. . . . The Pope, then, no longer stood at the head of those powers which swayed the destinies of Europe. . . . The Papacy, from the death of Louis XIV. till the time of the French Revolution, led a very quiet and obscure life. It had no part in any of the great events which during the eighteenth century were agitating Europe, and gained no spiritual or political victories."—A. R. Pennington, *Epochs of the papacy*, ch. 10.

1713.—Bull *Unigenitus* and the Christian doctrines it condemned. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1702-1715; BULLS, PAPAL: 1713.

1715.—Extent of land belonging to papacy. See EUROPE: Map of central Europe: 1715.

1721.—Election of Innocent XIII.

1724.—Election of Benedict XIII.

1730.—Election of Clement XII.

1738.—Bull against Freemasons. See MASONIC SOCIETIES: Anti-Masonic agitations.

1740.—Election of Benedict XIV.

1740-1758.—Reign of Benedict XIV.—Conces-

sions in temporalities to Portugal and Spain.—Benedict XIV “was crowned in St. Peter’s on the 22nd August, 1740. . . . The first steps were taken with regard to Portugal. Here, by an arrangement which the Pope ratified, the king gained the right of presentation to all the sees and abbeys in the kingdom, and later on the title of Most Faithful King. These were large concessions, but Spain was treated with almost equal liberality. Permission was granted for the State to tax the income of the clergy by special taxation, and the presentation to the greater part of the benefices was put into the king’s hands. Then came the turn of the King of Sardinia. He was named Vicar of the Holy See, and it was understood that this carried with it the right of nomination to all the Church benefices in his dominions, and the right to the income of the pontifical fiefs comprised within the same frontiers. . . . Benedict successfully mediated between the King of Naples and the Knights of Malta in a matter of deep controversy between them; and with a view to adjust the rival claims of Austria and Venice on the Patriarchate of Aquileia, . . . [he] strove to make peace by suppressing the see, and dividing the jurisdiction between two dioceses. In this way, when Benedict had come to the close of his career in 1758, there remained, outwardly at least, but very few causes of quarrel with the Roman See in any part of the world. . . . Benedict was a sagacious and moderate ruler of the Papal States. The great outlay incurred for buildings and extravagant display in former reigns was cut down, usury was condemned and legislated against, agriculture and commerce were both equally encouraged, and order introduced into places where corruption and disorder had gained the upper hand. . . . Benedict XIV. grappled with the difficult subject of mixed marriages between Catholics and non-Catholics which were becoming more and more frequent, and the bulls of this Pontiff, with the conditions he laid down, have been the guiding stars for the Church almost to our own times.”—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 576-577.—See also ROME: Modern city: 1740-1799.

1741-1783.—Febronianism.—Articles of Coblenz.—Visit of the pope to Vienna.—Illuminati.—“In 1741, after the death of Charles VI., when the German electors met to choose a new emperor, the papal nuncio, Doria, like former nuncios on similar occasions, did his best to induce the ecclesiastical electors to cancel the fourteenth article in the stipulations of election, obliging the emperor to oppose certain Roman encroachments, and to acknowledge the rights of Protestantism in accordance with the terms of the Peace of Westphalia, and with various Acts of the Diet. Instead of giving in upon this point, the electors expressed the wish that Rome would satisfy those complaints which for many centuries had found vent in the so-called *gravamina nationis Germanicæ*. A privy councillor of the Elector of Trier, named Von Spangenberg, . . . was commissioned, together with an official of Trier, Johann von Hontheim, to enquire what was the real state of the case with regard to these *gravamina*, which had played a particularly prominent part at the time of the Reformation, and how far the constitution of the German Catholic Church was in accordance with existing laws. . . . Under the name of *Justinus Febronius*, Hontheim brought out a book *De statu ecclesie et legitima potestate Romani Pontificis*, which contains the Gallican system transplanted to German soil. . . . In France, Gallicanism supported the rights of the French king; . . . to Febronius it became the assertions of the rights

of each territorial prince. At the Council of Trent it had not been decided whether the bishops received their authority directly from God or from the Pope. Febronius held the former view; and he believed that the Roman Church would regain its old power of attracting, if this view were universally enforced. . . . The nuncios at Cologne and Vienna at once sent Febronius’ book to Rome, and in February 1764 it was placed on the Index. [Hontheim was later obliged to recant; but the book was widely read and] Febronianism had made many conquests. Even before the appearance of Hontheim’s famous book, the ultramontane system and the doctrine of the Pope’s infallibility had begun to be put in the background in the Roman Catholic schools and class books of Germany. The Jesuits were in reality overthrown in Germany before the order was abolished. When Clement XIV. had succeeded Clement XIII. in 1769, Emmerich Joseph of Breitenbach, Elector of Mainz (1763-1774), . . . proposed that commissioners from the three Rhenish electors should meet at Coblenz and consult on the question of demanding ‘the correction of various abuses,’ and especially with regard to the best way of securing ‘the restoration of the original episcopal power.’ These deliberations, which lasted from September till December, led to the drawing up of the thirty Latin ‘Articles of Coblenz,’ of which nearly all are aimed at the arrogance of Rome and the extortions of the Roman chancery. . . . After the fall of the Jesuits, Febronianism rushed to the front everywhere in Germany. The German Benedictines, Cistercians, Franciscans, and Augustinians, and especially the numerous professors in Germany, who after the disappearance of the Jesuits were not members of any order, fearlessly acknowledged the doctrine of the Council of Constance, that a General Council of the Church was superior to the Pope, and professed the Gallican principles of ecclesiastical law. . . . Even crowned heads fell more and more under the power of the Gallicanism and Febronianism which was in the air. . . . At Vienna there was a circle of administrative officers and of professors, who not only maintained the superiority of the Councils to the Papacy, but also the power of the State in church matters and the civil duties owed by the priesthood to the State. Their doctrine of the ‘omnipotent’ State, made an early impression upon Joseph II. [who, when he became sole ruler, soon began to limit the power of the papacy in the Austrian dominions. He granted freedom of the press, directed religious orders to confer with their generals in Rome only through the Austrian envoy at the papal court, permitted Protestants to have meeting houses, in places where there were at least a hundred Protestant families, and gave some measure of freedom to the Jews. In 1782 he issued a rescript to abolish monasteries not useful for the purpose of education, sick-nursing or study. Under this rescript 783 monastic establishments were dissolved. This reduction of convents by Joseph was imitated] in the beginning of the following century in Baden, Bavaria, and Würtemberg. . . . Before Joseph II.’s reforms three-eighths of all landed property was in the hands of the Church, and the wealth of the convents was enormous. . . . In defence of these reforms the Bishop of Laibach issued a pastoral letter (1783) in which he maintained that all bishops had equal power, and that the first among them, although he was the successor of St. Peter, had no rights of jurisdiction over the others; to him was only given the task of preventing schisms and maintaining unity, and also of watching over the purity of the Catholic Faith. The monastic

orders were human institutions which had degenerated in the course of time; the Church could well do without them, and the closing of convents would in no wise injure religion. [The pope visited Vienna, but found the emperor obdurate and after his visit] Joseph II. continued in the path of reforms, but 'quite gently.' . . . [Later on, however, he was in a measure reconciled to the Pope.] Leopold II., who succeeded his brother on the imperial throne, approved of the church policy of Joseph. . . . Before he became Emperor he had endeavoured to the best of his power to pave the way for Jansenism and Gallicanism in his Grand Duchy. . . . Just as Gallicanism, in the course of time, was in many cases influenced by the philosophical school, so Febronianism was influenced both by *l'esprit philosophique*, and by German rationalism. In 1776 a secret order was formed in Germany, the so-called 'Illuminati.' Their organisation was framed after the pattern of both the Jesuit order and the Freemasons; and their object was to fight for the light against the darkness of superstition, and especially against all Jesuitism. [Thus, even in this stronghold, the power of the papacy began to decline.]—F. Nielsen, *History of the papacy in the XIXth century*, v. 1, pp. 109-110, 112-113, 115-117, 120-121, 124-125, 135.—See also FEBRONIUS; EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary period.

ALSO IN: G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 589-590.

1744.—Noble guard and its duties. See VATICAN: 1744.

1756-1759.—Quarrel between church and state.

—Jansenists.—Banishment of Archbishop Beaumont. See FRANCE: 1756-1759.

1758.—Election of Clement XIII.

1765-1769.—Defense of the Jesuits, on their expulsion from France, Spain, Parma, Venice, Modena and Bavaria. See JESUITS: 1761-1769.

1769.—Election of Clement XIV.

1773.—Suppression of Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1757-1773; 1769-1871.

1775.—Election of Pius VI.

1789-1810.—Founding of Roman episcopate in the United States of America.—In 1789, the first episcopal see of the Roman Catholic church in the United States was founded, at Baltimore, by a bull of Pope Pius VI, which appointed Father John Carroll to be its bishop. In 1810, Bishop Carroll "was raised to the dignity of Archbishop, and four suffragan dioceses were created, with their respective sees at Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and Bardstown, in Kentucky."—J. A. Russell, *Catholic church in the United States (History of the third plenary council of Baltimore)*, pp. 16-18).

1790-1791.—Revolution at Avignon.—Reunion of the province with France. See FRANCE: 1790-1791: Revolution at Avignon; Oath of the clergy.

1796.—First extortions of Bonaparte from the pope. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

1797.—Treaty of Tolentino.—Papal territory taken by Bonaparte to add to Cispadane and Cisalpine republics. See FRANCE: 1796-1797 (October-April).

1797-1798.—French occupation of Rome.—Formation of Roman republic.—Removal of the pope. See FRANCE: 1797-1798 (December-May).

1800.—Election of Pius VII.

1802.—Concordat with Napoleon.—Ultramontane influence. See FRANCE: 1801-1804; CONCORDAT: 1515-1801.

1804.—Journey of the pope to Paris for coronation of Napoleon. See FRANCE: 1804-1805.

1805-1806.—Conduct of Napoleon towards the

pope. See FRANCE: 1805-1806 (December-September).

1808-1814.—Conflict of Pius VII with Napoleon.—French seizure of Rome and Papal States.—Captivity of the pope at Savona and Fontainebleau.—Concordat of 1813 and its retraction.—Napoleon "had long been quarrelling with Pius VII., to make a tool of whom he had imposed the concordat on France. The Pope resisted, as the Emperor might have expected, and, not obtaining the price of his compliance, hindered the latter's plans in every way that he could. He resisted as head of the Church and as temporal sovereign of Rome, refusing to close his dominions either to the English or to Neapolitan refugees of the Bourbon party. Napoleon would not allow the Pope to act as a monarch independent of the Empire, but insisted that he was amenable to the Emperor, as temporal prince, just as his predecessors were amenable to Charlemagne. They could not agree, and Napoleon, losing patience, took military possession of Rome and the Roman State."—H. Martin, *Popular history of France, since 1789*, v. 2, ch. 12.—In February, 1808, "the French troops, who had already taken possession of the whole of Tuscany, in virtue of the resignation forced upon the Queen of Etruria, invaded the Roman territories, and made themselves masters of the ancient capital of the world. They immediately occupied the castle of St. Angelo, and the gates of the city, and entirely dispossessed the papal troops. Two months afterwards, an imperial decree of Napoleon severed the provinces of Ancona, Urbino, Macerata, and Camerino, which had formed part of the ecclesiastical estates, . . . for nearly a thousand years, and annexed them to the kingdom of Italy. The reason assigned for this spoliation was, 'That the actual sovereign of Rome has constantly declined to declare war against the English, and to coalesce with the Kings of Italy and Naples for the defence of the Italian peninsula. The interests of these two kingdoms, as well as of the armies of Naples and Italy, require that their communications should not be interrupted by a hostile power.'—A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1789-1815*, v. 11, ch. 51.—The pope protested in vain against such violence. Napoleon paid no attention. . . . He confiscated the wealth of the cardinals who did not return to the place of their birth. He disarmed nearly all the guards of the Holy Father—the nobles of this guard were imprisoned. Finally, Miollis [the French commander] had Cardinal Gabrielle, pro-Secretary of State, carried off, and put seals upon his papers. On May 17, 1809, a decree was issued by Napoleon, dated from Vienna, proclaiming the union (in his quality of successor to Charlemagne) of the States of the pope with the French Empire, ordaining that the city of Rome should be a free and imperial city; that the pope should continue to have his seat there, and that he should enjoy a revenue of 2,000,000 francs. [See also ROME: Modern city: 1800-1814.] On June 10, he had this decree promulgated at Rome. On this same June 10, the pope protested against all these spoliations, refused all pensions, and recapitulating all the outrages of which he had cause to complain, issued the famous and imprudent bull of excommunication against the authors, favourers, and executors of the acts of violence against him and the Holy See, but without naming any one. Napoleon was incensed at it, and on the first impulse he wrote to the bishops of France a letter in which he spoke in almost revolutionary terms 'of him who wished,' said he, 'to make dependent upon a perishable

temporal power the eternal interest of consciences, and that of all spiritual affairs.' On the 6th of July, 1809, Pius VII, taken from Rome, after he had been asked if he would renounce the temporal sovereignty of Rome and of the States of the Church, was conducted by General Radet as far as Savona, where he arrived alone, August 10, the cardinals having all been previously transported to Paris. And to complete the spoliation of the pope, Napoleon issued on the 17th of February, 1810, a *senatus-consultum* which bestowed upon the eldest son of the emperor the title of King of Rome, and even ordained that the emperor should be consecrated a second time at Rome, in the first ten years of his reign. It was while oppressed, captive and deprived of all council, that the pope refused the bulls to all the bishops named by the emperor, and then it was that all the discussions relative to the proper measures to put an end to the vuidity of the churches were commenced. . . . The year 1810, far from bringing any alleviation to the situation of the pope and giving him, according to the wishes and prayers of the ecclesiastic commission, a little more liberty, aggravated, on the contrary, this situation, and rendered his captivity harder. In effect, on February 17, 1810, appeared the *senatus-consultum* pronouncing the union of the Roman States with the French Empire; the independence of the imperial throne of all authority on earth, and annulling the temporal existence of the popes. This *senatus-consultum* assured a pension to the pope, but it ordained also that the pope should take oath to do nothing in opposition to the four articles of 1682. [See above: 1682-1693.] . . . The pope must have consoled himself, . . . even to rejoicing, that they made the insulting pension they offered him depend upon the taking of such an oath, and it is that which furnished him with a reply so nobly apostolic: that he had no need of this pension, and that he would live on the charity of the faithful. . . . The rigorous treatment to which the Holy Father was subjected at Savona was continued during the winter of 1811-1812, and in the following spring. At this time, it seems there was some fear, on the appearance of an English squadron, that it might carry off the pope; and the emperor gave the order to transfer him to Fontainebleau. This unhappy old man left Savona, June 10, and was forced to travel day and night. He fell quite ill at the hospice of Mont Cenis; but they forced him none the less to continue his journey. They had compelled him to wear such clothes . . . as not to betray who he was on the way they had to follow. They took great care also to conceal his journey from the public, and the secret was so profoundly kept, that on arriving at Fontainebleau, June 19, the concierge, who had not been advised of his arrival, and who had made no preparation, was obliged to receive him in his own lodgings. The Holy Father was a long time before recovering from the fatigue of this painful journey, and from the needlessly rigorous treatment to which they had subjected him. The cardinals not disgraced by Napoleon, who were in Paris, as well as the Archbishop of Tours, the Bishop of Nantes, the Bishop of Evreux, and the Bishop of Trèves, were ordered to go and see the pope. . . . The Russian campaign, marked by so many disasters, was getting to a close. The emperor on his return to Paris, December 18, 1812, still cherished chimerical hopes, and was meditating without doubt, more gigantic projects. Before carrying them out, he wished to take up again the affairs of the Church, either because he repented not having finished with

them at Savona, or because he had the fancy to prove that he could do more in a two hours' tête-à-tête with the pope, than had been done by the council, its commissions, and its most able negotiators. He had beforehand, however, taken measures which were to facilitate his personal negotiation. The Holy Father had been surrounded for several months by cardinals and prelates, who, either from conviction or from submission to the emperor, depicted the Church as having arrived at a state of anarchy which put its existence in peril. They repeated incessantly to the pope, that if he did not get reconciled with the emperor and secure the aid of his power to arrest the evil, schism would be inevitable. Finally, the Sovereign pontiff overwhelmed by age, by infirmities, by the anxiety and cares with which his mind was worried, found himself well prepared for the scene Napoleon had planned to play, and which was to assure him what he believed to be a success. On January 19, 1813, the emperor, accompanied by the Empress Marie Louise, entered the apartment of the Holy Father unexpectedly, rushed to him and embraced him with effusion. Pius VII., surprised and affected, allowed himself to be induced, after a few explanations, to give his approbation to the propositions that were imposed, rather than submitted to him. They were drawn up in eleven articles, which were not yet a compact, but which were to serve as the basis of a new act. On January 24, the emperor and the pope affixed their signatures to this strange paper, which was lacking in the usual diplomatic forms, since they were two sovereigns who had treated directly together. It was said in these articles, that the pope would exercise the pontificate in France, and in Italy;—that his ambassadors and those in authority near him, should enjoy all diplomatic privileges;—that such of his domains which were not disposed of should be free from taxes, and that those which were transferred should be replaced by an income of 2,000,000 francs;—that the pope should nominate, whether in France or in Italy, to episcopal sees which should be subsequently fixed; that the suburban sees should be re-established, and depend on the nomination of the pope, and that the unsold lands of these sees should be restored; that the pope should give bishoprics 'in partibus' to the Roman bishops absent from their diocese by force of circumstances, and that he should serve them a pension equal to their former revenue, until such time as they should be appointed to vacant sees; that the emperor and the pope should agree in opportune time as to the reduction to be made if it took place, in the bishoprics of Tuscany and of the country about Geneva, as well as to the institution of bishoprics in Holland, and in the Hanseatic departments; that the propaganda, the confessional, and the archives should be established in the place of sojourn of the Holy Father; finally, that His Imperial Majesty bestowed his good graces upon the cardinals, bishops, priests, and laymen, who had incurred his displeasure in connection with actual events. . . . The news of the signing of the treaty occasioned great joy among the people, but it appears that that of the pope was of short duration. The sacrifices he had been led to make were hardly consummated, than he experienced bitter grief; this could but be increased in proportion as the exiled and imprisoned cardinals, Consalvi, Pacca, di Pietro, on obtaining their liberty, received also the authorization to repair to Fontainebleau. What passed then between the Holy Father and these cardinals I do not pretend to know; but it must be that Napoleon had been warned by some symptoms of what was about to

happen; for, in spite of the agreement he had made with the pope to consider the eleven articles only as preliminaries which were not to be published, he decided nevertheless to make them the object of a message that the arch-chancellor was charged to submit to the senate. This premature publicity given to an act which the pope so strongly regretted having signed must have hastened his retraction which he addressed to the emperor by a brief, on March 24, 1813. . . . This time, the emperor, although greatly irritated by the retraction, believed it was to his interest not to make any noise about it, and decided to take outwardly no notice of it. He had two decrees published: one of February 13, and the other of March 25, 1813. By the first, the new Concordat of January 25 was declared state law; by the second, he declared it obligatory upon archbishops, bishops, and chapters, and ordered, according to Article IV of this Concordat that the archbishops should confirm the nominated bishops, and in case of refusal, ordained that they should be summoned before the tribunals. He restricted anew the liberty that had been given momentarily to the Holy Father, and Cardinal di Pietro returned to exile. Thereupon, Napoleon started, soon after, for that campaign of 1813 in Germany, the prelude to that which was to lead to his downfall. The decrees issued 'ab irato' were not executed, and during the vicissitudes of the campaign of 1813, the imperial government attempted several times to renew with the pope negotiations which failed. Matters dragged along thus, and no one could foresee any issue when, on January 23, 1814, it was suddenly learned that the pope had left Fontainebleau that very day, and returned to Rome. . . . Murat, who had abandoned the cause of the emperor, and who . . . had treated with the coalition, was then occupying the States of the Church, and it is evident that Napoleon in his indignation against Murat, preferred to allow the pope to re-enter his States, to seeing them in the hands of his brother-in-law. While Pius VII was en route and the emperor was fighting in Champagne, a decree of March 10, 1814, announced that the pope was taking possession again of the part of his States which formed the departments of Rome and Trasmania. The lion, although vanquished, would not yet let go all the prey he hoped surely to retake. . . . The pope arrived on April 30, at Cesena, on May 12, at Ancona, and made his solemn entry into Rome on May 24, 1814."—Talleyrand, *Memoirs*, v. 2, pt. 6.

ALSO IN: D. Silvagni, *Rome: Its princes, priests and people*, v. 2, ch. 35-39.—C. Botta, *Italy during the consulate and empire of Napoleon*, ch. 5-8.—M. de Bourrienne, *Private memoirs of Napoleon*, v. 4, ch. 6, 11-12.—*Selections from the letters and despatches of Napoleon*, by Captain Bingham, v. 2-3.—*Memoirs of Napoleon dictated at St. Helena*, v. 5 (*Historical Miscellany*, v. 1).—P. Lanfrey, *History of Napoleon*, v. 3, ch. 13, 16.

1814.—Restoration of Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1769-1871.

1815.—Restoration of Papal States. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF; Italy: 1814-1815.

1823.—Election of Leo XII.

1829.—Election of Pius VIII.

1831.—Election of Gregory XVI.

1831-1832.—Revolt of Papal States, suppressed by Austrian troops. See ITALY: 1830-1832.

1846-1849.—Election of Pius IX.—Liberal reforms.—Revolution at Rome.—Pope's flight.—Restoration by the French. See ITALY: 1848-1849; ROME: Modern city: 1849.

1848-1850.—Increased influence of the papacy.

—"It was not till April, 1850, that . . . [the pope, Pius IX., returned from Naples. (See ROME: Modern city: 1815-1849.)] The Romans remained coldly silent; his only support was the French bayonets. The capital of Christendom did not thereby become more churchly-minded. . . . During the same year, 1848, in which the pope, after having been idolised, became a hated exile, the power of the Papacy was in almost all countries extraordinarily increased. A number of very dissimilar causes co-operated towards this result, the mistakes of opponents no less than the efforts of friends. The governments above all, seduced by the magic formula of the 'solidarity of conservative interests,' increased the favour formerly shown to the Curia as the 'oldest conservative power.' So-called 'orthodox' Protestants coquetted with Roman ecclesiasticism; in all Protestant churches the crypto-papal tendencies gained in influence and partially succeeded in capturing the ecclesiastical authorities. Even more effective were the operations of the revolutionary party, which, blind to the true significance of religion, tended to strengthen the influence of the priesthood. The public elections often showed that the cities were outvoted by the people of the country under the leadership of the priests; unbelief, as always, brought superstition in its wake. All external conditions were shaping themselves favourably to the Papacy; Protestantism was powerless, or else its representatives gave open aid to the enemy; and all the while the compact force of Curialism, working with immense and magnificent energy, knew how to use the right moment to fish in troubled waters. . . . The rushing waters of the revolution were led into the bed of clerical societies; there was formed a whole series of German 'Catholic' associations, the deposit of revolutionary fermentation. Alongside of the open societies were the secret congregations and fraternities, and in the track of both came the Jesuit missions. All these separate, apparently scattered forces were not split up, but were made to operate toward the same common end: not only to make the Church into a state within a state, but also to subject to it the whole spiritual life of the people, in the school, in matrimony, and in the press; and this end was achieved by the wise policy of the episcopate, which from the first moment made it the object of their efforts to exploit the triumphs of the revolution in their own interests. To all this are to be added the tactics of the Vatican itself, turning all circumstances to immediate advantage. Thus it was enabled, by its direction of the army of auxiliaries, to convert the year of its adversity into a year of triumph."—F. Nippold, *Papacy in the 19th century*, pp. 125-128.—See also ROME: Modern city: 1850-1870.

1850.—Restoration of Roman episcopate in England.—"The Reformation had deprived the Church of Rome of an official home on English soil. . . . But a few people had remained faithful to the Church of their forefathers, and a handful of priests had braved the risks attendant on the discharge of their duties to it. Rome, moreover, succeeded in maintaining some sort of organisation in England. In the first instance her Church was placed under an archpriest. From 1623 to 1688 it was placed under a Vicar Apostolic, that is a Bishop, nominally appointed to some foreign see, with a brief enabling him to discharge episcopal duties in Great Britain. This policy was not very successful. Smith, the second Vicar Apostolic, was banished in 1629, and, though he lived till 1655, never returned to England. The Pope did not venture on appointing a successor to him for thirty

years. . . . On the eve of the Revolution [in 1688] he divided England into four Vicariates. This arrangement endured till 1840. In that year Gregory XVI doubled the vicariates, and appointed eight Vicars Apostolic. The Roman Church is a cautious but persistent suitor. She had made a fresh advance; she was awaiting a fresh opportunity. The eight Vicars Apostolic asked the Pope to promote the efficiency of their Church by restoring the hierarchy. The time seemed ripe for the change. . . . The Pope prepared Apostolic letters, distributing the eight vicariates into eight bishoprics. . . . The Revolution, occurring immediately afterwards, gave the Pope other things to think about than the re-establishment of the English hierarchy. For two years nothing more was heard of the conversion of vicariates into bishoprics. But the scheme had not been abandoned; and, in the autumn of 1850, the Pope, restored to the Vatican by French bayonets, issued a brief for 're-establishing and extending the Catholic faith in England.' England and Wales were divided into twelve sees. One of them, Westminster, was made into an archbishopric; and Wiseman, an Irishman by extraction, who had been Vicar Apostolic of the London District, and Bishop of Melipotamus, was promoted to it. Shortly afterwards a new distinction was conferred upon him, and the new archbishop was made a cardinal. The publication of the brief created a ferment in England. The effect of the Pope's language was increased by a pastoral from the new archbishop, in which he talked of governing, and continuing to govern, his see with episcopal jurisdiction; and by the declaration of an eminent convert that the people of England, who for so many years have been separated from the see of Rome, are about of their own free will to be added to the Holy Church. For the moment, High Churchmen and Low Churchmen forgot their differences in their eagerness to punish a usurpation of what was called the Queen's prerogative. The Prime Minister, instead of attempting to moderate the tempest, added violence to the storm by denouncing, in a letter to the Bishop of Durham, the late aggression of the Pope as 'insolent and insidious, . . . inconsistent with the Queen's supremacy, with the rights of our bishops and clergy, and with the spiritual independence of the nation.' . . . Amidst the excitement which was thus occasioned, Parliament met. The Speech from the Throne alluded to the strong feelings excited by 'the recent assumption of ecclesiastical titles conferred by a foreign Power.' . . . It declared that a measure would be introduced into Parliament to maintain 'under God's blessing, the religious liberty which is so justly prized by the people.' It hardly required such words as these to fan the spreading flame. In the debate on the Address, hardly any notice was taken of any subject except the 'triple tyrant's insolent pretension.' On the first Friday in the session, Russell introduced a measure forbidding the assumption of territorial titles by the priests and prelates of the Roman Catholic Church; declaring all gifts made to them, and all acts done by them, under those titles null and void; and forfeiting to the Crown all property bequeathed to them." Action on the bill was interrupted in the House by a ministerial crisis, which ended, however, in the return of Lord John Russell and his colleagues to the administration; but the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, when it was again brought forward, was greatly changed. In its amended shape the bill merely made it illegal for Roman Catholic prelates to assume territorial titles. According to the criticism of one of the Conservatives, "the

original bill . . . was milk and water; by some chemical process the Government had extracted all the milk. [After much debate the emasculated bill became a law, but it was never put into execution.]"—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815*, v. 5, ch. 23.—See also IRELAND: 1847-1860.

ALSO IN: J. McCarthy, *History of our own times*, v. 2, ch. 20.—J. Stoughton, *Religion in England, 1800-1850*, v. 2, ch. 13.

1853.—April movement in the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1853.

1854.—Promulgation of the Dogma of the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin Mary.—"The thought of defining dogmatically the belief of all ages and all Catholic nations in the Immaculate Conception of the Blessed Virgin dated back to the beginning of his [Pius IX's] pontificate. By an encyclical letter dated from his exile at Gaeta, he had asked the opinion of all the patriarchs, primates, archbishops and bishops of the universe as to the seasonableness of this defi-



POPE PIUS IX

nition. The holding of a general council is attended with many embarrassments, and cannot be freed from the intrigues and intervention of the so-called Catholic powers. Pius IX . . . initiated a new course. All, even the most Gallican in ideas, acknowledge that a definition in matters of faith by the pope, sustained by the episcopate, is infallible. The rapid means of communication and correspondence in modern times, the more direct intercourse of the bishops with Rome, makes it easy now for the pope to hear the well-considered, deliberate opinion of a great majority of the bishops throughout the world. In this case the replies of the bishops coming from all parts of the world show that the universal Church, which has one God, one baptism, has also one faith. As to the dogma there was no dissension, a few doubted the expediency of making it an article of faith. These replies determined the Holy Father to proceed to the great act, so long demanded by [the] Catholic heart. . . . A number of bishops were convoked to Rome for the 8th of December, 1854; a still greater number hastened to the Eternal City. . . . That day the bishops assembled in the Vatican to the number of 170. [In the Sistine chapel, after befitting ceremonies, the pontiff made

formal proclamation of the dogma of the Immaculate Conception, in the following words:] 'By the authority of Jesus Christ our Lord, of the blessed apostles, Peter and Paul, and our own, we declare, pronounce, and define that the doctrine which holds that the Blessed Virgin Mary, at the first instant of her conception, by a singular privilege and grace of the Omnipotent God, in virtue of the merits of Jesus Christ, the Saviour of mankind, was preserved immaculate from all stain of original sin, has been revealed by God, and therefore should firmly and constantly be believed by all the faithful. Wherefore, if any shall dare—which God avert—to think otherwise than as it has been defined by us, let them know and understand that they are condemned by their own judgment, that they have suffered shipwreck of the faith, and have revolted from the unity of the Church; and besides, by their own act, they subject themselves to the penalties justly established, if what they think they should dare to signify by word, writing, or any other outward means.' . . . The next day the sovereign pontiff assembled the sacred college and the bishops in the great consistorial hall of the Vatican, and pronounced the allocution which, subsequently published by all the bishops, announced to the Catholic world the act of December 8th."—A. de Montor, *Lives and times of the Roman pontiffs*, v. 2, pp. 924-926.—See also BULLS, PAPAL: 1854.

ALSO IN: G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, p. 627.

1860-1861.—First consequences of the Austro-Italian War.—Absorption of Papal States in the new kingdom of Italy. See ITALY: 1850-1861; Map showing unification of Italy.

1864.—Encyclical and the syllabus.—"On the 8th of December 1864, Pius IX. issued his Encyclical [a circular letter addressed by the pope to all the patriarchs, primates, archbishops and bishops of the church throughout the world] 'Quanta cura,' accompanied by the Syllabus, or systematically arranged collection of errors, condemned from time to time, by himself and his predecessors. The Syllabus comprises 80 erroneous propositions. These are set forth under 10 distinct heads: viz. 1. Pantheism, Naturalism, and Absolute Rationalism; 2. Moderated Rationalism; 3. Indifferentism, Latitudinarianism; 4. Socialism, Communism, Secret Societies, Biblical Societies, Clerico-Liberal Societies; 5. Errors concerning the Church and her rights; 6. Errors concerning Civil Society, as well in itself as in its relations with the Church; 7. Errors concerning Natural and Christian Ethics; 8. Errors concerning Christian marriage; 9. Errors concerning the Civil Princes of the Roman Pontiff; 10. Errors in relation with Modern Liberalism. Immediately under each error are given the two initial words, and the date, of the particular Papal Allocution, Encyclical, Letter Apostolic, or Epistle, in which it is condemned. Whilst, on the one hand, the publication of the Encyclical and Syllabus was hailed by many as the greatest act of the pontificate of Pius IX., on the other hand, their appearance excited the angry feelings, and intensified the hostility, of the enemies of the Church."—J. N. Murphy, *Chair of Peter*, ch. 33.

The following is a translation of the text of the Encyclical, followed by that of the Syllabus or Catalogue of Errors:

To our venerable brethren all the Patriarchs, Primates, Archbishops, and Bishops in communion with the Apostolic See, we, Pius IX Pope, send

greeting, and our apostolic blessing: You know, venerable brethren, with what care and what pastoral vigilance the Roman Pontiffs, our predecessors—fulfilling the charge intrusted to them by our Lord Jesus Christ himself in the person of the blessed Peter, chief of the apostles—have unfailingly observed their duty in providing food for the sheep and the lambs, in assiduously nourishing the flock of the Lord with the words of faith, in imbuing them with salutary doctrine, and in turning them away from poisoned pastures; all this is known to you, and you have appreciated it. And certainly our predecessors, in affirming and in vindicating the august Catholic faith, truth, and justice, were never animated in their care for the salvation of souls by a more earnest desire than that of extinguishing and condemning by their letters and their constitutions all the heresies and errors which, as enemies of our divine faith, of the doctrines of the Catholic Church, of the purity of morals, and of the eternal salvation of man, have frequently excited serious storms, and precipitated civil and Christian society into the most deplorable misfortunes. For this reason our predecessors have opposed themselves with vigorous energy to the criminal enterprise of those wicked men, who, spreading their disturbing opinions like the waves of a raging sea, and promising liberty when they are slaves to corruption, endeavor by their pernicious writings to overturn the foundations of the Christian Catholic religion and of civil society; to destroy all virtue and justice; to deprave all minds and hearts; to turn away simple minds, and especially those of inexperienced youth, from the healthy discipline of morals; to corrupt it miserably, to draw it into the meshes of error, and finally to draw it from the bosom of the Catholic Church. But as you are aware, venerable brethren, we had scarcely been raised to the chair of St. Peter above our merits, by the mysterious designs of Divine Providence, then seeing with the most profound grief of our soul the horrible storm excited by evil doctrines, and the very grave and deplorable injury caused specially by so many errors to Christian people, in accordance with the duty of our apostolic ministry, and following in the glorious footsteps of our predecessors, we raised our voice, and by the publication of several encyclicals, consistorial letters, allocutions, and other apostolic letters, we have condemned the principal errors of our sad age, reanimated your utmost episcopal vigilance, warned and exhorted upon various occasions all our dear children in the Catholic Church to repel and absolutely avoid the contagion of so horrible a plague. More especially in our first encyclical of the 9th November, 1846, addressed to you, and in our two allocutions of the 9th December, 1854, and the 9th June, 1862, to the consistories, we condemned the monstrous opinions which particularly predominated in the present day, to the great prejudice of souls and to the detriment of civil society—doctrines which not only attack the Catholic Church, her salutary instruction, and her venerable rights, but also the natural, unalterable law inscribed by God upon the heart of man—that of sound reason. But although we have not hitherto omitted to proscribe and reprove the principal errors of this kind, yet the cause of the Catholic Church, the safety of the souls which have been confided to us, and the well-being of human society itself, absolutely demand that we should again exercise our pastoral solicitude to destroy new opinions which spring out of these same errors as from so many sources. These false and perverse opinions are the more detestable as they especially tend to shackle

and turn aside the salutary force that the Catholic Church, by the example of her Divine author and his order, ought freely to exercise until the end of time, not only with regard to each individual man, but with regard to nations, peoples, and their rulers, and to destroy that agreement and concord between the priesthood and the government which have always existed for the happiness and security of religious and civil society. For as you are well aware, venerable brethren, there are a great number of men in the present day who, applying to civil society the impious and absurd principle of naturalism, as it is called, dare to teach that the perfect right of public society and civil progress absolutely require a condition of human society constituted and governed without regard to all considerations of religion, as if it had no existence, or, at least, without making any distinction between true religion and heresy. And, contrary to the teaching of the Holy Scriptures, of the church, and of the fathers, they do not hesitate to affirm that the best condition of society is that in which the power of the laity is not compelled to inflict the penalties of law upon violators of the Catholic religion unless required by considerations of public safety. Actuated by an idea of social government so absolutely false, they do not hesitate further to propagate the erroneous opinion, very hurtful to the safety of the Catholic Church and of souls, and termed "delirium" by our predecessor, Gregory XVI, of excellent memory, namely: "Liberty of conscience and of worship is the right of every man—a right which ought to be proclaimed and established by law in every well-constituted State, and that citizens are entitled to make known and declare, with a liberty which neither the ecclesiastical nor the civil authority can limit, their convictions of whatever kind, either by word of mouth, or through the press, or by other means." But in making these rash assertions they do not reflect, they do not consider, that they preach the liberty of perdition (St. Augustine, Epistle 105, Al. 166), and that "if it is always free to human conviction to discuss, men will never be wanting who dare to struggle against the truth and to rely upon the loquacity of human wisdom, when we know by the example of our Lord Jesus Christ how faith and Christian sagacity ought to avoid this culpable vanity." (St. Leon, Epistle 164, Al. 133, sec. 2, Boll. Ed.) Since also religion has been banished from civil government, since the doctrine and authority of divine revelation have been repudiated, the idea intimately connected therewith of justice and human right is obscured by darkness and lost sight of, and in place of true justice and legitimate right brute force is substituted, which has permitted some, entirely oblivious of the plainest principles of sound reason, to dare to proclaim "that the will of the people, manifested by what is called public opinion or by other means, constitutes a supreme law superior to all divine and human right, and that accomplished facts in political affairs, by the mere fact of their having been accomplished, have the force of law." But who does not perfectly see and understand that human society, released from the ties of religion and true justice, can have no further object than to amass riches, and can follow no other law in its actions than the indomitable wickedness of a heart given up to pleasure and interest? For this reason, also, these same men persecute with so relentless a hatred the religious orders, who have deserved so well of religion, civil society, and letters. They loudly declare that the orders have no right to exist, and in so doing make common

cause with the falsehoods of the heretics. For, as taught by our predecessor of illustrious memory, Pius VI, "the abolition of religious houses injures the state of public profession, and is contrary to the counsels of the Gospel, injures a mode of life recommended by the church and in conformity with the Apostolic doctrine, does wrong to the celebrated founders whom we venerate upon the altar, and who constituted these societies under the inspiration of God." (Epistle to Cardinal de la Rochefoucauld, March 10, 1791.) In their impiety these same persons pretend that citizens and the church should be deprived of the opportunity of openly "receiving alms from Christian charity," and that the law forbidding "servile labor on account of divine worship" upon certain fixed days should be abrogated, upon the fallacious pretext that this opportunity and this law are contrary to the principles of political economy. Not content with eradicating religion from public society, they desire further to banish it from families and private life. Teaching and professing these most fatal errors of Socialism and Communism, they declare that "domestic society, or the entire family, derives its right of existence solely from civil law, whence it is to be concluded that from civil law descend all the rights of parents over their children, and above all, the right of instructing and educating them." By such impious opinions and machinations do these false spirits endeavor to eliminate the salutary teaching and influences of the Catholic Church from the instruction and education of youth, and to infect and miserably deprave by their pernicious errors and their vices the pliant minds of youth. All those who endeavor to trouble sacred and public things, to destroy the good order of society, and to annihilate all divine and human rights, have always concentrated their criminal schemes, attention, and efforts upon the manner in which they might above all deprave and delude unthinking youth, as we have already shown. It is upon the corruption of youth that they place all their hopes. Thus they never cease to attack the clergy, from whom have descended to us in so authentic manner the most certain records of history, and by whom such desirable benefit has been bestowed in abundance upon Christian and civil society and upon letters. They assail them in every shape, going so far as to say of the clergy in general—"that being the enemies of the useful sciences, of progress, and of civilization, they ought to be deprived of the charge of instructing and educating youth." Others, taking up wicked errors many times condemned, presume with notorious impudence to submit the authority of the church and of this Apostolic See, conferred upon it by God himself, to the judgment of civil authority, and to deny all the rights of this same church and this see with regard to exterior order. They do not blush to affirm that the laws of the church do not bind the conscience if they are not promulgated by the civil power; that the acts and decrees of the Roman Pontiffs concerning religion and the church require the sanction and approbation or, at least, the assent, of the civil power; and that the Apostolic constitutions condemning secret societies, whether these exact, or do not exact, an oath of secrecy, and branding with anathema their secretaries and promoters, have no force in those regions of the world where these associations are tolerated by the civil government. It is likewise affirmed that the excommunications launched by the Council of Trent and the Roman Pontiffs against those who invade the possessions of the church and usurp its rights, seek, in confound-

ing the spiritual and temporal powers, to attain solely a terrestrial object; that the church can decide nothing which may bind the consciences of the faithful in a temporal order of things; that the law of the church does not demand that violations of sacred laws should be punished by temporal penalties; and that it is in accordance with sacred theology and the principles of public law to claim for the civil government the property possessed by the churches, the religious orders, and other pious establishments. And they have no shame in avowing openly and publicly the thesis, the principle of heretics from whom emanate so many errors and perverse opinions. They say: "That the ecclesiastical power is not of right divine, distinct and independent from the civil power; and that no distinction, no independence of this kind can be maintained without the church invading and usurping the essential rights of the civil power." Neither can we pass over in silence the audacity of those who, insulting sound doctrines, assert that "the judgments and decrees of the Holy See, whose object is declared to concern the general welfare of the church, its rights, and its discipline, do not claim the acquaintance and obedience under pain of sin and loss of the Catholic profession, if they do not treat of the dogmas of faith and manners." How contrary is this doctrine to the Catholic dogma of the full power divinely given to the sovereign Pontiff by our Lord Jesus Christ, to guide, to supervise, and govern the universal church, no one can fail to see and understand clearly and evidently. Amid so great a diversity of depraved opinions, we, remembering our apostolic duty, and solicitous before all things for our most holy religion, for sound doctrine, for the salvation of the souls confided to us, and for the welfare of human society itself, have considered the moment opportune to raise anew our apostolic voice. And therefore do we condemn and proscribe generally and particularly all the evil opinions and doctrines specially mentioned in this letter, and we wish that they may be held as rebuked, proscribed, and condemned by all the children of the Catholic Church. But you know further, venerable brothers, that in our time insulters of every truth and of all justice, and violent enemies of our religion, have spread abroad other impious doctrines by means of pestilent books, pamphlets, and journals which, distributed over the surface of the earth, deceive the people and wickedly lie. You are not ignorant that in our day men are found who, animated and excited by the spirit of Satan, have arrived at that excess of impiety as not to fear to deny our Lord and Master Jesus Christ, and to attack his divinity with scandalous persistence. We cannot abstain from awarding you well-merited eulogies, venerable brothers, for all the care and zeal with which you have raised your episcopal voice against so great an impiety.

Catalogue of the Principal Errors of our Time Pointed Out in the Consistorial Allocutions, Encyclical and other Apostolic Letters of Pope Pius IX.

I.—PANTHEISM, NATURALISM, AND ABSOLUTE RATIONALISM.

1. There is no divine power, supreme being, wisdom, and providence distinct from the universality of things, and God is none other than the nature of things, and therefore immutable. In effect God is in man, and in the world, and

all things are God, and have the very substance of God. God is, therefore, one and the same thing with the world, and thence mind is confounded with matter, necessity with liberty of action, true with false, good with evil, just with unjust.—(See Allocution, "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

2. All action of God upon man and the world should be denied.—(See Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

3. Human reason, without any regard to God, is the sole arbiter of true and false, good and evil; it is its own law in itself, and suffices by its natural force for the care of the welfare of men and nations.—(See Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

4. All the truth of religion are derived from the native strength of human reason, whence reason is the principal rule by which man can and must arrive at the knowledge of all truths of every kind.—(See Encyclicals, "Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846, and "Singulari quidem," March 17, 1856, and Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

5. Divine revelation is imperfect, and therefore subject to the continual and indefinite progress corresponding to the progress of human reason.—(See Encyc., "Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846, and Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

6. Christian faith is in opposition to human reason, and divine revelation is not only useless but even injurious to the perfection of man.—(See Encyc., "Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846, and Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

7. The prophecies and miracles told and narrated in the sacred books are the fables of poets, and the mysteries of the Christian faith the sum of philosophical investigations. The books of the two Testaments contain fabulous fictions, and Jesus Christ is himself a myth.—(Encyc., "Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846; Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

II.—MODERATE RATIONALISM.

8. As human reason is rendered equal to religion itself, theological matters must be treated as philosophical matters.—(Alloc., "Singulari quidem perfusi.")

9. All the dogmas of the Christian religion are indistinctly the object of natural science or philosophy, and human reason, instructed solely by history, is able by its natural strength and principles to arrive at a comprehension of even the most abstract dogmas from the moment when they have been proposed as objective.—(Letter to Archbishop Frising, "Gravissimus," Dec. 4, 1862. Letter to the same, "Tuas libenter," Dec. 21, 1863.)

10. As the philosopher is one thing and philosophy is another, it is the right and duty of the former to submit himself to the authority of which he shall have recognized the truth; but philosophy neither can nor ought to submit to authority.—(Letter to Archbishop Frising, "Gravissimus," Dec. 11, 1862; to the same, "Tuas libenter," Dec. 21, 1863.)

11. The church not only ought in no way to concern herself with philosophy, but ought further herself to tolerate the errors of philosophy, leaving to it the care of their correction.—(Letter to Archbishop Frising, Dec. 11, 1862.)

12. The decrees of the Apostolic See and of the Roman congregation fetter the free progress of science.—(Id., *ibid.*)

13. The methods and principles by which the old scholastic doctors cultivated theology are no longer suitable to the demands of the age and the

progress of science.—(Id., "Tuas libenter," Dec. 21, 1863.)

14. Philosophy must be studied without taking any account of supernatural revelation.—(Id., *ibid.*)

N. B.—To the rationalistic system are due in great part the errors of Antony Gunther, condemned in the letter to the Cardinal Archbishop of Cologne "Eximiam tuam," June 15, 1847, and in that to the Bishop of Breslau, "Dolore haud medicari," April 30, 1860.

III.—INDIFFERENTISM, TOLERATION.

15. Every man is free to embrace and profess the religion he shall believe true, guided by the light of reason.—(Apost. Let., "Multiplices inter," June 10, 1851; Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

16. Men who have embraced any religion may find and obtain eternal salvation.—(Encyc., "Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846; Alloc., "Ubi primum," Dec. 17, 1847; Encyc., "Singulari quidem," March 17, 1856.)

17. At least the eternal salvation may be hoped for of all who have never been in the true church of Christ.—(Alloc., "Singulari quidem," Dec. 9, 1865; Encyc., "Quanto conficiamur mœrore," Aug. 17, 1863.)

18. Protestantism is nothing more than another form of the same true religion in which it is possible to be equally pleasing to God, as in the Catholic church.—(Encyc., "Nescitis et vobiscum," Dec. 8, 1849.)

IV.—SOCIALISM, COMMUNISM, CLANDESTINE SOCIETIES, BIBLICAL SOCIETIES, CLERICO-LIBERAL SOCIETIES.

Pests of this description have been frequently rebuked in the severest terms in the Encyc., "Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846; Alloc., "Quibus, quantisque," Aug. 20, 1849; Encyc., "Nescitis et vobiscum," Dec. 8, 1849; Alloc., "Singulari quidem," Dec. 9, 1854; Encyc., "Quanto conficiamur mœrore," Aug. 10, 1863.

V.—ERRORS RESPECTING THE CHURCH AND HER RIGHTS.

19. The church is not a true and perfect entirely free association; she does not rest upon the peculiar and perpetual rights conferred upon her by her divine founder; but it appertains to the civil power to define what are the rights and limits within which the church may exercise authority.—(Alloc., "Singulari quidem," Dec. 9, 1854; "Multis gravibus," Dec. 17, 1860; "Maxima quidem," June, 1862.)

20. The ecclesiastical power must not exercise its authority without the toleration and assent of the civil government.—(Alloc., "Meminit unusquisque," Sept. 30, 1851.)

21. The church has not the power of disputing dogmatically that the religion of the Catholic church is the only true religion.—(Lit. Apost., "Multiplices inter," June 10, 1851.)

22. The obligation which binds Catholic masters and writers does not apply to matters proposed for universal belief as articles of faith by the infallible judgment of the church.—(Let. to Archbishop Frising, "Tuas libenter," Dec. 21, 1863.)

23. The church has not the power of availing herself of force, or any direct or indirect temporal power.—(Lit. Apost., "Ad apostolicas," August 22, 1851.)

24. The Roman pontiffs and œcumenical councils have exceeded the limits of their power, have usurped the rights of princes, and have even com-

mitted errors in defining matter relating to dogma and morals.—(Lit. Apost., "Multiplices inter," June 10, 1851.)

25. In addition to the authority inherent in the episcopate, further temporal power is granted to it by the civil power, either expressly or tacitly, but on that account also revocable by the civil power whenever it pleases.—(Lit. Apost., "Ad Apostolicas," August 22, 1851.)

26. The church has not the natural and legitimate right of acquisition and possession.—("Nunquam," December 18, 1856; Encyc., "Incredibili," September 17, 1862.)

27. The ministers of the church and the Roman pontiff ought to be absolutely excluded from all charge and dominion over temporal affairs.—(Alloc., "Maximum quidem," June 9, 1862.)

28. Bishops have not the right of promulgating their apostolical letters without the sanction of the government.—(Alloc., "Nunquam fore," December 15, 1856.)

29. Spiritual graces granted by the Roman pontiff must be considered null unless they have been requested by the civil government.—(Id., *ibid.*)

30. The immunity of the church and of ecclesiastical persons derives its origin from civil law.—(Lit. Apost., "Multiplices inter," June 10, 1851.)

31. Ecclesiastical jurisdiction for temporal lawsuits, whether civil or criminal, of the clergy, should be abolished, even without the consent and against the desire of the Holy See.—(Alloc., "Acerbissimum," September 27, 1852; Id., "Nunquam fore," December 15, 1856.)

32. The personal immunity exonerating the clergy from military law may be abrogated without violation either of natural right or of equity. This abrogation is called for by civil progress, especially in a society modelled upon principles of liberal government.—(Let. to Bishop Montisregal, "Singularis nobilisque," September 29, 1864.)

33. It does not appertain to ecclesiastical jurisdiction, by any right, and inherent to its essence, to direct doctrine in matters of theology.—(Let. to Archbishop Frising, "Tuas libenter," Dec. 21, 1863.)

34. The doctrine of those who compare the sovereign pontiff to a free sovereign acting in the universal church is a doctrine which prevailed in the middle ages.—(Lit. Apost., Aug. 22, 1851.)

35. There is no obstacle to the sentence of a general council, or the act of all the nation transferring the pontifical sovereign from the bishopric and city of Rome to some other bishopric in another city.—(Id., *ibid.*)

36. The definition of a national council does not admit of subsequent discussion, and the civil power can require that matters shall remain as they are.—(Id., *ibid.*)

37. National churches can be established without, and separated from, the Roman pontiff.—(Alloc., "Multis gravibusque," Dec. 17, 1860; "Jamdudum cernimus," March 18, 1861.)

38. Many Roman pontiffs have lent themselves to the division of the church in Eastern and Western churches.—(Lit. Apost., "Ad Apostolicas," August 22, 1851.)

VI.—ERRORS OF CIVIL SOCIETY, AS MUCH IN THEMSELVES AS CONSIDERED IN THEIR RELATIONS TO THE CHURCH.

39. The state of a republic, as being the origin and source of all rights, imposes itself by its rights, which is not circumscribed by any limit.—(Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

40. The doctrine of the Catholic church is opposed to the laws and interests of society.—(Encyc.,

"Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846; Alloc., "Quibus quantisque," April 20, 1849.)

41. The civil government, even when exercised by a heretic sovereign, possesses an indirect and negative power over religious affairs.—(Lit. Apost., August 22, 1851.)

42. In a legal conflict between the two powers, civil law ought to prevail.—(Id., *ibid.*)

43. The lay power has the authority to destroy, declare, and render null solemn conventions or concordats relating to the use of rights appertaining to ecclesiastical immunity, without the consent of the priesthood, and even against its will.—(Alloc., "In consistoriali," Nov. 1, 1850; "Multis gravibusque," Dec. 17, 1860.)

44. The civil authority may interfere in matters regarding religion, morality, and spiritual government, whence it has control over the instructions for the guidance of consciences issued, conformably with their mission, by the pastors of the church. Further, it possesses full power in the matter of administering the divine sacraments and the necessary arrangements for their reception.—("In consistoriali," Nov. 1, 1858; Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

45. The entire direction of public schools in which the youth of Christian States are educated, save an exception in the case of Episcopal seminaries, may and must appertain to the civil power, and belong to it so far that no other authority shall be recognized as having any right to interfere in the discipline of the schools, the arrangement of the studies, the taking of degrees, or the choice and approval of teachers.—(Alloc., "In consistoriali," Nov. 1, 1850; "Quibus luctuosissimis," Sept. 5, 1861.)

46. Further, even in clerical seminaries the mode of study must be submitted to the civil authority.—(Alloc., "Nunquam fore," Dec. 15, 1856.)

47. The most advantageous conditions of civil society require that popular schools open without distinction to all children of the people, and public establishments destined to teach young people letters and good discipline, and to impart to them education, should be freed from all ecclesiastical authority and interference, and should be fully subjected to the civil and political power for the teaching of masters and opinions common to the times.—(Letter to Archbishop of Friburg, "Quum none sine," July 14, 1864.)

48. This manner of instructing youth, which consists in separating it from the Catholic faith and from the power of the church, and in teaching it above all a knowledge of natural things and the objects of social life, may be perfectly approved by Catholics.—(Id., *ibid.*)

49. The civil power is entitled to prevent ministers of religion and the faithful from communicating freely and mutually with the Roman Pontiff.—(Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

50. The lay authority possesses of itself the right of presenting bishops, and may require of them that they take possession of their diocese before having received canonical institution and the Apostolical letter of the Holy See.—(Alloc., "Nunquam fore," Dec. 15, 1856.)

51. Further, the lay authority has the right of deposing bishops from their pastoral functions, and is not forced to obey the Roman Pontiff in matters affecting the filling of sees and the institution of bishops.—(Lit. Apost., "Multiplices inter," June 10, 1851; Alloc., "Acerbissimum.")

52. The government has a right to alter a period fixed by the church for the accomplishment of the religious duties of both sexes, and may enjoin upon all religious establishments to admit nobody to take

solemn vows without permission.—(Alloc., "Nunquam fore," Dec. 15, 1856.)

53. Laws respecting the protection, rights, and functions of religious establishments must be abrogated; further, the civil government may lend its assistance to all who desire to quit a religious life, and break their vows. The government may also deprive religious establishments of the right of patronage to collegiate churches and simple benefices, and submit their goods to civil competence and administration.—(Alloc., "Acerbissimum," Sept. 27, 1862; "Probe meminertis," Jan. 22, 1885; and "Quum sæpe," July 26, 1858.)

54. Kings and princes are not only free from the jurisdiction of the church, but are superior to the church even in litigious questions of jurisdiction.—(Lit. Apost., "Multiplices inter," June 10, 1851.)

55. The church must be separated from the State and the State from the church.—(Alloc., "Acerbissimum," Sept. 27, 1862.)

VII.—ERRORS IN NATURAL AND CHRISTIAN MORALS.

56. Moral laws do not stand in need of the Divine sanction, and there is no necessity that human laws should be conformable to the laws of nature and receive their sanction from God.—(Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

57. Knowledge of philosophical and moral things and civil laws may and must be free from Divine and ecclesiastical authority.—(Id., *ibid.*)

58. No other forces are recognized than those which reside in matter, and which, contrary to all discipline and all decency of morals, are summed up in the accumulation and increase of riches by every possible means and in the satisfaction of every pleasure.—(Id., *ibid.*; Alloc., "Maxima quidem," Encyc., "Quanto conficiamur," August 10, 1863.)

59. Right consists in material fact. All human duties are vain words, and all human facts have the force of right.—(Alloc., "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.)

60. Authority is nothing but the sum of numbers and material force.—(Id., *ibid.*)

61. The happy injustice of a fact inflicts no injury upon the sanctity of right.—(Alloc., "Jamdudum cernimus," March 18, 1861.)

62. The principle of non-intervention must be proclaimed and observed.—(Alloc., "Novos et ante," Sept. 27, 1860.)

63. It is allowable to withdraw from obedience to legitimate princes and to rise in insurrection against them.—(Encyc., "Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846; Alloc., "Quisque vestrum," Oct. 4, 1847; Encyc., "Noscitis et nobiscum," Dec. 8, 1849; Lit. Apost., "Cum Catholica," March 25, 1860.)

64. The violation of a solemn oath, even every guilty and shameful action repugnant to the eternal law, is not only undeserving rebuke, but is even allowable and worthy of the highest praise when done for the love of country.—(Alloc., "Quibus quantisque," April 20, 1849.)

VIII.—ERRORS AS TO CHRISTIAN MARRIAGE.

65. It is not admissible, rationally, that Christ has raised marriage to the dignity of a sacrament.—(Lit. Apost., August 22, 1852.)

66. The sacrament of marriage is only an adjunct of the contract, from which it is separable, and the sacrament itself only consists in the nuptial benediction.—(Id., *ibid.*)

67. By the law of nature the marriage tie is not indissoluble, and in many cases divorce, properly so called, may be pronounced by the civil authority.—(Id., *ibid.*; Alloc., "Acerbissimum," Sept. 27, 1852.)

68. The church has not the power of pronouncing upon the impediments to marriage. This belongs to civil society, which can remove the existing hindrances.—(Lit. Apost., "Multiplices inter," June 10, 1851.)

69. It is only more recently that the church has begun to pronounce upon invalidating obstacles, availing herself, not of her own right, but of a right borrowed from the civil power.—(Lit. Apost., August 22, 1851.)

70. The canons of the Council of Trent, which invoke anathema against those who deny the church the right of pronouncing upon invalidating obstacles, are not dogmatic, and must be considered as emanating from borrowed power.—(Lit. Apost., *ibid.*)

71. The form of the said council, under the penalty of nullity, does not bind in cases where the civil law has appointed another form, and desires that this new form is to be used in marriage.—(Id., *ibid.*)

72. Boniface VIII is the first who declared that the vow of chastity pronounced at ordination annuls nuptials.—(Id., *ibid.*)

73. A civil contract may very well, among Christians, take the place of true marriage, and it is false, either that the marriage contract between Christians must always be a sacrament, or that the contract is null if the sacrament does not exist.—(Id., *ibid.*; Let. to King of Sardinia, Sept. 9, 1852; Allocs., "Acerbissimum," Sept. 27, 1852; "Multis gravibusque," Dec. 17, 1860.)

74. Matrimonial or nuptial causes belong by their nature to civil jurisdiction.—(Lit. Apost., August 22, 1851; Alloc., "Acerbissimum," Sept. 27, 1852.)

N. B.—Two other errors are still current upon the abolition of the celibacy of priests and the preference due to the state of marriage over that of virginity. These have been refuted—the first in Encyc., "Qui pluribus," Nov. 9, 1846; the second in Lit. Apost., "Multiplices inter," June 10, 1851.

X.—ERRORS REGARDING THE CIVIL POWER OF THE SOVEREIGN PONTIFF.

75. The children of the Christian and Catholic Church are not agreed upon the compatibility of the temporal with the spiritual power.—(Lit. Apost., August 22, 1852.)

76. The cessation of the temporal power, upon which the Apostolic See is based, would contribute to the happiness and liberty of the church.—(Alloc., "Quibus quantisque," April 20, 1849.)

N. B.—Besides these errors explicitly pointed out, still more, and those numerous, are rebuked by the certain doctrine which all Catholics are bound to respect touching the civil government of the Sovereign Pontiff. These doctrines are abundantly explained in Allocs., "Quantis quantumque," April 20, 1859, and "Si semper antea," May 20, 1850; Lit. Apost., "Quum Catholica Ecclesia," March 26, 1860; Allocs., "Novos," Sept. 28, 1860; "Jamdudum," March 18, 1861; and "Maxima quidem," June 9, 1862.

X.—ERRORS REFERRING TO MODERN LIBERALISM.

77. In the present day it is no longer necessary that the Catholic religion shall be held as the only religion of the State, to the exclusion of all other modes of worship.—(Alloc., "Nemo vestrum," July 26, 1855.)

78. Whence it has been wisely provided by law, in some countries called Catholic, that emigrants shall enjoy the free exercise of their own worship.—(Alloc., "Acerbissimum," Sept. 27, 1852.)

79. But it is false that the civil liberty of every mode of worship and the full power given to all of overtly and publicly displaying their opinions and their thoughts conduce more easily to corrupt the morals and minds of the people and to the propagation of the evil of indifference.—(Alloc., "Nunquam fore," Dec. 15, 1856.)

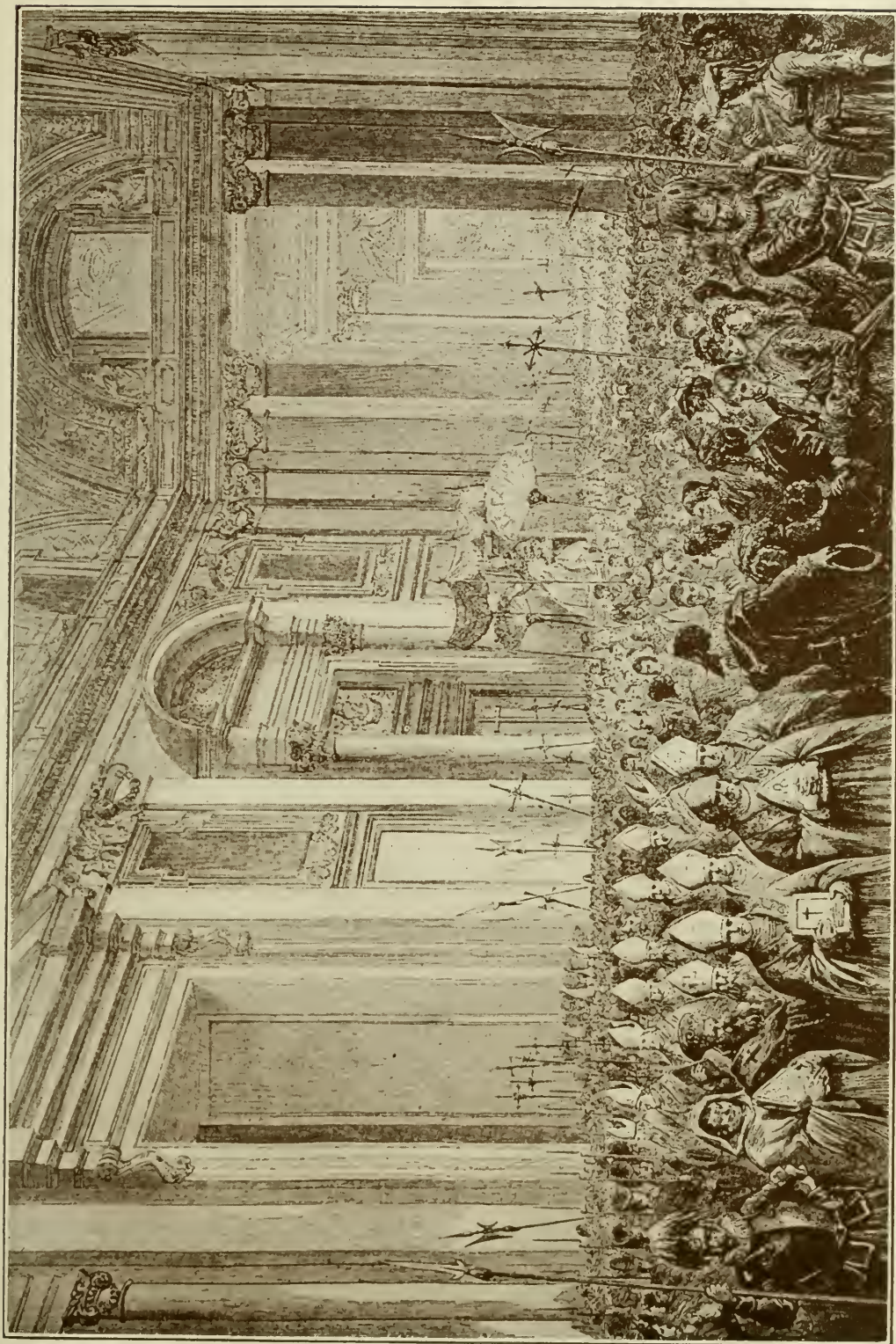
80. The Roman pontiff can and ought to reconcile himself to and agree with progress, liberalism, and modern civilization.—(Alloc., "Jamdudum cernimus," March 18, 1861.)

ALSO IN: F. Nielson, *History of the papacy in the XIXth century*, pp. 258-270.

1869-1870.—Œcumenical council of the Vatican.—Adoption and promulgation of the Dogma of Papal Infallibility.—"It is not easy to say when Pius IX. first conceived the idea of calling together a General Council. . . . Certain it is, that on 6th December 1864—two days before the issue of the encyclical *Quanta cura*—after the usual discussions were ended, he confided to the members of the Congregation of Rites, in the greatest secrecy . . . that for a long time . . . he had been thinking of meeting the great need of the Church by resorting to the unusual measure of holding an œcumenical council. In the course of two months twenty-one of the cardinals who formed the Congregation of Rites set in writing their opinions regarding this important project. Only two of the twenty-one considered it unnecessary. . . . As to subjects which ought to be laid before the assembly, the cardinals suggested the condemnation of the errors of modern times, various disciplinary questions, the freedom of the Press, civil marriage, and so forth. Only two mentioned the Infallibility of the Pope, but one or two suggested that the question whether the Pope's temporal power is a necessity should also be discussed. . . . When the bishops were assembled at Rome in June 1867 for the eighteenth centenary of St. Peter, Pius IX., . . . mentioned in his allocution the great project he had in his mind, and it was received with enthusiasm. . . . Manning in particular agitated early and late for the Infallibility. Shortly after the centenary festival, Pius IX. received two addresses from England, one from the Chapter at Westminster, and one from the Fathers of the Oratory in London, both of which contained petitions for the definition of Infallibility. . . . On 28th June 1868, the long expected Bull appeared, which summoned the Council to meet on 8th December 1869. . . . Letters were afterwards issued, which invited the Orthodox Greek bishops together with the Protestants and other Non-Catholics; a similar invitation to the Protestants had been put forth at the time of the Council of Trent, . . . [more than 300 years before]. Famous native [Italian] and foreign theologians were summoned to put their learning and acumen at the service of the Church; but in the choice, and in the use of those chosen, more regard was generally paid to the attitude of the persons in question towards the doctrine of Infallibility and towards Ultramontanism than to their scientific ability. It seems as if it had been intended to invite Newman among others, but by certain clever manœuvres Manning and the Jesuits succeeded in evading this unpleasant selection."—F. Nielsen, *History of the papacy in the XIXth century*, v. 2, pp. 290-291, 293-295, 297.—"The call was issued by an Encyclical, commencing 'Æterni Patris Unigenitus Filius,' in the 23rd year of his Pontificate, on the feast of St. Peter and Paul, June 29, 1868. It created at once a universal commotion in the Christian world, and called forth a multitude of books and pamphlets even before the Council convened."—P. Schaff, *History of the Vat-*

ican council (*Appendix to Gladstone's "Vatican decrees,"* American ed.).—On October 12, 1869, Pius IX issued the bull *Apostolical sedis moderatiori*, to regulate and simplify the system of censures and reservations in the church. (See BULLS, PAPAL: 1869.) In the course of centuries, the penal statutes of the church which had been simplified at the Council of Trent, had again become very complicated, and difficult to understand. The pope, therefore, had them revised, and declared that thereafter "Those only which We insert in this Constitution and in that manner in which We insert them, are to be in force in future." "It was even hoped that the Council might become a general feast of reconciliation of divided Christendom, . . . but the Eastern Patriarchs spurned the invitation. . . . The Protestant communions either ignored or respectfully declined it. Thus the Vatican Council, like that of Trent, turned out to be simply a general Roman Council, and apparently put the prospect of a reunion of Christendom farther off than ever before. While these sanguine expectations of Pius IX., were doomed to disappointment, the chief object of the Council was attained in spite of the strong opposition of the minority of liberal Catholics. This object . . . was nothing less than the proclamation of the personal Infallibility of the Pope, as a binding article of the Roman Catholic faith for all time to come. Herein lies the whole importance of the Council; all the rest dwindles into insignificance, and could never have justified its convocation. . . . [The council opened on] Dec. 8, 1869, in the Basilica of the Vatican. It reached its height at the fourth public session, July 18, 1870, when the decree of Papal Infallibility was proclaimed. After this it dragged on a sickly existence till October 20, 1870, when it was adjourned till Nov. 11, 1870, but indefinitely postponed on account of the extraordinary change in the political situation of Europe. For on the second of September the French Empire, which had been the main support of the temporal power of the Pope, collapsed with the surrender of Napoleon III. . . . [to] King William of Prussia, and on the 20th of September the Italian troops, in the name of King Victor Emmanuel, took possession of Rome, as the future capital of United Italy. . . . The whole number of prelates of the Roman Catholic Church, who are entitled to a seat in an Œcumenical Council, is 1,037. Of these there were present at the opening of the Council 719, viz., 49 Cardinals, 9 Patriarchs, 4 Primates, 121 Archbishops, 479 Bishops, 57 Abbots and Generals of monastic orders. This number afterwards increased to 764, viz., 49 Cardinals, 10 Patriarchs, 4 Primates, 105 diocesan Archbishops, 22 Archbishops in partibus infidelium, 424 diocesan Bishops, 98 Bishops in partibus, and 52 Abbots, and Generals of monastic orders. Distributed according to continents, 541 of these belonged to Europe, 83 to Asia, 14 to Africa, 113 to America, 13 to Oceanica. At the proclamation of the decree of Papal Infallibility, July 18, 1870, the number was reduced to 535, and afterwards it dwindled down to 200 or 180. Among the many nations represented, the Italians had a vast majority of 276, of whom 143 belonged to the former Papal States alone. France with a much larger Catholic population, had only 84, Austria and Hungary 48, Spain 41, Great Britain 35, Germany 19, the United States 48, Mexico 10, Switzerland 8, Belgium 6, Holland 4, Portugal 2, Russia 1. The disproportion between the representatives of the different nations and the number of their constituents was overwhelmingly in favor of the Papal influence."—

P. Schaff, *History of the Vatican council* (*Appendix to Gladstone's "Vatican decrees,"* American ed.).—"The first subject dealt with [at the Council of the Vatican] was the definition of the Catholic doctrine on Faith against the errors of the Rationalists and other unbelievers. A draft of this was sent by the tenth general congregation to the deputation on Faith for revision, and the council turned to other matters. . . . The progress made was slow, and meantime opposition and difference of opinion made themselves acutely felt both within the council and without. It was not that the Dogmatic Constitution on Faith provoked such controversy, but it was well known that it was the intention and wish of the Pope and of many Fathers to propose a Definition of the Infallibility of the Roman Pontiff, and the storm gathered round that point. . . . As to the definition . . . there were contending views amongst the Fathers. Very few of the bishops seem not to have believed in it in some form, but there was a considerable minority who were opposed to the expediency of any precise definition of it being promulgated by the council. . . . An agitation also gradually sprang up among the European Governments, always ready to oppose anything which seemed likely to add to the ecclesiastical power. Prince Hohenlohe, instigated by Dr. Döllinger, Professor of History at Munich, seems to have been the first to move. From Bavaria the wave of opinion in favour of intervention to prevent the definition passed on to Austria and France, in both of which countries the Foreign Ministers, Beust and Daru, lodged protests at Rome. Arnim, the Prussian envoy, at Rome also wished to intervene, but Bismarck was not to be moved from a passive attitude. So also in England, Gladstone's desire to act in the same sense was overruled by his own cabinet, and especially by the strong opposite view of Lord Carnarvon. Meanwhile, a war was going on among the men of letters and the theologians. Here Döllinger (Janus) was foremost, but was opposed by his pupil Hergenroether (anti-Janus). . . . In France the Oratorian Gratry, and Dupanloup, Bishop of Orleans, wrote strongly against the definition, and were opposed by Dechamps, Archbishop of Mechlin. A somewhat similar controversy raged in England between Lord Acton and Mr. Simpson in the *Home and Foreign Review*, and Dr. Ward and others in the *Dublin Review*. . . . About one-fifth of the council were against the definition, and in this number were comprised most of the German and Austrian prelates, nearly half of the North Americans, and a third of the French. The minority also contained two English and two Irish bishops and only seven Italians. Spain, Portugal, Holland, Belgium and South America were unanimous for the definition. A petition asking for the definition first made by Dechamps, was followed by others, which aggregated about five hundred names, while opposing petitions got at least one hundred and thirty-six signatures. The subject continued the matter of debate until the eighty-fifth congregation, when a general vote was taken of the whole draft of the proposed constitution. Out of six hundred and one Fathers, four hundred and fifty-seven voted placet, sixty-two a conditional placet, and eighty-eight non-placet. The threatened outbreak of war between France and Germany became the occasion of many prelates of both views returning to their homes, and besides these, just before the last session, a considerable number of the opposition Fathers asked permission from the officials of the council to leave Rome. Hence it came to pass that when

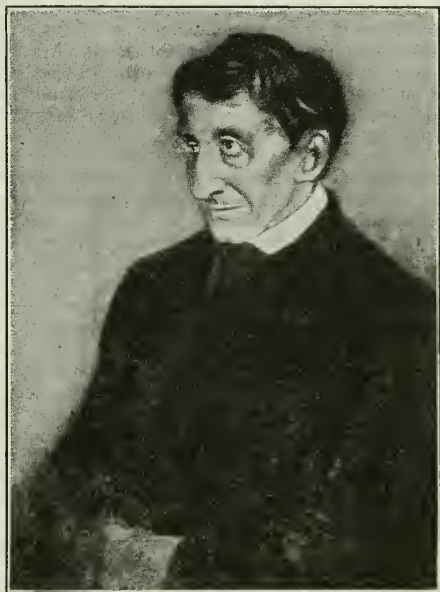


OPENING OF THE FIRST SESSION OF THE VATICAN COUNCIL, DEC. 8, 1869

the final vote was taken in the fourth general session on the 18th of July, under the presidency of the Pope, five hundred and thirty-three Fathers voted placet and only two non-placet. The definition was then promulgated by the Pontiff. . . . On the following day war was declared between France and Germany, and the chances of continuance of the council grew less. Still . . . several other general congregations took place, the last of which, the eighty-ninth, was on the 1st of September. A week later the occupation of Rome by the Piedmontese troops was decreed, and on the 20th of September, after a merely formal resistance on the part of the papal troops, they took possession of the city. [See also *ROME: Modern city: 1870-1871.*] Pius IX. waited for another month, and then on the 20th of October prorogued the council indefinitely. . . . The two bishops who had voted non-placet at once submitted, and so did most of those well-known Catholics who had opposed the definition on the ground of its not being expedient. Such were Newman, Montalembert, Darboy, Kenrick, and Acton."—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 628-631.—Most of the German bishops who had opposed the dogma of infallibility surrendered to it in the end; but Dr. Döllinger, the Bavarian theologian, held his ground. "He had now become the acknowledged leader of all those who, within the pale of the Romish Church, were disaffected towards the Holy See; but he was to pay for this position of eminence. The Old Catholic movement soon drew upon itself the hostility of the ecclesiastical authorities. On the 19th of April 1871 Dr. Döllinger was formally excommunicated by the Archbishop of Munich, on account of his refusal to retract his opposition to the dogma of infallibility. . . . A paper war of great magnitude followed the excommunication. Most of the doctor's colleagues in his own divinity school, together with not a few canons of his cathedral, a vast number of the Bavarian lower clergy, and nearly all the laity, testified their agreement with him. The young King of Bavaria, moreover, lent the support of his personal sympathies to Dr. Döllinger's movement. . . . A Congress of Old Catholics was held at Munich in September, when an Anti-Infallibility League was formed; and the cause soon afterwards experienced a triumph in the election of Dr. Döllinger to the Rectorship of the University of Munich by a majority of fifty-four votes against six. At Cologne in the following year an Old Catholic Congress assembled, and delegates attended from various foreign States. . . . Dr. Döllinger . . . was always glad to give the Old Catholic body the benefit of his advice, and he presided over the Congress, mainly of Old Catholics, which was held at Bonn in 1874 to promote the reunion of Christendom; but we believe he never formally joined the Communion, and, at the outset, at any rate, he strongly opposed its constitution as a distinct Church. From the day of his excommunication by the Archbishop of Munich he abstained from performing any ecclesiastical function. He always continued a strict observer of the disciplinary rules and commandments of the Roman Catholic Church. . . . The Old Catholic movement did not generally make that headway upon the Continent which its sanguine promoters had hoped speedily to witness, though it was helped in Germany by the passing of a Bill for transferring ecclesiastical property to a committee of the rate-payers and communicants in each parish of the empire. When the third synod of the Old Catholics was held at Bonn in June 1876 it was stated

by Dr. von Schulte that there were then 35 communities in Prussia, 44 in Baden, 5 in Hesse, 2 in Birkenfeld, 31 in Bavaria, and 1 in Würtemberg. The whole number of persons belonging to the body of Old Catholics was—in Prussia, 17,203; Bavaria, 10,110; Hesse, 1,042; Oldenburg, 249; and Würtemberg, 223. The number of Old Catholic priests in Germany was sixty. Subsequently some advance was recorded over these numbers."—*Eminent persons: Biographies reprinted from the Times*, v. 4, pp. 213-216.

ALSO IN: Quirinus (J. J. I. von Döllinger), *Letters from Rome on the council*.—Janus (the same), *Pope and the council*.—J. J. I. von Döllinger, *Declarations and letters on the Vatican decrees*.—H. E. Manning, *Vatican council*.—Pomponio Leto (Marchese F. Vitelleschi), *Vatican council*.—E. de Pressense, *Rome and Italy at the*



JOHANN VON DÖLLINGER

opening of the œcumenical council.—W. E. Gladstone, *Vatican decrees*.

The following is a translation of the text of the Constitution "Pastor æternus" in which the Dogma of Infallibility was subsequently promulgated by the Pope:

Pius Bishop, Servant of the Servants of God, with the approval of the Sacred Council, for an everlasting remembrance. The eternal Pastor and Bishop of our souls, in order to continue for all time the life-giving work of His Redemption, determined to build up the Holy Church, wherein, as in the House of the living God, all faithful men might be united in the bond of one faith and one charity. Wherefore, before he entered into His glory, He prayed unto the Father, not for the Apostles only, but for those also who through their preaching should come to believe in Him, that all might be one even as He the Son and the Father are one. As then the Apostles whom He had chosen to Himself from the world were sent by Him, not otherwise than He Himself had been sent by the Father; so did He will that there should ever be pastors and teachers in His Church to the end of the world. And in order

that the Episcopate also might be one and undivided, and that by means of a closely united priesthood the body of the faithful might be kept secure in the oneness of faith and communion, He set Blessed Peter over the rest of the Apostles, and fixed in him the abiding principle of this twofold unity, and its visible foundation, in the strength of which the everlasting temple should arise, and the Church in the firmness of that faith should lift her majestic front to Heaven. And seeing that the gates of hell with daily increase of hatred are gathering their strength on every side to upheave the foundation laid by God's own hand, and so, if that might be, to overthrow the Church; We, therefore, for the preservation, safe-keeping, and increase of the Catholic flock, with the approval of the Sacred Council, do judge it to be necessary to propose to the belief and acceptance of all the faithful, in accordance with the ancient and constant faith of the universal Church, the doctrine touching the institution, perpetuity, and nature of the sacred Apostolic Primacy, in which is found the strength and sureness of the entire Church, and at the same time to inhibit and condemn the contrary errors, so hurtful to the flock of Christ.

CHAPTER I. *Of the institution of the apostolic primacy in Blessed Peter.* We, therefore, teach and declare that, according to the testimony of the Gospel, the primacy of jurisdiction was immediately and directly promised to Blessed Peter the Apostle, and on him conferred by Christ the Lord. For it had been said before to Simon: Thou shalt be called Cephas, and afterwards on occasion of the confession made by him: Thou art the Christ, the Son of the living God, it was to Simon alone that the Lord addressed the words: Blessed art thou, Simon Bar-Jona, because flesh and blood hath not revealed it to thee, but my Father who is in Heaven. And I say to thee that thou art Peter; and upon this rock I will build my Church, and the gates of hell shall not prevail against it. And I will give to thee the keys of the kingdom of Heaven. And whatsoever thou shalt bind upon earth, it shall be bound also in heaven, and whatsoever thou shalt loose on earth it shall be loosed also in heaven. And it was upon Simon alone that Jesus after His resurrection bestowed the jurisdiction of Chief Pastor and Ruler over all His fold in the words: Feed my lambs: feed my sheep. At open variance with this clear doctrine of Holy Scripture as it has been ever understood by the Catholic Church are the perverse opinions of those who, while they distort the form of government established by Christ the Lord in His Church, deny that Peter in his single person, preferably to all the other Apostles, whether taken separately or together, was endowed by Christ with a true and proper primacy of jurisdiction: or of those who assert that the same primacy was not bestowed immediately and directly upon Blessed Peter himself, but upon the Church, and through the Church on Peter as her Minister. If anyone, therefore, shall say that Blessed Peter the Apostle was not appointed the Prince of all the Apostles and the visible Head of the whole Church Militant; or that the same directly and immediately received from the same Our Lord Jesus Christ a Primacy of honour only, and not of true and proper jurisdiction; let him be anathema.

CHAPTER II. *On the perpetuation of the primacy of Peter in the Roman Pontiffs.* That which the Prince of Shepherds and great Shepherd of the

sheep, Jesus Christ our Lord, established in the person of the Blessed Apostle Peter to secure the perpetual welfare and lasting good of the Church, must, by the same institution, necessarily remain unceasingly in the Church; which, being founded upon the Rock, will stand firm to the end of the world. For none can doubt, and it is known to all ages, that the holy and Blessed Peter, the Prince and Chief of the Apostles, the pillar of the faith and foundation of the Catholic Church, who received the keys of the kingdom from Our Lord Jesus Christ, the Saviour and Redeemer of the race of man, continues up to the present time, and ever continues, in his successors the Bishops of the Holy See of Rome, which was founded by Him, and consecrated by His blood, to live and preside and judge. Whence, whosoever succeeds to Peter in this See, does by the institution of Christ Himself obtain the Primacy of Peter over the whole Church. The disposition made by Incarnate Truth therefore remains, and Blessed Peter, abiding through the strength of the Rock in the power that he received, has not abandoned the direction of the Church. Wherefore it has at all times been necessary that every particular Church—that is to say, the faithful throughout the world—should agree with the Roman Church, on account of the greater authority of the principedom which this has received; that all being associated in the unity of that See whence the rights of communion spread to all, as members in the unity of the Head, might combine to form one connected body. If, then, any should deny that it is by the institution of Christ the Lord, or by divine right, that Blessed Peter should have a perpetual line of successors in the Primacy over the Universal Church, or that the Roman Pontiff is the successor of Blessed Peter in this Primacy; let him be anathema.

CHAPTER III. *On the force and character of the primacy of the Roman Pontiff.* Wherefore, resting on plain testimonies of the Sacred Writings, and in agreement with both the plain and express decrees of our predecessors, the Roman Pontiffs, and of the General Councils, We renew the definition of the Œcumenical Council of Florence, in virtue of which all the faithful of Christ must believe that the Holy Apostolic See and the Roman Pontiff possesses the Primacy over the whole world, and that the Roman Pontiff is the successor of Blessed Peter, Prince of the Apostles, and is true Vicar of Christ, and Head of the whole Church, and Father and teacher of all Christians; and that full power was given to him in Blessed Peter to rule, feed, and govern the Universal Church by Jesus Christ our Lord: as is also contained in the acts of the General Councils and in the Sacred Canons. Further we teach and declare that by the appointment of our Lord the Roman Church possesses the chief ordinary jurisdiction over all other Churches, and that this power of jurisdiction possessed by the Roman Pontiff being truly episcopal is immediate; which all, both pastors and faithful, both individually and collectively, are bound, by their duty of hierarchical submission and true obedience, to obey, not merely in matters which belong to faith and morals, but also in those that appertain to the discipline and government of the Church throughout the world, so that the Church of Christ may be one flock under one supreme pastor through the preservation of unity both of communion and of profession of the same faith with the Roman Pontiff. This is the teaching of Catholic truth, from which no one can deviate without loss of

faith and of salvation. But so far is this power of the Supreme Pontiff from being any prejudice to the ordinary power of episcopal jurisdiction, by which the Bishops who have been set by the Holy Spirit to succeed and hold the place of the Apostles feed and govern, each his own flock, as true Pastors, that this episcopal authority is really asserted, strengthened, and protected by the supreme and universal Pastor; in accordance with the words of S. Gregory the Great: My honour is the honour of the whole Church. My honour is the firm strength of my Brethren. I am then truly honoured, when due honour is not denied to each of their number. Further, from this supreme power possessed by the Roman Pontiff of governing the Universal Church, it follows that he has the right of free communication with the Pastors of the whole Church, and with their flocks, that these may be taught and directed by him in the way of salvation. Wherefore we condemn and reject the opinions of those who hold that the communication between this supreme Head and the Pastors and their flocks can lawfully be impeded; or who represent this communication as subject to the will of the secular power, so as to maintain that whatever is done by the Apostolic See, or by its authority, cannot have force or value, unless it be confirmed by the assent of the secular power. And since by the divine right of Apostolic primacy, the Roman Pontiff is placed over the Universal Church, we further teach and declare that he is the supreme judge of the faithful, and that in all causes, the decision of which belongs to the Church, recourse may be had to his tribunal: and that none may meddle with the judgment of the Apostolic See, the authority of which is greater than all other, nor can any lawfully depart from its judgment. Wherefore they depart from the right course who assert that it is lawful to appeal from the judgments of the Roman Pontiffs and an Œcumenical Council, as to an authority higher than that of the Roman Pontiff. If then any shall say that the Roman Pontiff has the office merely of inspection or direction, and not full and supreme power of jurisdiction over the Universal Church, not alone in things which belong to faith and morals, but in those which relate to the discipline and government of the Church spread throughout the world; or who assert that he possesses merely the principal part, and not all the fulness of this supreme power; or that this power which he enjoys is not ordinary and immediate, both over each and all the Churches and over each and all the Pastors and the faithful; let him be anathema.

CHAPTER IV. *Concerning the infallible teaching of the Roman Pontiff.* Moreover that the supreme power of teaching is also included in the Apostolic Primacy, which the Roman Pontiff, as successor of Peter, Prince of the Apostles, enjoys over the whole Church, this Holy See has always held, the perpetual practice of the Church attests, and Œcumenical Councils themselves have declared, especially those in which the East with the West met in the union of faith and charity. For the Fathers of the Fourth Council of Constantinople, following in the footsteps of their predecessors, gave forth this solemn profession: The first condition of salvation is to keep the rule of the true faith. And because the sentence of our Lord Jesus Christ cannot be passed by, who said: Thou art Peter, and upon this Rock I will build my Church, these things which have been said are approved by events, because in the Apostolic See the Catholic Religion and her holy solemn doctrine has always been kept immaculate. Desiring, therefore, not to

be in the least degree separated from the faith and doctrine of that See, we hope that we may deserve to be in the one communion, which the Apostolic See preaches, in which is the entire and true solidity of the Christian religion. And, with the approval of the Second Council of Lyons, the Greeks professed that the Holy Roman Church enjoy supreme and full Primacy and preeminence over the whole Catholic Church, which it truly and humbly acknowledges that it has received with the plenitude of power from our Lord Himself in the person of blessed Peter, Prince or Head of the Apostles, whose successor the Roman Pontiff is; and as the Apostolic See is bound before all others to defend the truth of faith, so also if any questions regarding faith shall arise, they must be defined by its judgment. Finally, the Council of Florence defined: That the Roman Pontiff is the true Vicar of Christ, and the Head of the whole Church, and the Father and Teacher of all Christians; and that to him in blessed Peter was delivered by our Lord Jesus Christ the full power of feeding, ruling, and governing the whole Church. To satisfy this pastoral duty our predecessors ever made unwearied efforts that the salutary doctrine of Christ might be propagated among all the nations of the earth, and with equal care watched that it might be preserved sincere and pure where it had been received. Therefore the Bishops of the whole world, now singly, now assembled in synod, following the long-established custom of Churches, and the form of the ancient rule, sent word to this Apostolic See of those dangers which sprang up in matters of faith, that there especially the losses of faith might be repaired where faith cannot feel any defect. And the Roman Pontiffs, according to the exigencies of times and circumstances, sometimes assembling Œcumenical Councils, or asking for the mind of the Church scattered throughout the world, sometimes by particular Synods, sometimes using other helps which Divine Providence supplied, defined as to be held those things which with the help of God they had recognised as conformable with the Sacred Scriptures and Apostolic Traditions. For the Holy Spirit was not promised to the successors of Peter that under His revelation they might make known new doctrine, but that under His assistance they might scrupulously keep and faithfully expound the revelation or deposit of faith delivered through the Apostles. And, indeed, all the venerable Fathers have embraced, and the holy orthodox Doctors have venerated and followed, their Apostolic doctrine; knowing most fully that this See of holy Peter remains ever free from all blemish of error, according to the divine promise of the Lord our Saviour made to the Prince of His disciples: I have prayed for thee that thy faith fail not, and thou, at length converted, confirm thy brethren. This gift, then, of truth and never-failing faith was conferred by Heaven upon Peter and his successors in this Chair, that they might perform their high office for the salvation of all; that the whole flock of Christ, kept away by them from the poisonous food of error, might be nourished with the pasture of heavenly doctrine; that the occasion of schism being removed the whole Church might be kept one, and, resting on its foundation, might stand firm against the gates of hell. But since in this very age, in which the salutary efficacy of the Apostolic office is even most of all required, not a few are found who take away from its authority, We judge it altogether necessary solemnly to assert the prerogative which the only-begotten Son of God vouchsafed to join with the supreme pastoral office. Therefore We,

faithfully adhering to the tradition received from the beginning of the Christian faith, for the glory of God our Saviour, the exaltation of the Roman Catholic Religion, and the salvation of Christian people, with the approbation of the Sacred Council, teach and define that it is a dogma divinely revealed: that the Roman Pontiff, when he speaks *ex cathedra*, that is, when in discharge of the office of Pastor and Doctor of all Christians by virtue of his supreme Apostolic authority he defines a doctrine regarding faith or morals to be held by the Universal Church, by the divine assistance promised to him in blessed Peter, enjoys that infallibility with which the divine Redeemer wished that His Church be provided for defining doctrine regarding faith or morals; and that therefore such definitions of the Roman Pontiff are irreformable of themselves, and not from the consent of the Church. But if anyone—which may God avert—presume to contradict this Our definition; let him be anathema.

1870.—End of the temporal sovereignty.—Rome made the capital of the kingdom of Italy.—Law of the Papal Guarantees: Summary and text.—The events which extinguished the temporal sovereignty of the pope and made Rome the capital of the kingdom of Italy will be found narrated under ITALY: 1870. "The entry of the Italian troops into Rome, and its union to Italy . . . [were] acquiesced in by all the powers of Europe, both Protestant and Roman Catholic. The French Government of National Defence, which had succeeded to power after the fall of the Second Empire, expressed through M. Jules Favre, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, its desire that the Italians should do what they liked, and avowed its sympathy with them. . . . The Austro-Hungarian Cabinet was asked by the Papal Court to protest against the occupation of Rome. To this the Imperial and Royal Government gave a direct refusal, alleging among other reasons that 'its excellent relations' with Italy, upon which it had 'cause to congratulate itself ever since reconciliation had been effected' prevented its acceding to the desire of the Vatican. . . . The Spanish Government of the Regency, which succeeded to that of Queen Isabella, adopted much the same line of conduct; it praised Signor Visconti-Venosta's circular, and spoke of the 'wise and prudent' measures it proposed to adopt with regard to the Pope. . . . Baron d'Anethan, at that time Prime Minister of Belgium, who was the leader of the conservative or clerical party in the country, admitted to the Italian Minister at Brussels: 'that speaking strictly, the temporal power was not, in truth, an indispensable necessity to the Holy See for the fulfilment of its mission in the world.' As to the course Belgium would take the Baron said—'If Italy has a territorial difficulty to discuss with the Holy See, that is a matter with which Belgium has nothing to do, and it would be to disown the principles on which our existence reposes if we expressed an opinion one way or the other on the subject.' . . . The Italian Chamber elected in March, 1867, was dissolved, and on the 5th December, 1870, the newly elected Parliament met in Florence for the last time. Among its members now sat those who represented Rome and the province, in which it is situated. The session of 1871 was occupied with the necessary arrangements for the transfer of the capital to Rome, and by the discussion of an act defining the position of the Pope in relation to the kingdom of Italy. The labours of Parliament resulted in the Law of the Papal Guarantees, which, after long and full

debate in both Houses, received the royal assent on the 13th of May, 1871."—J. W. Probyn, *Italy, 1815 to 1878, ch. 11.*

"What is the exact legal position of the Vatican at present surrounded as it is by Italian territory and possessing no free outlet to other countries? The answer to this question is furnished by the Law of Guarantees of May 13, 1871. When the Piedmontese entered Rome through the breach in the Porta Pia on September 20, 1870, they seized immediately all the possessions of the Papal States, whereupon the independent existence of these States came to an end. Pius IX, who had resided earlier in the Quirinal Palace, then occupied the Vatican. Halting before the Vatican, and abstaining also from occupying the Lateran, the victors proceeded to study the question of the legal position of the Pope under the new conditions. . . . After long negotiations, the Italian authorities decided upon the draft of a law which was to guarantee the position of the Pope as the supreme head of the Catholic Church. In the extended discussions in the Italian Chambers the intentions of the Government were fully explained by its representatives, so that the character of the law executed by Victor Emmanuel on May 13 was established beyond possible doubt: (1) The law had for its basis, not Italian, but international law; (2) consequently, all alteration of this law at any future date by the Italian legislature, without consulting the Vatican, was excluded; (3) the law thus became binding for the Italian Government, regardless of the fact whether it was recognized or not by the other party as of valid origin; (4) the Italian State bound itself so completely that only by an act of violence, in violation of an international public obligation voluntarily undertaken, can it alter any portion or the whole of this law. . . . It may be asked what are the special provisions of the Law of Guarantees. In the first place, the Italian State undertakes to pay to the Pope a yearly sum of 3,225,000 lire (\$650,000). Should no claim be entered for this sum, it is allowed to accumulate for five years and then reverts to the Italian exchequer. Although the sum has never been claimed by the Pope, it is still included without debate in each annual Budget. . . . In the second place, the Law of Guarantees provides that the palaces of the Vatican and the Lateran, and also the summer residence of Castel Gandolfo, shall be extra-territorial. This means that the Italian Government may exercise no authority whatever in these places; its powers end at the gates of these buildings. They cannot subpœna or tax any person in the papal service. In these palaces the Pope rules as an independent sovereign. In the third place, the Law of Guarantees gives the Pope the right to receive accredited ambassadors and envoys from all powers with which he desires to cultivate diplomatic relations. Of this right he has always availed himself, so that there are in Rome two diplomatic corps—one accredited to the Quirinal (where the King lives), and the other to the Vatican. As a consequence, the Italian Government must concede to these Vatican diplomats and their residences all the privileges granted to the persons and residences of diplomats throughout the entire civilized world. . . . In the fourth place, the Italian State is bound to send free to every part of the world all official telegrams of the Pope and the Holy See, whenever these are provided with the stamp of the Secretariate of State. All letters posted in Italy are delivered free to the Pope. . . . The Pope has never recognized the law as of valid origin. The Italian Government, however, has repeatedly declared that it regards itself bound by

every provision of the Law of Guarantees."—*Ibid.*, pp. 543-546.

"In the extensive dealings which the household administration of the Apostolic Palaces necessarily has with contractors and purveyors, and upon numerous questions of equity and law, some differences of opinion and disputes cannot but arise. Since the Vatican boards cannot be cited before the Italian courts, some provision had to be made so that outside parties might seek and find justice in the Vatican. Under the name of Commissions of Prelates, courts of law have been established 'to settle all disputes with, and claims against the Palatine Administration.'"—E. Begni, *Vatican, its history, its treasures*, pp. 544-547.

The Law of Guarantees runs as follows:

Article I. The person of the Sovereign Pontiff is sacred and inviolable.

Art. II. An attack (attentato) directed against the person of the Sovereign Pontiff, and any instigation to commit such attack, is punishable by the same penalties as those established in the case of an attack directed against the person of the king, or any instigation to commit such an attack. Offences and public insults committed directly against the person of the Pontiff by discourses, acts, or by the means indicated in the 1st article of the law on the press, are punishable by the penalties established by the 19th article of the same law. These crimes are liable to public action, and are within the jurisdiction of the court of assizes. The discussion of religious subjects is completely free.

Art. III. The Italian Government renders throughout the territory of the kingdom royal honours to the Sovereign Pontiff, and maintains that pre-eminence of honour recognised as belonging to him by Catholic princes. The Sovereign Pontiff has power to keep up the usual number of guards attached to his person, and to the custody of the palaces, without prejudice to the obligations and duties resulting to such guards from the actual laws of the kingdom.

Art. IV. The endowment of 3,225,000 francs (lire italiane) of yearly rental is retained in favour of the Holy See. With this sum, which is equal to that inscribed in the Roman balance-sheet under the title, "Sacred Apostolic Palaces, Sacred College, Ecclesiastical Congregations, Secretary of State, and Foreign Diplomatic Office," it is intended to provide for the maintenance of the Sovereign Pontiff, and for the various ecclesiastical wants of the Holy See for ordinary and extraordinary maintenance, and for the keeping of the apostolic palaces and their dependencies; for the pay, gratifications, and pensions of the guards of whom mention is made in the preceding article, and for those attached to the Pontifical Court, and for eventual expenses; also for the ordinary maintenance and care of the annexed museums and library, and for the pay, stipends, and pensions of those employed for that purpose. The endowment mentioned above shall be inscribed in the Great Book of the public debt, in form of perpetual and inalienable revenue, in the name of the Holy See; and during the time that the See is vacant, it shall continue to be paid, in order to meet all the needs of the Roman Church during that interval of time. The endowment shall remain exempt from any species of government, communal, or provincial tax; and it cannot be diminished in future, even in the case of the Italian Government resolving ultimately itself to assume the expenses of the museums and library.

Art. V. The Sovereign Pontiff, besides the en-

dowment established in the preceding article, will continue to have the use of the apostolic palaces of the Vatican and Lateran with all the edifices, gardens, and grounds annexed to and dependent on them, as well as the Villa of Castel Gondolfo with all its belongings and dependencies. The said palaces, villa, and annexes, like the museums, the library, and the art and archæological collections there existing, are inalienable, are exempt from every tax or impost, and from all expropriation on the ground of public utility.

Art. VI. During the time in which the Holy See is vacant, no judiciary or political authority shall be able for any reason whatever to place any impediment or limit to the personal liberty of the cardinals. The Government provides that the meetings of the Conclave and of the Œcumenical Councils shall not be disturbed by any external violence.

Art. VII. No official of the public authority, nor agent of the public forces, can in the exercise of his peculiar office enter into the palaces or localities of habitual residence or temporary stay of the Sovereign Pontiff, or in those in which are assembled a Conclave or Œcumenical Council, unless authorised by the Sovereign Pontiff, by the Conclave, or by the Council.

Art. VIII. It is forbidden to proceed with visits, perquisitions, or seizures of papers, documents, books, or registers in the offices and pontifical congregations invested with purely spiritual functions.

Art. IX. The Sovereign Pontiff is completely free to fulfil all the functions of his spiritual ministry, and to have affixed to the doors of the basilicas and churches of Rome all the acts of the said ministry.

Art. X. The ecclesiastics who, by reason of their office, participate in Rome in the sending forth of the acts of the spiritual ministry of the Holy See, are not subject on account of those acts to any molestation, investigation, or act of magistracy, on the part of the public authorities. Every stranger invested with ecclesiastical office in Rome enjoys the personal guarantees belonging to Italian citizens in virtue of the laws of the kingdom.

Art. XI. The envoys of foreign governments to the Holy See enjoy in the kingdom all the prerogatives and immunities which belong to diplomatic agents, according to international right. To offences against them are extended the penalties inflicted for offences against the envoys of foreign powers accredited to the Italian Government. To the envoys of the Holy See to foreign Governments are assured throughout the territory of the kingdom the accustomed prerogatives and immunities, according to the same (international) right, in going to and from the place of their mission.

Art. XII. The Supreme Pontiff corresponds freely with the Episcopate and with all the Catholic world without any interference whatever on the part of the Italian Government. To such end he has the faculty of establishing in the Vatican, or any other of his residences, postal and telegraphic offices worked by clerks of his own appointment. The Pontifical post-office will be able to correspond directly, by means of sealed packets, with the post-offices of foreign administrations, or remit its own correspondence to the Italian post-offices. In both cases the transport of despatches or correspondence furnished with the official Pontifical stamp will be exempt from every tax or expense as regards Italian territory. The couriers sent out in the name of the Supreme Pontiff are placed on the same footing in the kingdom, as the cabinet couriers or those of foreign government. The

Pontifical telegraphic office will be placed in communication with the network of telegraphic lines of the kingdom, at the expense of the State. Telegrams transmitted by the said office with the authorised designation of 'Pontifical' will be received and transmitted with the privileges established for telegrams of State, and with the exemption in the kingdom from every tax. The same advantages will be enjoyed by the telegrams of the Sovereign Pontiff or those which, signed by his order and furnished with the stamp of the Holy See, shall be presented to any telegraphic office in the kingdom. Telegrams directed to the Sovereign Pontiff shall be exempt from charges upon those who send them.

Art. XIII. In the city of Rome and in the six suburban sees the seminaries, academies, colleges, and other Catholic institutions founded for the education and culture of ecclesiastics, shall continue to depend only on the Holy See, without any interference of the scholastic authorities of the kingdom.

Art. XIV. Every special restriction of the exercise of the right of meeting on the part of the members of the Catholic clergy is abolished.

Art. XV. The Government renounces its right of apostolic legateship (*legazia apostolica*) in Sicily, and also its right, throughout the kingdom, of nomination or presentation in the collation of the greater benefices. The bishops shall not be required to make oath of allegiance to the king. The greater and lesser benefices cannot be conferred except on citizens of the kingdom, save in the case of the city of Rome, and of the suburban sees. No innovation is made touching the presentation to benefices under royal patronage.

Art. XVI. The royal "exequatur" and "placet," and every other form of Government assent for the publication and execution of acts of ecclesiastical authority, are abolished. However, until such time as may be otherwise provided in the special law of which Art. XVIII. speaks, the acts of these (ecclesiastical) authorities which concern the destination of ecclesiastical property and the provisions of the major and minor benefices, excepting those of the city of Rome and the suburban sees, remain subject to the royal "exequatur" and "placet." The enactments of the civil law with regard to the creation and to the modes of existence of ecclesiastical institutions and of their property remain unaltered.

Art. XVII. In matters spiritual and of spiritual discipline, no appeal is admitted against acts of the ecclesiastical authorities, nor is any aid on the part of the civil authority recognised as due to such acts, nor is it accorded to them. The recognising of the judicial effects, in these as in every other act of these (ecclesiastical) authorities, rests with the civil jurisdiction. However, such acts are without effect if contrary to the laws of the State, or to public order, or if damaging to private rights, and are subjected to the penal laws if they constitute a crime.

Art. XVIII. An ulterior law will provide for the reorganisation, the preservation, and the administration of the ecclesiastical property of the kingdom.

Art. XIX. As regards all matters which form part of the present law, everything now existing, in so far as it may be contrary to this law, ceases to have effect.

"The object of this law was to carry out still further than had yet been done the principle of a 'free Church in a free State,' by giving the Church unfettered power in all spiritual matters,

while placing all temporal power in the hands of the State. . . . The Pope and his advisers simply protested against all that was done. Pius IX. shut himself up in the Vatican and declared himself a prisoner. In the meanwhile the practical transfer of the capital from Florence was effected."—J. W. Probyn, *Italy, 1815 to 1878*, ch. II.—The attitude towards the Italian Government assumed by the Papal Court in 1870, and since maintained, is indicated by the following, quoted from a work written in sympathy with it: "Pius IX. had refused to treat with or in any way recognize the new masters of Rome. The Law of Guarantees adopted by the Italian Parliament granted him a revenue in compensation for the broad territories of which he had been despoiled. He refused to touch a single lira of it, and preferred to rely upon the generosity of his children in every land, rather than to become the pensioner of those who had stripped him of his civil sovereignty. His last years were spent within the boundaries of the Vatican palace. He could not have ventured to appear publicly in the city without exposing himself to the insults of the mob on the one hand, or on the other calling forth demonstrations of loyalty, which would have been made the pretext for stern military repression. Nor could he have accepted in the streets of Rome the protection of the agents of that very power against whose presence in the city he had never ceased to protest. Thus it was that Pius IX. became, practically, a prisoner in his own palace of the Vatican. He had not long to wait for evidence of the utter hollowness of the so-called Law of Guarantees. The extension to Rome of the law suppressing the religious orders, the seizure of the Roman College, the project for the expropriation of the property of the Propaganda itself, were so many proofs of the spirit in which the new rulers of Rome interpreted their pledges, that the change of government should not in any way prejudice the Church or the Holy See in its administration of the Church. . . . The very misfortunes and difficulties of the Holy See drew closer the bonds that united the Catholic world to its centre. The Vatican became a centre of pilgrimage to an extent that it had never been before in all its long history, and this movement begun under Pius IX. has continued and gathered strength under Leo XIII., until at length it has provoked the actively hostile opposition of the intruded government. Twice during his last years Pius IX. found himself the centre of a world-wide demonstration of loyalty and affection, first on June 16th, 1871, when he celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of his coronation, the first of all the Popes who had ever reigned beyond the 'years of Peter'; and again on June 3rd, 1877, when, surrounded by the bishops and pilgrims of all nations, he kept the jubilee of his episcopal consecration. . . . Pius IX. was destined to outlive Victor Emmanuel, as he had outlived Napoleon III. . . . Victor Emmanuel died on January 9th, Pius IX. on February 6th [1878]. . . . It had been the hope of the Revolution that, however stubbornly Pius IX. might refuse truce or compromise with the new order of things, his successor would prove to be a man of more yielding disposition. The death of the Pope had occurred somewhat unexpectedly. Though he had been ill in the autumn of 1877, at the New Year he seemed to have recovered, and there was every expectation that his life would be prolonged for at least some months. The news of his death came at a moment when the Italian Government was fully occupied with the changes that followed the accession of a new king, and when the

diplomats of Europe were more interested in the settlement of the conditions of peace between France and Germany than in schemes for influencing the conclave. Before the enemies of the Church had time to concert any hostile plans of action, the cardinals had assembled at the Vatican and had chosen as Supreme Pontiff, Cardinal Pecci, the Archbishop of Perugia. He assumed the name of Leo XIII., a name now honoured not only within the Catholic Church, but throughout the whole civilized world. . . . The first public utterances of the new Pope shattered the hopes of the usurpers. He had taken up the standard of the Church's rights from the hands of his predecessor, and he showed himself as uncompromising as ever Pius IX. had been on the question of the independence of the Holy See, and its effective guarantee in the Civil Sovereignty of the Supreme Pontiff. The hope that the Roman Question would be solved by a surrender on the part of Leo XIII. of all that Pius IX. had contended for has been long since abandoned."—Chevalier O'Clery, *Making of Italy*, ch. 26.—See also ITALY: 1867-1870.

1870-1874.—First stages of the "Kulturkampf" in Germany.—May laws.—Speeches of Bismarck.—"For reasons relating to its own internal affairs the state, even though it took no special attitude to the dogma of infallibility in itself, could not avoid being drawn into the conflicts which that dogma was bound to call forth between its upholders and its opponents. . . . It was necessary for it to interfere and, by introducing civil marriages, to render marriage possible to those apostates who were not allowed to receive the sacraments; it was necessary for it to protect in the exercise of their office those of its public teachers who rejected the new dogma, even if their spiritual superiors should declare them unfit to hold such office. In cases, finally, where whole congregations, or majorities of them, remained true to the old teachings it was necessary for the state to protect them in the possession of their churches of which the bishops tried to deprive them. . . . The chancellor of the empire had now [1871] personally entered the lists. As his cool attitude already before the council had given reason to expect, the Vatican dogma did not much trouble him. All the more alarming seemed to him the agitation which the clergy were stirring up among the Polish nobles. . . . He [Bismarck] caused the announcement to be made in an article of the *Kreuzzeitung* that the government would not only continue on the defensive against the Centre, but in turn would proceed to attack it. The ultramontanes had better consider whether such a struggle could turn out to the advantage of the Roman Church. If, he concluded, three hundred years ago Teutonicism in Germany was stronger than Romanism, how much stronger would it be now when Rome is no longer the capital of the world, but on the point of becoming the capital of Italy, and when the German imperial crown no longer rests on the head of a Spaniard but of a German prince. . . . In the Federal Council Lutz moved an amendment to the criminal code which should threaten any clergyman with imprisonment up to two years if he should misuse his office and discuss state affairs so as to disturb the peace. . . . This 'pulpit-paragraph' was accepted with 179 to 108 votes and became law December 14th, 1871. . . . The Prussian diet was opened on November 27, 1871, with the announcement of four new laws which should regulate marriages, the registration of civil personal matters, the withdrawal from existing churches, and the supervision

of schools. . . . The conservative party was in wild excitement over these measures and the *Kreuzzeitung* became the organ of decided opposition, especially against the school-supervision law which was chosen as the first object of attack. The conservatives collected petitions from all parts of the land to kill this law which they prophesied would make the schools a tool of atheism, a hot-bed of revolution, unnationality and immorality. They succeeded in getting together more than 300,000 signatures. . . . At the first reading in the House of Deputies the school-supervision law was passed, although by a majority of only 25 votes. . . . At the second reading the majority increased to 52. . . . The chief struggle was expected in the House of Lords. . . . The vote here was favorable beyond all hopes, resulting on March 8th in a majority in favor of the law almost as great as that in the House of Deputies. . . . By no means calm was the attitude of the pope towards the increasing complications, and when, a few weeks later, on June 24th, 1872, he received the German 'Leseverein' in Rome he complained bitterly of the prime minister of a powerful government who, after marvellous successes in war, should have placed himself at the head of a long-planned persecution of the church; a step which would undoubtedly tarnish the glory of his former triumphs. 'Who knows if the little stone shall not soon be loosened from above that shall destroy the foot of the Colossus!' The chief cause of this embitterment lay in the expulsion of the Jesuits which had meanwhile been decreed by the diet. . . . The more the national opposition to the Roman claims increased, the more passionate did the frame of mind of the ultramontanes become; and also, in no small degree, of the pope. An allocution addressed to the cardinals on December 22, 1872, surpassed in violence anything that had yet been heard. . . . Even Reichensperger found it advisable in excusing a vehemence that thus went beyond all bounds to call to mind that the Latinized style of the papal chancery was not to be taken too literally. The German government, after such a demonstration, had no other alternative than to recall the last representative of its embassy to the papal court. . . . Already in November Minister Falk had laid before the House a draft of a law concerning the limits of ecclesiastical punishments and disciplinary measures; on January 9, 1873, followed the drafts of three new laws. . . . Still more passionately than in the debate concerning the change in the Constitution did Bismarck come forward in the discussion of April 24-28. . . . Windhorst and Schorlemer-Alst answered him back in kind. . . . With violent attacks on Bismarck they prophesied that these Draconic laws would rebound against the passive opposition of the people; that dawn was glimmering in men's minds and that the victory of the Church was near. To the great majority of the German people, who had followed the political-ecclesiastical debates with the liveliest interest, such assurances seemed almost laughable. They felt sure of victory now that Bismarck himself had seized the standard with such decision. The 'May Laws' which the king signed on May 11, 1873, were considered a weapon sure to be effectual, and even the advanced-liberals, who had followed many of the steps of the Government with hesitation and doubt, declared in an appeal to their electors on March 23 that the conflict had assumed the proportions of a great struggle for enlightenment (*Kulturkampf*) in which all mankind were concerned, and that they themselves, in junction with the other liberal parties would accordingly support

the Government. . . . On August 7 (1873) Pius IX. sent a letter to the emperor under pretext of having heard that the latter did not sympathize with the latest measures of his government. He declared that such measures seemed to aim at the annihilation of catholicism and warned him that their final result would be to undermine the throne. He deduced his right to issue this warning from the fact that he was bound to tell the truth to all, even to non-catholics: for in one way or another—exactly how this was not the place to make clear—every one who had received baptism belonged to the pope. The emperor answered on September 3rd in a most dignified tone. . . . 'We can not pass over in silence the remark that every one who has been baptized belongs to the pope. The evangelical faith which I, as your Holiness must know, like my forefathers and together with the majority of my subjects, confess, does not allow us to accept any other Mediator in our relations with God save our Lord Jesus Christ.' . . . Among protestants this royal answer was greeted with jubilant acclamations and even in foreign lands it found a loud echo. The aged Earl Russell organized a great meeting in London on January 27, 1874. . . . Soon after the opening of the Prussian diet Falk could bring forward the draft of a law which handed over to state-officials [Standesbeamte] all matters referring to the celebration of marriages and the registration of civil personal matters. This draft was sure from the first of a good majority. . . . On March 9th, 1874, the law could be proclaimed. In the same month still the deputies Hinschius and Völk made a motion in the diet to introduce civil marriages throughout the whole empire. . . . It furthermore seemed necessary to take stronger measures against bishops and priests unlawfully appointed and whom the state had either deposed or refused to recognize. The mildest measure was to remove them from their dioceses or parishes, to banish them to certain fixed places and, in the worst cases, to expel them altogether from the lands of the empire. . . . The draft of the law (to this effect) was warmly supported and at last, April 25, 1874, was accepted by a vote of 214 to 208. . . . On July 13th, 1874, as Prince Bismarck, who had gone to take the cure in Kissingen, was driving to the Saline, the twenty-one year old cooper's-apprentice Kullmann, of Magdeburg, fired a pistol at him, and wounded him in his right hand which he had just raised for the purpose of saluting. At once arrested, Kullmann declared to the chancellor, who visited him an hour later in his prison, that he had wished to murder him on account of the laws against the church. . . . The reading of ultramontane papers and the violent discourses of the catholic clergy had driven him to the deed. He atoned for it with fourteen years in the House of Correction. Not alone did public opinion make ultramontanism accountable for the deed, but Bismarck himself laid very strong emphasis on the fact that the criminal had spoken of the Centre as 'his party.' 'You may try as hard as you please to rid yourselves of this murderer,' he cried out in the diet of December 4th, 'he none the less holds fast to your coat-tails!'—C. Bulle, *Geschichte der neuesten Zeit* (tr. from the German), v. 4, pp. 20-41.—At the Session of the Lower House of the Prussian Diet, January 30, 1872, Deputy Windthorst spoke in opposition to the royal order for the abolition of the separate Roman Catholic section of the department of worship and public instruction, and Prince Bismarck, in reply, said: "The party to which the gentleman belongs has contributed its share to the difficulty

of obliterating the denominational standpoint in matters political. I have always considered it one of the most monstrous manifestations in politics, that a religious faction should convert itself into a political party. If all the other creeds were to adopt the same principle, it would bring theology into the parliamentary sessions and would make it a matter of public debate. . . . It has always been one of my fundamental principles that every creed ought to have full liberty of development, perfect liberty of conscience. But for all that I did not think it was a necessary corollary that a census of each denomination be taken merely for the purpose of giving each its proportional share in the Civil Service. . . . Where will you stop? You begin with a Cabinet; then you count the Chiefs of Division. I do not know what your ratio is—I think you claim four to seven—nor do I care to know. The subordinates in the Civil Service follow next. It is a fact, moreover, that the Evangelicals are by no means united in one denomination. The contrast is not merely between Protestants and Catholics. The United Prussian Established Church, the Lutheran Church, the Reformed Church, all have claims analogous to those of the Catholics. As soon as we cut up the state into denominational sections, giving each creed its proportional share, then the large Jewish population will come in for its part, a majority of which, distinguished by its special capacity, skill and intelligence, is peculiarly fitted for the business of the State. . . . We cannot admit the claim of the ecclesiastical authorities to a further share in the administration and in the interest of peace we are obliged to restrict the share they already have; so that we may have room beside each other and be obliged, as little as possible, to trouble ourselves about theology in this place."—*Die politischen Reden des Fürsten Bismarck* (tr. from the German), v. 5, pp. 231-240.—In the German Parliament, May 14, 1872, on the question of a grant of 19,350 thalers for the German embassy at the See of Rome, Prince Bismarck spoke as follows: "I can easily understand how in considering this item of the estimates, the opinion may be held that the expenditure for this embassy was superfluous, as it does no longer consider the protection of German citizens in foreign parts. Still I am glad that no motion for the striking out of this post was made, which would be unpleasant to the Government. The duties of an embassy consist not merely in affording protection to their countrymen, but also in keeping up the political relations of the Government which it represents with that to which it is accredited. Now there is no foreign sovereign, who, in the present state of our laws, might be called upon to exercise, in accordance with those laws, prerogatives in the German empire like those of His Holiness, approaching almost to sovereignty, limited by no constitutional responsibility. There is therefore great importance for the German empire in the character that is given to our diplomatic relations with the head of the Roman Church, wielding, as he does, an influence in this country unusually extensive for a foreign potentate. I scarcely believe, considering the spirit dominant at present in the leading circles of the Catholic Church, that any ambassador of the German empire could succeed, by the most skilful diplomacy, or by persuasion (comminatory attitudes conceivable between secular powers are out of the question here)—I say no one could succeed by persuasion in exerting an influence to bring about a modification of the position assumed by His Holiness the Pope towards things secular. The dogmas of the Catholic Church recently announced

and publicly promulgated make it impossible for any secular power to come to an understanding with the church without its own effacement, which the German empire, at least, cannot accept. Have no fear; we shall not go to Canossa, either in body or in spirit. Nevertheless it cannot be concealed that the state of the German empire (it is not my task here to investigate the motives and determine how much blame attaches to one party or the other; I am only defending an item in the Budget)—that the feeling within the German empire in regard to religious peace, is one of disquietude. The governments of the German empire are seeking, with all the solicitude they owe to their Catholic as well as Lutheran subjects for the best way, the most acceptable means, of changing the present unpleasant state of affairs in matters of religion to a more agreeable one, without disturbing to any degree the credal relations of the empire. This can only be done by way of legislation—of general imperial legislation—for which the governments have to rely upon the assistance of the Reichstag. That this legislation must not in the least infringe upon the liberty of conscience,—must proceed in the gentlest, most conciliatory manner; that the government must bend all its energies in order to prevent unnecessary retardation of its work, from incorrect recording or errors in form, you all will admit. That the governments must spare no efforts for the establishment of our internal peace, in a manner least offensive even to the religious sensitiveness of those whose creed we do not share, you will also admit. To this end, however, it is before all things needful that the Roman See be at all times well informed of the intentions of the German governments, much better than it has been hitherto. The reports made in the past to His Holiness, the Pope, on the state of affairs in Germany, and on the intentions of the German governments, I consider as one of the chief causes of the present disturbances of denominational relations; for those presentations were both incorrect and perverted, either by personal bias, or by baser motives. I had hoped that the choice of an ambassador, who had the full confidence of both parties, both on account of his love of truth and reliability, and on account of the nature of his views and his attitude—that the choice of such an ambassador as His Majesty had made in the person of a distinguished prince of the church [Cardinal Prince Hohenlohe] would be welcomed at Rome; that it would be taken as an earnest of our peaceable and conciliatory intentions; that it would be utilized as a means to our mutual understanding. I had hoped that it would afford the assurance that we would never ask anything of His Holiness, but what a prince of the church, sustaining the most intimate relations to the Pope, could present before him; that the forms with which one sacerdotal dignitary confers with another would continue to prevail and that all unnecessary friction in a matter so difficult in itself would be avoided. . . . All this we had hoped to attain. But alas! for reasons which have not yet been submitted to us, a curt refusal on the part of the Papal See frustrated the intentions of His Majesty. I dare say such an incident does not often occur. It is customary, when a sovereign has made choice of an ambassador, out of courtesy to make inquiry at the court to which the chosen ambassador is to be accredited, whether he be persona grata or not. The case of a negative reply, however, is extremely rare, bringing about, as it must, a revocation of the appointment made not provisionally, but definitely, before the inquiry. Such a negative reply is equal

to a demand to annul what has been done, to a declaration: 'You have chosen unwisely.' I have now been Foreign Minister for ten years; have been busy in matters of higher diplomacy for twenty-one years; and I can positively assert that this is the first and only case in my experience of such an inquiry receiving a negative reply." Deputy Windthorst, in reply, criticised the procedure of the German Government in this affair, and justified the position taken by the papal court, saying: "I believe, gentlemen, for my part, that it was the duty of the Cardinal to ask the permission of his master, the Pope, before accepting the post. The Cardinal was the servant of the Pope, and as such, could not accept an office from another government without previous inquiry. . . . The case would be the same if His Holiness had appointed an adjutant general of His Majesty as papal nuncio, only more flagrant, for you will admit that a Cardinal is quite a different person from an adjutant general." Prince Bismarck replied: "I do not wish to discuss here the personal criticism which the gentleman made on His Eminence, the Cardinal, but I would say a word about the expression 'master' which was used. The gentleman is certainly well versed in history, especially ecclesiastical history, and I wish to ask him, who was the master of Cardinal Richelieu or Cardinal Mazarin. Both of these dignitaries were engaged in controversies and had to settle important differences with the See of Rome, in the service of their sovereign, the king of France; and yet they were Cardinals. . . . If it should please His Holiness to appoint an adjutant general of His Majesty as papal nuncio, I should unconditionally advise His Majesty to accept him. . . . I am an enemy to all conjectural politics and all prophecies. That will take care of itself. But I can assure the gentleman that we will maintain the full integral sovereignty of the law with all means at our disposal, against assumptions of individual subjects of His Majesty, the king of Prussia, be they priests or laymen, that there could be laws of the land not binding upon them; and we are sure of the entire support of a great majority of the members of all religious confessions. The sovereignty can and must be one and integral,—the sovereignty of the law; and he who declares the laws of his country as not binding upon himself, places himself outside the pale of the law."—*Die politischen Reden des Fürsten Bismarck* (tr. from the German), v. 5, pp. 337-344.—The following is from a speech of Prince Bismarck in the Upper House, March 10, 1873, during the discussion of the May Laws: "The gentleman who spoke before me has entered on the same path which the opponents of these bills followed in the other house by ascribing to them a confessional, I might say, an ecclesiastical character. The question we are considering is, according to my view, misconstrued, and the light in which we consider it, a false light if we look upon it as a confessional, a church question. It is essentially a political one; it is not, as our Catholic fellow citizens are made to believe, a contest of an evangelical dynasty against the Catholic Church; it is not a struggle between faith and unbelief; it is the perennial contest, as old as the human race, between royalty and priesthood, older than the appearance of our Savior on earth. This contest was carried on by Agamemnon at Aulis, which cost him his daughter and hindered the Grecian fleet from going to sea. This contest has filled the German history of the Middle Ages even to the disintegration of the German Empire. It is known as the struggles of the popes with the emperors, closing for the Middle Ages when the last

representative of the noble Suabian imperial dynasty died on the block beneath the axe of the French conqueror, that French conqueror being in league with the then ruling pope. We were very near an analogous solution of this question, translated into the manners of our own time. Had the French war of conquest been successful, the outbreak of which coincided with the publication of the Vatican Decrees, I know not what would have been narrated in Church circles of Germany of 'gestis Dei per Francos' ['Gesta Dei per Francos,' 'Deeds of God by the French' is the title of a collection by Bongars, containing the sources of the history of the crusades.—Footnote.] . . . It is in my opinion a falsification of history and politics, this attitude of considering His Holiness, the Pope, exclusively as the high priest of a religious denomination, or the Catholic Church as the representative of Churchdom merely. The papacy has at all times been a political power, interfering in the most resolute manner and with the greatest success in the secular affairs of this world, which interference it contended for and made its program. These programs are well known. The aim which was constantly present in its mind's eye, the program which in the Middle Ages was near its realization, was the subjection of the secular powers to the Church, an eminently political aim, a striving as old as mankind itself. For there have always been either some wise men, or some real priests who set up the claim, that the will of God was better known to them than to their fellow beings and in consequence of this claim they had the right to rule over their fellow men. And it cannot be denied that this proposition contains the basis of the papal claims for the exercise of sovereign rights. . . . The contention of priesthood against royalty, in our case, of the Pope against the German Emperor, . . . is to be judged like every other struggle; it has its alliances, its peace conventions, its pauses, its armistices. There have been peaceful popes, there have been popes militant, popes conquerors. There have been even peace-loving kings of France, though Louis XVI. was forced to carry on wars; so that even our French neighbors have had monarchs who preferred peace to war. Moreover, in the struggles of the papal power it has not always been the call that Catholic powers have been exclusively the allies of the pope; nor have the priests always sided with the pope. We have had cardinals as ministers of great powers at a time when those great powers followed an antipapal policy even to acts of violence. We have found bishops in the military retinue of the German emperors, when moving against the popes. This contest for power therefore is subject to the same condition as every other political contest, and it is a misrepresentation of the issue, calculated to impress people without judgment of their own, when it is characterized as aiming at the oppression of the church. Its object is the defense of the state, to determine the limits of priestly rule, of royal power, and this limit must secure the existence of the state. For in the kingdom of this world the rule and the precedence is the state's. . . . In the paragraphs of the constitution we have under consideration we found a 'modus vivendi,' an armistice, concluded at a time when the state was in need of help and thought to obtain this help or at least some support in the Catholic Church. This hope was based upon the fact that at the election for the national assembly of 1848 the districts in which the Catholic population preponderated elected, if not royalists, yet friends of order,—which was not the case in evangelical districts. Under this impression the compromise be-

tween the ecclesiastical and secular arms was concluded, though, as subsequent events proved, in miscalculation as to its practical effects. For it was not the support of the electors who had thus voted but the Brandenburg ministry and the royal army that restored order. In the end the state was obliged to help itself; the aid that might have been given by the different churches did not pull it through. But at that time originated the 'modus vivendi' under which we lived in peace for a number of years. To be sure, this peace was bought only by an uninterrupted yielding of the state. . . . When we were yet in Versailles I was somewhat surprised to learn, that Catholic members of parliamentary bodies were asked to declare whether they were ready to join a religious party, such as we have now in the Party of the Centre, and whether they would agree to vote and agitate for the insertion of the paragraphs we are at present considering into the constitution of the Empire. I was not much alarmed then at that program. . . . When I returned here I saw how strong was the organization of this party of the church militant against the state. . . . Its object was the introduction of a state dualism in Prussia, the erection of a state within the state to bring it about that all Catholics should follow the guidance of this Party of the Centre in their private as well as their political conduct, a dualism of the worst kind. . . . If this program were carried out, we were to have instead of the one formerly integral state of Prussia, instead of the German Empire then at the point of realization—we were to have two state organizations, running side by side in parallel lines; one with the Party of the Centre as its general staff, the other with its general staff in the guiding secular principle, in the government and the person of His Majesty the Emperor. This situation was absolutely unacceptable for the government whose very duty it was to defend the state against such a danger. It would have misunderstood and neglected this duty if it had looked on calmly at the astounding progress which a closer examination of the affair brought to light. . . . The Government was obliged to terminate the armistice, based upon the constitution of 1848, and create a new 'modus vivendi' between the secular and sacerdotal power. The state cannot allow this situation to continue without being driven into internal struggles that may endanger its very existence. The question is simply this: Are those paragraphs of the constitution [of 1848] dangerous to the state?"—*Die politischen Reden des Fürsten Bismarck* (tr. from the German), v. 5, pp. 384-391.—See also GERMANY: 1873-1887.

1870-1907.—Attitude of papacy toward government of Rome. See ROME: Modern city: 1871-1907.

1871-1906.—Lessening utility of Concordat with France. See CONCORDAT: 1871-1906.

1878.—Election of Leo XIII.

1878-1903.—Opposition to Italian monarchy.—Increase in bishoprics.—Foreign relations.—"The steady line of protest against the usurpation, taken repeatedly by Pius IX., was steadily maintained by Leo [XIII]. His accession was only announced to the King of Sardinia at Turin, not to the King of Italy at Rome, and Catholics were forbidden to take any part in the elections for the Parliament which sat in Rome. Repeated and dignified protests were made to the Catholic world against the continuance of the occupation, and as time went on, and this attitude on both sides seemed more and more fixed, the hopes of reconciliation seemed to become more and more distant. Still, the inconvenience was repeatedly felt

in the diplomatic world, above all when the non-Catholic sovereigns visited Rome, or when Catholic ones were precluded from doing so. Later on, rumour has it that King Humbert was on the eve of concluding an agreement which could be accepted by Pope and king, but there were many enemies of the Papacy who held that any treaty which recognised the Pontiff as more than a private individual was to be hindered by all means, fair or foul, and on the 20th July, 1900, King Humbert fell under the weapon of an assassin, and could do no more. . . . The Scottish hierarchy, re-established in 1878, had really been planned and drawn out before Pius IX. died; but to this reign belong still greater extensions of the hierarchy in almost every quarter of the world. India and Japan both received regular diocesan bishops instead of the former vicars apostolic, while in North Africa the ancient See of Carthage was revived in favour of Cardinal Lavigerie, founder of that society of Algerian missionaries known as the White Fathers. Moreover, a great increase in the number of bishoprics was made in America, both in North and South, and in Australia. It is computed that in all, the pontificate of Leo XIII. saw the creation of no fewer than two hundred and forty-eight episcopal or metropolitan sees, and of some forty-eight vicariates or prefectures apostolic. . . . Leo XIII. was by training and disposition a thorough diplomatist, and one of the cornerstones of his policy in church government was the extension of the functions of the Apostolic Delegate to represent the Holy See in the various countries of the world, especially when diplomatic relations could not be directly instituted with the civil rulers. The most notable case was the appointment of such a delegate to the United States of America, whither the Pope's favourite disciple, Satolli, was sent in 1893, to be succeeded in turn by Archbishops Martinelli and Falconio. But other very important delegations were also set up, for example in Canada and in India. Some attempts were made to do likewise in Great Britain, but in face of the opposition, if not of the English bishops at any rate of the Irish bishops and their flocks, the proposal seems to have been proved inopportune. However, on special occasions envoys were sent both to England and Ireland, notably when Ruffoscilla and Belmonte, both later on cardinals, were sent to represent the Pope at the Golden and Diamond Jubilees of the reign of Queen Victoria in 1887 and 1897. Mgr. Persico was on another occasion sent as Delegate to Ireland, when the mode in which the political action of the Nationalist party in that country, especially with regard to the Plan of Campaign, was found fault with."—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 637, 645-646.

1891.—Encyclical of Leo XIII on labor question. See GERMANY: 1889-1892.

1892.—Reactionary bill in Germany for papal control of education. See GERMANY: 1892.

1894.—Conference with eastern patriarchs.—A conference of eastern patriarchs to consider the reunion of the eastern churches (Armenian, Maronite, Melchite, etc.) with the Church of Rome was opened at the Vatican, in October, under the presidency of the pope. The meeting had no result.

1894-1895.—Hungarian ecclesiastical laws. See HUNGARY: 1894-1895.

1896 (March).—Resumption of authority over Coptic church.—The authority of the Pope over the Coptic church was resumed on March 30, 1896, after a suspension of four centuries, by the re-establishment of the Catholic Patriarchate of Alexandria. Bishop Macarius was appointed

patriarch and two bishops were appointed for Upper and Lower Egypt.

1896 (September).—Decision on the validity of Anglican orders.—In September, 1896, the final decision of the Vatican, on a reopened question as to the validity of ordinations under the ritual of the Church of England, was announced by Pope Leo XIII in a bull which declares: "After long study, I must confirm the decree of my predecessors, that all ordinations made under the Anglican rite are absolutely invalid." Soon after this decision, the "Contemporary Review" gave an account of circumstances connected with it:

"The question of Anglican Orders was taken up in connection with the appeal for union made by Leo XIII. in the Encyclical 'Præclara' of 1894, and more particularly in his letter to the English



LEO XIII

(After painting by Laszlo)

people. The group of Anglicans of whom Lord Halifax is the spokesman took this appeal seriously, and ever since that time negotiations have been going on more or less continuously between them and the Vatican. . . . The idea of an incorporate union, so dear to Lord Halifax, and so much favoured in the first instance by the Pope, could only be carried out on the basis of a prior admission that the Anglican Church had an existence as a Church, and was therefore in a position to discuss a union with the Roman Church. Once recognise the validity of her Orders, and it would be possible to go into conference as to the points of difference between the two Churches, and the means of coming to an agreement. It is quite certain that the Pope entered heartily into these views. The Abbé Duchesne was accordingly deputed to inquire into the validity of the Anglican Orders, and was well aware that a favourable conclusion would be very well received. This was before the Abbé was put at the head of the French College at Rome. He made his investigation, arrived at the conclusion that the Orders were valid, sent his report to the

Vatican, and received from Cardinal Rampolla a letter of thanks and congratulations, together with a grand silver medal, which the Holy Father sent him as a sign of his satisfaction and particular good will. All this happened in the winter of 1894-95.

"In the autumn of 1895 the idea of union was in higher favour at the Vatican than ever. Cardinal Rampolla encouraged the foundation of the 'Revue Anglo-Romaine,' a journal devoted to the treatment of problems concerning the union of Churches, and particularly the re-union of the Anglican Church, and edited by the Abbé Portal, a French priest, and a personal friend of Lord Halifax. This movement in favour of union was, however, regarded by the Catholics in England with no little apprehension and mistrust, and their opposition alone would have been sufficient to wreck it for the time being. Cardinal Vaughan viewed the idea of incorporate union as a chimera, but treated the efforts to realise it as a real danger. . . . Leo, who would fain have maintained an attitude of judicial impartiality, soon found out that he must take a side; he must either definitely encourage the hopes of the Anglicans, or he must do something to calm the excited fears of the Catholics. Even at Rome, if we except the Pope and Cardinal Rampolla, who for a long time fondly hoped that they could make this policy of union a means of accomplishing very large results, theological opinion was adverse to the validity. Were there not, indeed, decisions of the Sacred Congregations which settled the dispute? There were, but in spite of them all the Pope was not disabused of his fancy. Compelled at last to take some action, he named a Commission of theologians, which sat at Rome in the spring of the present year [1896], under the presidency of Cardinal Mazzella. . . . The theologians set forth the arguments which favoured their respective views; papers were written, and, after a series of deliberations, a report was placed in the hands of the Pope. No conclusion was arrived at; none could be come to in this preliminary assembly. Only the materials for a judgment were worked out, in case his Holiness should think fit to pronounce a decision. . . . The Pope himself tells us, in the Bull *Apostolicæ Curæ*, that he left the final examination of the question to the congregation of cardinals called 'Suprema.' . . . The 'Suprema' met on July 16, under the presidency of the Pope. All the cardinals were of opinion that the matter had been long since decided, and that the debates in the preliminary commission had served to show how wise the decision had been. . . . The Bull declaring Anglican Orders null and void was published about the middle of September."—*Catholicus, Pope and the Anglicans: The policy of the bull (Contemporary Review, Dec., 1896)*.

1898 (January).—Encyclical letter of Pope Leo XIII on the Manitoba school question. See CANADA: 1898 (January).

1899 (January).—Encyclical letter of Pope Leo XIII condemning certain opinions "called by some 'Americanism.'"—The following passages are from the translation of an encyclical letter addressed, on January 22, 1899, by Pope Leo XIII to Cardinal Gibbons, for communication to the bishops and clergy of the Catholic Church in America:

"To Our Beloved Son, James, Cardinal Gibbons, Cardinal Priest of the Title Sancta Maria, Beyond the Tiber, Archbishop of Baltimore: . . . We have often considered and admired the noble gifts of your nation which enable the American

people to be alive to every good work which promotes the good of humanity and the splendor of civilization. Although this letter is not intended, as preceding ones, to repeat the words of praise so often spoken, but rather to call attention to some things to be avoided and corrected; still because it is conceived in that same spirit of apostolic charity which has inspired all our letters, we shall expect that you will take it as another proof of our love; the more so because it is intended to suppress certain contentions which have arisen lately among you to the detriment of the peace of many souls.

"It is known to you, beloved son, that the biography of Isaac Thomas Hecker, especially through the action of those who undertook to translate or interpret it in a foreign language, has excited not a little controversy, on account of certain opinions brought forward concerning the way of leading Christian life. We, therefore, on account of our apostolic office, having to guard the integrity of the faith and the security of the faithful, are desirous of writing to you more at length concerning this whole matter.

"The underlying principle of these new opinions is that, in order to more easily attract those who differ from her, the Church should shape her teachings more in accord with the spirit of the age and relax some of her ancient severity and make some concessions to new opinions. Many think that these concessions should be made not only in regard to ways of living, but even in regard to doctrines which belong to the deposit of the faith. They contend that it would be opportune, in order to gain those who differ from us, to omit certain points of her teaching which are of lesser importance, and to tone down the meaning which the Church has always attached to them. It does not need many words, beloved son, to prove the falsity of these ideas if the nature and origin of the doctrine which the Church proposes are recalled to mind. The Vatican Council says concerning this point: 'For the doctrine of faith which God has revealed has not been proposed, like a philosophical invention to be perfected by human ingenuity, but has been delivered as a divine deposit to the Spouse of Christ to be faithfully kept and infallibly declared. Hence that meaning of the sacred dogmas is perpetually to be retained which our Holy Mother, the Church, has once declared, nor is that meaning ever to be departed from under the pretense or pretext of a deeper comprehension of them.'—*Constitutis de Fide Catholica*, Chapter iv. . . .

"Let it be far from anyone's mind to suppress for any reason any doctrine that has been handed down. Such a policy would tend rather to separate Catholics from the Church than to bring in those who differ. There is nothing closer to our heart than to have those who are separated from the fold of Christ return to it, but in no other way than the way pointed out by Christ.

"The rule of life laid down for Catholics is not of such a nature that it cannot accommodate itself to the exigencies of various times and places. The Church has, guided by her Divine Master, a kind and merciful spirit, for which reason from the very beginning she has been what St. Paul said of himself: 'I became all things to all men that I might save all.'

"History proves clearly that the Apostolic See, to which has been intrusted the mission not only of teaching but of governing the whole Church, has continued 'in one and the same doctrine, one and the same sense, and one and the same judgment.'—*Const. de Fide*, Chapter iv.

"But in regard to ways of living she has been accustomed to so yield that, the divine principle of morals being kept intact, she has never neglected to accommodate herself to the character and genius of the nations which she embraces. Who can doubt that she will act in this same spirit again if the salvation of souls requires it? In this matter the Church must be the judge, not private men who are often deceived by the appearance of right. In this, all who wish to escape the blame of our predecessor, Pius the Sixth, must concur. He condemned as injurious to the Church and the spirit of God who guides her the doctrine contained in proposition lxxviii of the Synod of Pistoia, 'that the discipline made and approved by the Church should be submitted to examination, as if the Church could frame a code of laws useless or heavier than human liberty can bear.'

"But, beloved son, in this present matter of which we are speaking, there is even a greater danger and a more manifest opposition to Catholic doctrine and discipline in that opinion of the lovers of novelty, according to which they hold such liberty should be allowed in the Church, that her supervision and watchfulness being in some sense lessened, allowance be granted the faithful, each one to follow out more freely the leading of his own mind and the trend of his own proper activity. They are of opinion that such liberty has its counterpart in the newly given civil freedom which is now the right and the foundation of almost every secular state.

"In the apostolic letters concerning the constitution of states, addressed by us to the bishops of the whole Church, we discussed this point at length; and there set forth the difference existing between the Church, which is a divine society, and all other social human organizations which depend simply on free will and choice of men. It is well, then, to particularly direct attention to the opinion which serves as the argument in behalf of this greater liberty sought for and recommended to Catholics.

"It is alleged that now the Vatican decree concerning the infallible teaching authority of the Roman Pontiff having been proclaimed that nothing further on that score can give any solicitude, and accordingly, since that has been safeguarded and put beyond question a wider and freer field both for thought and action lies open to each one. But such reasoning is evidently faulty, since, if we are to come to any conclusion from the infallible teaching authority of the Church, it should rather be that no one should wish to depart from it and moreover that the minds of all being leavened and directed thereby, greater security from private error would be enjoyed by all. And further, those who avail themselves of such a way of reasoning seem to depart seriously from the over-ruling wisdom of the Most High—which wisdom, since it was pleased to set forth by most solemn decision the authority and supreme teaching rights of this Apostolic See—willed that decision precisely in order to safeguard the minds of the Church's children from the dangers of these present times.

"These dangers, viz., the confounding of license with liberty, the passion for discussing and pouring contempt upon any possible subject, the assumed right to hold whatever opinions one pleases upon any subject and to set them forth in print to the world, have so wrapped minds in darkness that there is now a greater need of the Church's teaching office than ever before, lest people become unmindful both of conscience and of duty.

"We, indeed, have no thought of rejecting everything that modern industry and study has pro-

duced; so far from it that we welcome to the patrimony of truth and to an ever-widening scope of public well-being whatsoever helps toward the progress of learning and virtue. Yet all this, to be of any solid benefit, nay, to have a real existence and growth, can only be on the condition of recognizing the wisdom and authority of the Church. . . .

"From the foregoing it is manifest, beloved son, that we are not able to give approval to those views which, in their collective sense, are called by some 'Americanism.' But if by this name are to be understood certain endowments of mind which belong to the American people, just as other characteristics belong to various other nations, and if, moreover, by it is designated your political condition and the laws and customs by which you are governed, there is no reason to take exception to the name. But if this is to be so understood that the doctrines which have been adverted to above are not only indicated, but exalted, there can be no manner of doubt that our venerable brethren, the bishops of America, would be the first to repudiate and condemn it as being most injurious to themselves and to their country. For it would give rise to the suspicion that there are among you some who conceive and would have the Church in America to be different from what it is in the rest of the world.

"But the true church is one, as by unity of doctrine, so by unity of government, and she is catholic also. Since God has placed the centre and foundation of unity in the chair of Blessed Peter, she is rightly called the Roman Church, for 'where Peter is, there is the church.' Wherefore, if anybody wishes to be considered a real Catholic, he ought to be able to say from his heart the self-same words which Jerome addressed to Pope Damasus; 'I, acknowledging no other leader than Christ, am bound in fellowship with Your Holiness: that is, with the chair of Peter. I know that the church was built upon him as its rock, and that whosoever gathereth not with you, scattereth.'—*American Catholic Quarterly Review*, April, 1899.

1900-1901.—Church and state in Austria. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1900-1903.

1900-1901.—Proclamation of Universal Jubilee of the Holy Year Nineteen Hundred.—Extension for six months.—The following is the text of the papal proclamation of the Universal Jubilee, in its English translation, as published in the "American Catholic Quarterly Review":

"To all the Faithful of Christ who shall read these Letters, Health and Apostolic Benediction. The century, which, by the grace of God, we have ourselves seen almost from its commencement, draws rapidly to its close. Willingly have we followed the institutions of our predecessors in so ordering things that they may redound in the good of all Christian peoples, and which may be perhaps for them the last proof of our care to the government of the Sovereign Pontificate. We speak of the Great Jubilee introduced in ancient times among Christian customs and observed by our predecessors, who bestowed upon the years of general jubilee the title of the Holy Year, because it was usual for such a year to be blessed by a greater number of holy ceremonies, as these furnish the most copious means of help for the correction of morals and the leading of souls to sanctity. We have ourselves seen with our own eyes the fruitful result of the last solemn celebration of the Holy Year. It was in the Pontificate of Leo XII, and we were as yet in the years of our youth. It was truly a grand sight to see then the manifestations of religious fervor in Rome. We can remem-

ber as if the scene were still before our eyes, the immense concourse of pilgrims, the multitudes which flocked processionally to one or other of the great basilicas, the sacred orators who preached in the public streets, and the most frequented quarters of the city resounding with the Divine praises. The Sovereign Pontiff himself, with a numerous suite of Cardinals and in the sight of all the people, gave a noble example of piety and charity.

"From such thoughts as these we turn with renewed sorrow to the times in which we now live; for such practices of piety, when without hindrance they were fulfilled under the eyes of all the citizens, augmented admirably the fervor and piety of the whole people; but now, on account of the changed condition of Rome, it is impossible to renew them, for in order to do so in any measure we must depend upon the arbitration of others. But however that may be, God, who ever blesses salutary counsels, will concede—such is our hope—success to this our design, undertaken solely for Him and for His glory. At what do we aim or what do we wish? Nothing else truly than to render more easy the way of eternal salvation to the souls confided to us, and for this end to administer to the infirm of spirit those remedies which it has pleased our Lord Jesus Christ to place in our hands. This administration seems to us not alone a duty of our apostolic office, but a duty which is peculiarly necessary to our times. The present age, however, cannot be said to be sterile, either in regard to good works or to Christian virtues. Thanks be to God, we have examples of both in abundance, nor is there any virtue, however lofty and arduous its attainment and practice, in which many are not found to signalize themselves, because it is a power proper to the Christian religion, Divinely founded, inexhaustible and perpetual, to generate and nourish virtue. Yet, casting our eyes around, we see, on the other hand, with what blindness, with what persistent error, whole peoples are hurrying to eternal ruin. And this thought strikes bitterly to our heart—how many Christians, led away by the license of hearing and of thought, absorbing with avidity the intoxicating errors of false doctrine, go on day by day dissipating and destroying the grand gift of the faith. Hence arise repugnance to Christian living, that insatiable appetite for the things of this world, and hence cares and thoughts alienated from God and rooted in the world. It is almost impossible to express in words the damage which has already accrued from this iniquitous source to the very foundations of society. The minds of men ordinarily rebellious, the blind tendency of popular cupidity, hidden perils, tragical crimes, are nothing more to those who seek their source and cause than the unrestrained strife to possess and enjoy the goods of this world.

"It is of supreme importance, therefore, to public no less than private life, to admonish men as to the duties of their state, to arouse souls steeped in forgetfulness of duty, to recall to the thought of their own salvation those who run imminent risk of perishing and of losing through their negligence and pride those celestial and unchangeable rewards for the possession of which we are born. This is the aim of the Holy Year. The Church, mindful only of her intrinsic benignity and mercy as a most tender Mother, studies at this time, with love and by every means within her ample power, to re-conduct souls to better counsels and to promote in each works of expiation by means of penance and emendation of life. To this end, multiplying prayers and augmenting the fervor of the faithful, she seeks to appease the outraged majesty of God

and to draw down His copious and celestial gifts. She opens wide the rich treasury of indulgences, of which she is the appointed dispenser, and exhorts the whole of Christianity to the firm hope of pardon. She is purely intent upon vanquishing with unconquerable love and sweetness the most rebellious wills. How, then, may we not hope to obtain, with God's help, rich fruits and profuse, and such as are most adapted to the present needs?

"Several extraordinary solemnities, the notices of which we believe to be already sufficiently diffused, and which will serve in some manner to consecrate the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth, greatly increase the advantage of the opportunity now given. We speak of the honors to be rendered at this time in every part of the world to Jesus Christ as our Redeemer. On this account we were profuse in our approbation and praise of a project which had its source in the piety of private individuals, and, in fact, what could be more holy and salutary? All that which man should hope for and desire is contained in the only-begotten Son of God, our Salvation, Life, and Resurrection. To desire to abandon Him is to desire eternal perdition. We could never silence adoration, praise, thanksgiving due to our Lord Jesus Christ, and without intermission they should be repeated everywhere, for in every place no thanksgiving, no honor, can be so great but that it may be increased. Our age produces perhaps many men who are forgetful and ungrateful, who ordinarily respond to the mercy of their Divine Saviour with disdain and to His gifts with offenses and injuries. Certainly the lives of many are so far removed from His laws and His precepts as to argue in themselves ungrateful and malicious souls. And what shall we say to see renewed again in these times and not once alone, the blasphemy of the Arian heresy regarding the Divinity of Jesus Christ. Courage, then, and to work, all you who with this new and most beautiful proposition seek to excite the piety of the people to new fervor. Do what you can in such manner that you impede not the course of the Jubilee and the appointed solemnities. Let it be added that in the forthcoming manifestations of faith and religion this special intention shall be kept in view—hatred of all that which within our memory has been impiously said or done, especially against the Divine Majesty of our Lord Jesus Christ, and to satisfy publicly for the injuries publicly inflicted upon Him. Now if we are really in earnest, we must know that to repent of evil done, and, having implored peace and pardon of God, to exercise ourselves with great diligence, in the duties necessary to virtue, and to assume those we have cast aside, is the means of satisfaction most desirable and assured, and which bears upon it the impress of truth. Since the Holy Year offers to all the opportunities which we have touched on in the beginning, it is a necessary provision that the Christian people enter upon it full of courage and of hope.

"For which reason, raising our eyes to heaven and praying from our heart that God, so rich in mercy, would vouchsafe to concede benignly His blessing and favor to our desires and works, and would illuminate with His Divine light the minds of all men, and move their souls to conform with His holy will and inestimable goodness, We, following in this the example of the Roman Pontiffs, of the Holy Roman College, our Venerable Brethren, in virtue of these letters, with the authority of Christ, of the blessed Peter and Paul, and with our own authority, order and promulgate from this hour the great and universal jubilee, which will commence in the holy city of Rome at the first

Vespers of the Nativity of our Lord Jesus Christ of the year 1899, and which will close at first Vespers of the Nativity of our Lord of the year 1900. May all redound to the glory of God, the salvation of souls, and the good of the Church. During this year of jubilee we concede and impart mercifully in our Lord full indulgence, remission and pardon of sin to all faithful Christians of either sex, who, being truly penitent shall confess and communicate, visiting devoutly the Roman basilicas of SS. Peter and Paul, St. John Lateran, and St. Mary Major, at least once a day for twenty days continuously or at intervals; that is, the obligation is to be fulfilled between the first Vespers of each day and the last Vespers of the day following, whether the Faithful be citizens of Rome or not, if they are residing permanently in Rome. If they come to Rome as pilgrims, then they must visit the said basilicas in the same manner for ten days, praying devoutly to God for the exaltation of Holy Church, for the extirpation of heresies, for peace and concord amongst Christian princes, and for the salvation of the whole Christian people.

"And since it may happen to many that with all their good-will they cannot or can only in part carry out the above, being either, while in Rome or on their journey, impeded by illness or other legitimate causes, we, taking into account their good-will, can, when they are truly repentant and have duly confessed and communicated, concede to them the participation in the same indulgences and remission of sins as if they had actually visited the basilicas on the days appointed. Rome, therefore, invites you lovingly to her bosom, beloved children, from all parts of the world, who have means of visiting her. Know also that to a good Catholic in this sacred time it is fitting that he come to Rome guided purely by Christian faith, and that he should renounce especially the satisfaction of sight-seeing merely idle or profane, turning his soul rather to those things which predispose him to religion and piety. And that which tends greatly so to predispose him, if he look within, is the natural character of the city, a certain character divinely impressed upon her, and not to be changed by human means, nor by any act of violence. For Jesus Christ, the Saviour of the world, chose amongst all its cities, that of Rome to be the centre of an action more than earthly, consecrating it to Himself. Here He placed, and not without long and careful preparation, the throne of His own empire; here He commanded that the see of His Vicar should be raised to the perpetuity of time; here He willed that the light of revealed truth should be jealously and inviolably guarded, and that from here light should be diffused throughout the whole earth in such a manner that those who are alienated from the faith of Rome are alienated from Christ. The religious monuments raised by our fathers, the singular majesty of her temples, the tomb of the Apostles, the Catacombs of the martyrs, all serve to increase the aspect of holiness and to impress those who visit her in the spirit of faith. Whosoever knows the voice of such monuments feels that he is no pilgrim in a foreign city, but a citizen in his own, and by God's grace he will realize this fact at his going, more forcibly than at his coming.

"We wish, in order that these present letters may be brought more easily under the notice of all, that printed copies, signed by a public notary and furnished with the seal of some ecclesiastical dignitary, shall be received with the same faith as would be given to the original by those who have heard or read it. To no one will it be lawful to alter any word of this our disposition, promulgation, conces-

sion, and will, or to rashly oppose it. If any should presume to make any such attempt, let them know that they incur thereby the indignation of God Almighty and of His Apostles Peter and Paul.

"Given at St. Peter's, Rome, on the 11th of May, in the year of the Incarnation of our Lord 1899, and the 22d of our Pontificate. C. Card. ALOISIMASELLA, Pro-Datary. L. Card. MACCHI.

"Witnessed on behalf of the Curia: G. DELL'AQUILA VISCONTI. Registered in the Secretariate of Briefs, J. CUGNONI. In the year of the Nativity of our Lord 1899, on the 11th day of May, feast of the Ascension of our Lord Jesus Christ, in the 22d year of the Pontificate of our Holy Father and Lord in Christ, Leo XIII, by Divine Providence Pope, I have read and solemnly promulgated the present apostolical letters in the presence of the people, in the porch of the Holy Patriarchal Vatican Basilica. GIUSEPPE DELL'AQUILA VISCONTI, Official of the Curia."

On the termination of the "holy year," by a letter "given at Rome in the year of Our Lord 1901," the Pope announced: "We do, therefore, by the authority of Almighty God, of the Blessed Apostles Peter and Paul, and by our own, extend and pro-rogue, for a period of six months, the Great Jubilee which has just been celebrated in the Holy City. Wherefore, to all the faithful of both sexes, in all parts of the earth, including even those that have come to Rome during the past year and there or elsewhere gained the Jubilee under any conditions, we grant and accord mercifully in the Lord, for once, the fullest indulgence, remission and pardon of their sins, the annual Paschal confession and communion being, however, not valid as conditions for gaining the Jubilee, provided that within six months from the date of the publication in each diocese of this letter they visit the cathedral in the episcopal city or the principal church in other parts of the different dioceses, together with three other churches in the same place, as appointed by the Ordinary either directly or through his officials, the parish priests or Vicar Foran, at least once a day for fifteen continuous or uninterrupted days, natural or ecclesiastical (the ecclesiastical day being that which commences with the first vespers of one day and ends with the dusk of the day following), and pray devoutly to God for the exaltation of the Church, the extirpation of heresy, the concord of Catholic princes and the salvation of the Christian people. In places where there are not four churches, power is granted in the same way to the Ordinaries to fix a smaller number of churches, or even one church where there is only one, in which the faithful may make the full number of visits, separate and distinct, on the same natural or ecclesiastical day, in such a way that the sixty visits be distributed through fifteen continuous or interrupted days."

Provisions relating to the circumstances of persons at sea or traveling, or in religious community, or in prison, are prescribed in the papal letter, and special privileges and powers are granted to "Jubilee confessors."

1900-1904.—Power of church regulated by law in France.—Law of associations, restricting religious orders.—Protest of Pope Leo XIII. See FRANCE: 1900-1904.

1901.—Encyclical letter of Pope Leo XIII concerning social and Christian democracy.—In a letter dated January 1, 1901, addressed "to the Patriarchs, Archbishops, Bishops, and other Local Ordinaries in communion with the Apostolic See," the Pope has discussed the subjects of Democracy and Socialism, with reference to controverted views and opinions "defining what Catho-

lics ought to think," and giving them "some injunctions so as to make their own action larger in scope and more beneficial to the commonwealth." The letter opens with these words: "Venerable Brethren—Grave economical disputes in more than one country have long been raging; peace and concord are affected; the violence of the disputants grows every day, inasmuch that the thoughts of the wiser part are laden with doubt and apprehension. These disputes arise in the first instance from widespread philosophical and moral error. The scientific resources belonging to the age, increased facilities of communication and appliances of all kinds for economizing labor and making it more productive have resulted in a keener struggle for existence. Through the malefic influence of agitators the gulf between rich and poor has been widened, so that frequent disturbances arise and even greater calamities seem impending such as would bring ruin on a country."

The Pope then refers to his early encyclicals ("Quod Apostolici Muneris," issued in 1878, on the error in socialistic opinions, and "Rerum Novarum," issued in 1891, on "the rights and duties binding together the two classes of capitalists and laborers"), and to the good influence which he finds reason to believe they have had, and says further: "Thus, therefore, under the guidance of the Church, some sort of concerted action and institutional provision has been set up among Catholics for the protection of the lower classes, who are very often as much the victims of dangerous machinations and snares as they are suffering from hardship and poverty. The creed of the benefactor of the people had originally no name of its own; that of Christian Socialism and its derivatives, which some brought in, has not undeservedly grown obsolete. Afterward many wanted, very rightly, to name it Popular Christianity. In some places those who devote themselves to such work are called Christian Socialists; elsewhere it is called Christian Democracy, and its supporters Christian Democrats, as opposed to the Social Democracy, which Socialists uphold. Of these two appellations, certainly that of Christian Socialists, if not also of Christian Democracy, is offensive to many right-minded people, inasmuch as they think there is a perilous ambiguity attaching to it. They are afraid of the name for several reasons—popular government may be covertly promoted or preferred to other forms of political constitution; the influence of Christianity may seem to be confined to the benefit of the common people, all other ranks being as it were left out in the cold; beneath the specious designation may lurk some design or other of subverting all legitimate authority, being civil and religious.

"There is now commonly much dispute, and sometimes over-bitter dispute, on this topic, and we deem it our duty to put an end to the controversy by defining what Catholics ought to think; moreover we intend to give them some injunctions so as to make their own action larger in scope and more beneficial to the commonwealth.

"What Social Democracy means, and what Christian ought to mean, does not surely admit of doubt. The former, more or less extreme, as the case may be, is by many carried to such extravagance of wickedness as to reckon human satisfaction supreme and acknowledge nothing higher, to pursue bodily goods and those of the natural world, and to make the happiness of man consist in attaining and enjoying them. Hence they would have the supreme power in a state to be in the hands of the common people, in such sort that all distinctions of rank being abolished

and every citizen made equal to every other, all might have equal access also to the good things of life; the law of lordship is to be abolished, private fortunes confiscated and even socialization of the appliances of labor carried out. But Christian Democracy, as Christian, ought to have as its foundation, the principles laid down by divine faith, having regard, indeed, to the temporal advantage of the lower orders, but designing therewith to fit their minds for the enjoyment of things eternal. Accordingly, to Christian Democracy, let there be nothing more sacred than law and right; let it bid the right of having and holding be kept inviolate; let it maintain the diversity of ranks which properly belong to a well-ordered state; in fine, let it prefer for human association that form and character which its divine author has imposed upon it. Clearly, therefore, Social and Christian Democracy can have nothing in common; the difference between them is no less than that between the sectarianism of socialism and the profession of the Christian law.

"Far be it from any one to pervert the name of Christian Democracy to political ends. For although democracy by its very name and by philosophical usage denotes popular rule, yet in this application it must be employed altogether without political significance, so as to denote nothing whatever besides this beneficent Christian action upon the people. For natural morality and the precepts of the Gospel, for the very reason that they transcend the chances of human existence, must necessarily be independent of any particular form of civil government and adapt themselves to all, so long as there is nothing to conflict with virtue and right. They are, therefore, and remain in themselves, absolutely external to all conflict of parties and vicissitudes of occurrence, so that, under whatever kind of government, people may and ought to abide by these precepts, which bid them love God above all and their neighbors as themselves. This has ever been the morality of the Church; by it Roman Pontiffs have constantly dealt with states whatever might be their executive government. And this being so, the mind and action of Catholics, when devoted to promoting the good of the lower orders, cannot by any possibility aim at embracing and introducing any one form of government in preference to another.

"Just in the same way must Christian Democracy repudiate the other ground of offense, which arises from paying so much regard to the interests of the lower classes as to seem to pass over the higher, who are nevertheless of equal importance to the preservation and development of the State. The Christian law of charity, which we have just mentioned, forbids this. It is large enough to embrace all ranks as the aim and the task of those who would have the common people in a Christian spirit on the one hand suitably relieved, and, on the other, preserved against the contagion of socialism. . . .

"We have recalled these various topics on which we have before this found occasion to dilate according to our ability, and we trust that all dispute over the name of Christian Democracy may now be laid aside, as well as any suspicion of dangerous signification attaching to it. This trust we rightly cherish. For making exception of the ideas of certain persons regarding the force and virtue of this kind of Christian Democracy, ideas which are not free from extravagance or error, surely there will be no single person to find fault with an endeavor, conformably to the law of nature and of God, to do merely this, to make the

lives of laborers and artisans more tolerable, and gradually to give them the opportunity of self-culture, so that at home and in the world they may freely fulfill the obligations of virtue and religion, may feel themselves to be men, and not mere animals, Christian men, not pagans, and so strive with more felicity and earnestness to attain that 'one thing needful,' that final good, for which we came into the world. This is belonging to one and the same family, the offspring of the same all-beneficent Father, redeemed by one Saviour and called to the same eternal inheritance. . . .

"God forbid that under the name of Christian democracy should lie the surreptitious aim of throwing off all obedience and turning away from those in lawful authority. The law of nature, no less than that of Christ, enjoins respect for all such as in their several degree hold office in the State, and further enjoins obedience to their lawful commands. This is the only attitude worthy of a man and a Christian, and ought to be taken up heartily and as a matter of duty, 'for conscience's sake,' as the Apostle himself has admonished, when he ordained: 'Let every soul be subject to the highest powers.' . . .

"We spoke just now advisedly of virtue and religion. For it is the opinion of some, which is caught up by the masses, that the social question as they call it, is 'economical' merely. The precise opposite is the truth—that it is first of all moral and religious, and for that reason its solution is to be expected mainly from the moral law and the pronouncements of religion. . . . Without the instincts which Christian wisdom implants and keeps alive, without providence, self-control, thrift, endurance and other natural qualities, you may try your hardest, but prosperity you cannot provide. That is the reason why we have never encouraged Catholics to form associations for the assistance of the poor, or introduce other schemes of the kind, without at the same time warning them that such things must not be attempted without the sanction of religion, without its inclusion and aid. . . . It is a laudable charity not merely to relieve the temporary needs of the poor, but to have an organized system of relief; this will be a more real and reliable assistance. It must be considered still more laudable to desire to instill into the minds of the mechanic and of the laborer notions of thrift and prudence, so that they may at least in part make provision for their declining years. It is an aim which not only relieves the cost of the wealthy, but it is a moral step for the poor themselves; it encourages them to approve their position, while it keeps them away from temptations, checks self-indulgence and leads them on to virtuous behavior. . . .

"Finally, we again enjoin with greater insistence that whatever schemes people take up in the popular cause, whether individually or in association, they should remember that they must be entirely submissive to episcopal authority. Do not let them be beguiled by an excessive ardor for charitable enterprise, which, if it induces any relaxation of due obedience, is itself false, unproductive of solid benefit and displeasing to God. Those who please God are those who are ready to give up their own ideas and listen to the bidding of the rulers of the Church, absolutely as His own."—*Catholic Union and Times*, Feb. 21, 1901.

1902.—Secession of the Independent Filipino church. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1902.

1903 (July-August).—Death of Pope Leo XIII.—Election of Pius X.—The Papal seat became vacant by the death of Pope Leo XIII. on July 20, 1903. The conclave of cardinals for the

election of his successor assembled on the 31st of the month, and its choice of Cardinal Sarto, Patriarch of Venice, was made known on August 3. The new pope assumed the name of Pius X. "The conclave was not a lengthy or very difficult one. It must have been a dramatic moment when Cardinal Puzyna rose, and in the name of the Austrian Emperor vetoed the candidature of Cardinal Rampolla. Though a protest was made by Rampolla himself, and was supported by others, his candidature was from prudential motives withdrawn, and before long the needful majority was secured for Cardinal Joseph Sarto, Patriarch of Venice."—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, p. 647.—"Two ballots were cast each day in the Conclave, one in the forenoon and another in the afternoon.



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TRIPLE-CROWNED PAPAL TIARA WITH INFULE

The crowns are essentially uniform in shape, though the ornament varies.

The votes for Cardinal Sarto steadily increased from the first to the seventh ballot, on which he was elected. When the Cardinal observed that the suffrages for him were augmenting, he was visibly disturbed, and in a fervent speech he implored his colleagues not to regard him as a candidate. Contrary to his wishes, the votes for him increased. He then became alarmed and in a second speech in most pathetic language, he again besought the Cardinals to forget his name—"Obtestor vos," were his words, "ut nominis mei omnino obliviscamini," as he could not accept a burden too heavy for him to bear. All were moved by the modesty and transparent sincerity of the man. When he resumed his seat, his cheeks were suffused with blushes, tears were gushing from his eyes, and his body trembled with emotion. It was only after some of the leading Cardinals entreated him to

withdraw his opposition, that he finally and reluctantly consented to abide by the will of God and accept the sacrifice. Never did a prisoner make greater efforts to escape from his confinement than did Cardinal Sarto to escape from the yoke of the Papacy. With his divine Master he exclaimed: 'Father, if it be possible let this chalice pass from me. Nevertheless, not my will, but Thine be done.' When his election was officially announced, his florid countenance assumed a deathly pallor, and restoratives were applied to save him from fainting. So little did Cardinal Sarto expect to be the choice of his colleagues, that on setting out for Rome, he is said to have purchased a return ticket to his home in Venice."—Cardinal Gibbons, *Retrospect of fifty years*, v. 2, pp. 95-97.

1903 (December).—Pius X issues "motu proprio," on Catholic social action.—"In fifteen short and comprehensive articles Pope Pius . . . collected, and confirmed anew by his own sacred authority, all the social teachings of his illustrious predecessor which are to be found in the great Encyclicals: On Socialism, Communism and Nihilism, On the Condition of the Working Classes, and on Christian Democracy. To these articles four others are added, taken from an Instruction of the Sacred Congregation of Extraordinary Ecclesiastical Affairs, and dealing with the duties of Catholic writers. Thus compiled the nineteen articles constitute a clear and obligatory code of laws; they contain in abstract all that has been said and written upon the social question by the great 'Pope of the Workingmen,' and what has been digested and sanctioned as a program of popular action by the 'People's Pope.' In themselves they are neither more nor less than a compendium of Catholic social doctrine, found in the Gospels and in the Fathers of the Church, and now authoritatively expressed by two Pontiffs whom Divine Providence has especially chosen to guide the bark of St. Peter through the stormy days of modern social unrest."—A. C. Breig, *Papal program of social reform*, pp. 4-5.

1903-1910.—Temporal policy of Pius X.—Attitude toward modernism.—"In Italy the strained relations between the Papacy and the 'de facto' government at Rome can hardly be said to have improved [under Pius X]. In Spain also there was trouble, for the Conservative administration having given place to a Liberal one, the latter soon proved that its liberalism was of the type known as anticlerical. In France the growing antagonism between the radical leaders and the Holy See reached a climax with the Law of Separation of Church and State of the 11th of December, 1905. . . . Meanwhile, the exterior development of the Church's organisation was not neglected. The policy pursued by Leo XIII. of sending Apostolic Delegates to reside in those countries where there could be no nuncio to the national Government, was persevered in. Many new dioceses were created, above all in the United States of America, in Canada, in Brazil, and in Australia. At the same time the number of Vicars Apostolic . . . was likewise increased. . . . Pius X. . . . had the consolation of proclaiming the beatification of the French heroine, Joan of Arc . . . and of others."—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 648, 650-651.—Within the church, the question of "modernism" was the most important problem with which Pius had to deal in the early period of his reign. "The movement which has come to be known as Modernism, and which, considered from the outside, may be roughly described as a certain impatience of the mental and religious beliefs, methods and customs sanctioned by tradition, is . . . the legitimate off-

spring of philosophical tendencies of long standing. Liberal Protestantism . . . [has] hardly done more than supply—formularies and a coherent framework for conceptions and hypotheses which had long been exercising men's minds. . . . Without any doubt, the philosophical systems of the last half of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth century . . . are the dominating ideas which, variously amalgamated and variously reconciled, have given birth to the fundamental agnosticism of the Modernists. . . . It is quite probable that, in the beginning at least, several of the more active workers in the movement honestly believed that they were serving the Church; isolated individuals may have continued in such a belief right up to the publication of the Encyclical. . . . The men who in fact led the campaign drew to themselves a marked increase of force from the widespread constructive movement which was at that time powerfully stimulating the various branches of religious science in the bosom of the Church. . . . It was the wisdom of the Modernists . . . to make it appear that, agreeing, as they did, with these Catholics on a number of conclusions, . . . [they agreed with them also as regards] the fundamental philosophy in which their activity had its roots. On the other side . . . there was not always drawn a sufficiently clear distinction between Catholic opponents, some of whose conclusions appeared disquieting, and other opponents who had already gone clean beyond the bounds of Catholicity. . . . In the midst of this ferment, this welter of misunderstandings, a series of extraordinary books [appeared], religious in tone, and laying claim to an apologetic character—M. Loisy's *Gospel and Church*, Fogazzaro's *The Saint*, Tyrrell's *Lex Orandi*, M. Le Roy's *Dogma and Criticism*. . . . Exegetical, historical or philosophical research [lent indirect, but effectual support to the theory]. . . . Finally, . . . there always exists a certain need for progress, a progress which consists in the application of old truths to new circumstances, a progress which is in a real sense the concern of every Christian, and *a fortiori* of every priest. . . . [All these added together give] some idea of the danger which threatened the Catholic Church in France. . . . The time called for speech clear and strong, for speech which should be, as Holy Writ puts it, the doing of a thing 'at which both the ears of every one that heareth it shall tingle.' And that was the actual effect of the Papal measures and declarations as to doctrine, which culminated in the Encyclical *Pascendi* (Sept. 8, 1907). . . . From the date of these first movements it may be safely said that Modernism, driven into its last ditch by various Pontifical enactments—the most urgent of them being the *Motu proprio* of September 1, 1910, . . . lost almost all its credit in the eyes of Catholics, and in particular of French priests. . . . [Houtin's statement that there were] fifteen thousand Modernist priests in France (a third of the French Clergy!), . . . has been corrected by M. A. Loisy, who, dividing the figure by ten, arrives at a total of about one thousand five hundred. It would be nearer the truth, we believe, if it be the persistent Modernists that are in question, to divide again by ten, and to estimate the Modernist priests at about one hundred and fifty [written in 1910]. . . . A point which deserves to be brought into relief, . . . is the impulse given to ecclesiastical science in France, since the Encyclical *Pascendi*, by essentially Catholic scholars, who combine the following tradition with a wise measure of progress."—L. de Grandmaison, *Pius X and the Catholics of France* (R. J. Walker, ed., *Oxford and Cambridge Review*, July, 1911).—In March, 1908, "on the ground of

his obstinate persistence in 'modernist' opinions . . . [Alfred Loisy, professor of religion in the Collège de France], was visited with excommunication in its extreme form by the authorities of the Roman Church, in whose unstinted service he had thus far spent his life. . . . The inner conflict of his Catholic career . . . consisted, on the one hand, in his heroic effort to win a standing-ground in Roman Catholic teaching for this principle of the complete relativity of ecclesiastical doctrine to the time and conditions of its origin, with the necessary corollaries of a development of doctrine through all the past, and its further progress through all the future, and, on the other hand, in the repeated and at length definite refusal by the Pope and his advisers to abandon one jot or tittle of the rigid absolutism of the mediaeval structure of dogma. To this the Roman Catholic Church, since the opening of the new century, seems to have irrevocably committed itself, largely by way of explicit repudiation of Loisy's conclusions as a critic and a historian of Christianity. The encyclical *Pascendi* of Pius X, and the anti-Modernist oath by which it was followed to ensure its more complete effectiveness, have fastened this scholastic system on the Catholic Church with paralyzing results so far as concerns the normal progress of thought. This is the key to the apparently easy repulse of the Modernist movement."—R. W. Boynton, *Catholic career of Alfred Loisy* (Harvard Theological Review, Jan., 1918).

1904.—Papal prohibition of civil interference with the election of the Roman pontiff.—Civil veto, in all forms, denounced.—In the first year of his pontificate, on January 20, 1904, Pope Pius X pronounced the following denunciation and prohibition of every kind of intrusion of civil authority or influence in the election of a Roman pontiff: "When first, all unworthy as we are, we ascended this chair of Peter, we deemed it a most urgent duty of our apostolic office to provide that the life of the Church should manifest itself with absolute freedom, by the removal of all extraneous interference, as her divine Founder willed that it should manifest itself, and as her lofty mission imperatively requires.

"Now if there is one function above all others in the life of the Church which demands this liberty it is certainly that which is concerned with the election of the Roman pontiff; for when the head is in question, the health not of one member alone but of the whole body is involved (Greg. XV. Constit. *Aeterni Patris* in preem).

"To this full liberty in the election of the Supreme Pastor is opposed first of all that civil *Veto* which has been more than once brought forward by the rulers of some states, and by which it is sought to exclude somebody from the supreme pontificate. If this has happened sometimes, it has never been approved by the apostolic see. On the contrary the Roman pontiffs, in their enactments on the conclave, have been in nothing perhaps more emphatic or more earnest than in their efforts to exclude the interference of all extraneous powers from the sacred senate of the Cardinals summoned to elect the pontiff. . . .

"But, and experience has shown it, the measures hitherto taken for preventing the civil *Veto*, or *Exclusive*, have not served their purpose, and on account of the changed circumstances of the times the intrusion of the civil power in our day is more clearly than ever before destitute of all foundation in reason or equity, therefore we, by virtue of the apostolic charge entrusted to us, and following in the footsteps of our predecessors, after having maturely deliberated, with certain knowledge and by

our own motion, do absolutely condemn the civil *Veto*, or *Exclusive* as it is also called, even when expressed under the form of a mere desire, and all interventions and intercessions whatsoever, decreeing that it is not lawful for anybody, not even the supreme rulers of states, under any pretext, to interpose or interfere in the grave matter of the election of the Roman pontiff.

"Wherefore, in virtue of holy obedience, under threat of divine judgment and pain of excommunication *latæ sententiæ* reserved in a special manner to the future pontiff, we prohibit all and single the Cardinals of holy Roman Church, and likewise the secretary of the Sacred College of Cardinals and all others who take part in the conclave to receive, even under the form of a simple desire, the office of proposing the *Veto* or *Exclusive*, or to make known this *Veto* in whatever manner it may have come to their knowledge, to the Sacred College of Cardinals either taken as a whole or to the individual fathers Cardinals, either by writing, by word of mouth, whether directly and proximately, or indirectly and through others. And it is our will that this prohibition be extended to all the interventions above mentioned, and to all other intercessions whatsoever, by which the lay powers, of whatsoever grade and order, endeavor to intrude themselves in the election of the pontiff.

"Finally we vehemently exhort, in the same words as those used by our predecessors, that in the election of the pontiff, they pay no attention whatever to the appeals of secular princes or other worldly considerations . . . but solely with the glory of God and the good of the Church before their eyes, give their votes to him whom they judge in the Lord better fitted than the others to rule the Universal Church fruitfully and usefully. It is our will also that these our letters, together with the other constitutions of the same kind, be read in the presence of all in the first of the congregations wont to be held after the death of the pontiff; again after entrance into the conclave; also when anybody is raised to the dignity of the purple, with the addition of an oath binding to the religious observance of what is decreed in the present constitution."

1904.—Amenities between the Vatican and the Quirinal. See ITALY: 1904: Conciliatory movement.

1904.—Relaxation of withdrawal of Italian Catholics from political action. See ITALY: 1904: Strikes and disorders.

1904.—End of "Kulturkampf" in Germany. See GERMANY: 1904.

1904-1908.—Friction between French government and Vatican.—End of régime under Concordat of 1801.—Separation of church and state in France. See FRANCE: 1904-1908.

1906.—Anti-clerical movement in Spain.—Proposed associations law. See SPAIN: 1900-1909: Causes of discontent.

1906.—Commands forbidding French Catholics to conform to the separation law or the associations law. See FRANCE: 1904-1908.

1906.—Pacific relations between state and church in Mexico. See MEXICO: 1906.

1906 (February).—Encyclical "Vehementer Nos," to the prelates, clergy, and people of France, concerning the separation law.—The following are passages from the encyclical known, from its opening words in the Latin text as "Vehementer Nos," which Pope Pius X addressed to the French nation on February 19, 1906, after the adoption of the law separating the church from the state:

"To the Archbishops, Bishops, Clergy and People

of France. . . . Venerable Brethren, Well-Beloved Sons, Health and Apostolic Benediction.

"Our soul is full of sorrowful solicitude and our heart overflows with grief when our thoughts dwell upon you. How, indeed, could it be otherwise, immediately after the promulgation of that law which, by sundering violently the old ties that linked your nation with the Apostolic See, creates for the Catholic Church in France a situation unworthy of her and ever to be lamented? That is, beyond question, an event of the gravest import, and one that must be deplored by all right-minded men, for it is as disastrous to society as it is to religion; but it is an event which can have surprised nobody who has paid any attention to the religious policy followed in France of late years. For you, Venerable Brethren, it will certainly have been nothing new or strange, witnesses as you have been of the many dreadful blows aimed from time to time at religion by the public authority. You have seen the sanctity and inviolability of Christian marriage outraged by legislative acts in formal contradiction with them; the schools and hospitals laicised; clerics torn from their studies and from ecclesiastical discipline to be subjected to military service; the religious congregations dispersed and despoiled, and their members for the most part reduced to the last stage of destitution. Other legal measures which you all know have followed—the law ordaining public prayers at the beginning of each Parliamentary session and of the assizes has been abolished; the signs of mourning traditionally observed on board the ships on Good Friday suppressed; the religious character effaced from the judicial oath; all actions and emblems serving in any way to recall the idea of religion banished from the courts, the schools, the army, the navy, and, in a word, from all public establishments. These measures and others still which, one after another, really separated the Church from the State, were but so many steps designedly made to arrive at complete and official separation, as the authors of them have publicly and frequently admitted.

"On the other hand, the Holy See has spared absolutely no means to avert this great calamity. While it was untiring in warning those who were at the head of affairs in France, and in conjuring them over and over again to weigh well the immensity of the evils that would infallibly result from their separatist policy, it at the same time lavished upon France the most striking proofs of indulgent affection. It had then reason to hope that gratitude would have stayed those politicians on their downward path, and brought them at last to relinquish their designs. But all has been in vain—the attentions, good offices and efforts of our predecessor and ourself. The enemies of religion have succeeded at last in effecting by violence what they have long desired, in defiance of your rights as a Catholic nation and of the wishes of all who think rightly. . . .

"That the State must be separated from the Church is a thesis absolutely false, a most pernicious error. Based, as it is, on the principle that the State must not recognize any religious cult, it is in the first place guilty of a great injustice to God; for the Creator of man is also the founder of human societies, and preserves their existence as He preserves our own. We owe Him, therefore, not only a private cult, but a public and social worship to honor Him. Besides, it is an obvious negation of the supernatural order. It limits the action of the State to the pursuit of public prosperity during this life only, which is but the proximate object of political societies; and it occupies itself in no fashion (on the plea that this is foreign

to it) with their ultimate object, which is man's eternal happiness after this short life shall have run its course. . . .

"When the State broke the bonds of the Concordat and separated itself from the Church it ought, as a natural consequence, to have left her her independence and allowed her to enjoy peacefully that liberty granted by the common law which it pretended to assign to her. Nothing of the kind has been done. We recognize in the law many exceptional and odiously restrictive provisions, the effect of which is to place the Church under the domination of the civil power. . . .

"With the existence of the association of worship, the Law of Separation hinders the pastors from exercising the plenitude of their authority and of their office over the faithful, when it attributes to the Council of State supreme jurisdiction over these associations and submits them to a whole series of prescriptions not contained in common law rendering their formation difficult and their continued existence more difficult still; when, after proclaiming the liberty of public worship, it proceeds to restrict its exercise by numerous exceptions; when it despoils the Church of the internal regulation of the churches in order to invest the State with this function; when it thwarts the preaching of Catholic faith and morals and sets up a severe and exceptional penal code for clerics—when it sanctions all these provisions and many others of the same kind in which wide scope is left to arbitrary ruling, does it not place the Church in a position of humiliating subjection and, under the pretext of protecting public order, deprive peaceable citizens, who still constitute the vast majority in France, of the sacred right of practising their religion? . . .

"In addition to the wrongs and injuries to which we have so far referred, the Law of Separation also violates and tramples under foot the rights of property of the Church. In defiance of all justice, it despoils the Church of a great portion of a patrimony which belongs to her by titles as numerous as they are sacred; it suppresses and annuls all the pious foundations consecrated, with perfect legality, to divine worship and to suffrages for the dead. The resources furnished by Catholic liberality for the maintenance of Catholic schools, and the working of various charitable associations connected with religion, have been transferred to lay associations in which it would be idle to seek for a vestige of religion. In this it violates not only the rights of the Church, but the formal and explicit purpose of the donors and testators. It is also a subject of keen grief to us that the law, in contempt of all right, proclaims as property of the State, departments or communes, the ecclesiastical edifices dating from before the Concordat. True, the law concedes the gratuitous use of them for an indefinite period, to the associations of worship, but it surrounds the concession with so many and so serious reserves that in reality it leaves to the public powers the full disposition of them. Moreover, we entertain the gravest fears for the sanctity of those temples, the august refuges of the Divine Majesty and endeared by a thousand memories to the piety of the French people. . . .

"Hence, mindful of our Apostolic charge and conscious of the imperious duty incumbent upon us of defending and preserving against all assaults the full and absolute integrity of the sacred and inviolate rights of the Church, we do, by virtue of the supreme authority which God has confided to us, and on the grounds above set forth, reprove and condemn the law voted in France for the separation of Church and State as deeply unjust to God, whom

it denies, and as laying down the principle that the Republic recognizes no cult. We reprove and condemn it as violating the natural law, the law of nations, and fidelity to treaties; as contrary to the Divine constitution of the Church, to her essential rights and to her liberty; as destroying justice and trampling under foot the rights of property which the Church has acquired by many titles and, in addition, by virtue of the Concordat. We reprove and condemn it as gravely offensive to the dignity of this Apostolic See, to our own person, to the Episcopacy and to the clergy and all the Catholics of France. Therefore, we protest solemnly and with all our strength against the introduction, the voting and the promulgation of this law, declaring that it can never be alleged against the imprescriptible rights of the Church."—Pope Pius X, *Encyclical letter (American Catholic Quarterly Review, Apr., 1906)*.

1906 (March).—Declaration of new French ministry on the church separation law. See FRANCE: 1904-1908.

1906-1907.—Separation of church and state in France.—Further measures and proceedings.—Encyclical "Gravissimo." See FRANCE: 1904-1908.

1907.—Effects of separation law in France.—Catholics lose all legal organization. See FRANCE: 1904-1908.

1907 (September).—Mandates of the encyclical on modernism.—The following passages contain the essential mandates of the Encyclical (Pascendi) on modernism, issued on September 8th, 1907: "The office divinely committed to us of feeding the Lord's flock has especially this duty assigned to it by Christ, namely, to guard with the greatest vigilance the deposit of the faith delivered to the saints, rejecting the profane novelties of words and oppositions of knowledge falsely so called. There has never been a time when this watchfulness of the supreme pastor was not necessary to the Catholic body; for, owing to the efforts of the enemy of the human race, there have never been lacking 'men speaking perverse things' (Acts xx., 30), 'vain talkers and seducers' (Tit. i., 10), 'erring and driving into error' (II. Tim. iii., 13). Still, it must be confessed that the number of the enemies of the cross of Christ has in these last days increased exceedingly, who are striving, by arts entirely new and full of subtlety, to destroy the vital energy of the Church, and, if they can, to overthrow utterly Christ's kingdom itself. Wherefore we may no longer be silent, lest we should seem to fail in our most sacred duty, and lest the kindness that, in the hope of wiser counsels, we have hitherto shown them, should be attributed to forgetfulness of our office.

"That we may make no delay in this matter is rendered necessary especially by the fact that the partisans of error are to be sought not only among the Church's open enemies; they lie hid, a thing to be deeply deplored and feared, in her very bosom and heart, and are the more mischievous the less conspicuously they appear. We allude, venerable brethren, to many who belong to the Catholic laity, nay, and this is far more lamentable, to the ranks of the priesthood itself, who, feigning a love for the Church, lacking the firm protection of philosophy and theology, nay, more, thoroughly imbued with the poisonous doctrines taught by the enemies of the Church, and lost to all sense of modesty vaunt themselves as reformers, . . . not sparing even the person of the Divine Redeemer, whom, with sacrilegious daring, they reduce to a simple, mere man. Though they express astonishment themselves, no one can justly be surprised that we number such men among the enemies

of the Church, if, leaving out of consideration the internal disposition of soul, of which God alone is the judge, he is acquainted with their tenets, their manner of speech, their conduct. Nor, indeed, will He err in accounting them the most pernicious of all the adversaries of the Church. For, as we have said, they put their designs for her ruin into operation not from without, but from within; hence the danger is present almost in the very veins and heart of the Church, whose injury is the more certain, the more intimate is their knowledge of her. Moreover, they lay the axe not to the branches and shoots, but to the very root; that is, to the faith and its deepest fibres. And having struck at this root of immortality, they proceed to disseminate poison through the whole tree, so that there is no part of Catholic truth from which they hold their hand, none that they do not strive to corrupt. Further, none is more skilful, none more astute than they in the employment of a thousand noxious arts; for they double the parts of rationalist and Catholic, and this so craftily that they easily lead the unwary into error; and since audacity is their chief characteristic, there is no conclusion of any kind from which they shrink or which they do not thrust forward with pertinacity and assurance. To this must be added the fact, which indeed is well calculated to deceive souls, that they lead a life of the greatest activity of assiduous and ardent application to every branch of learning, and that they possess, as a rule a reputation for the strictest morality. Finally, and this almost destroys all hope of cure, their very doctrines have given such a bent to their minds that they disdain all authority and brook no restraint; and, relying upon a false conscience, they attempt to ascribe to a love of truth that which is in reality the result of pride and obstinacy.

"Once, indeed, we had hopes of recalling them to a better sense, and to this end we first of all showed them kindness as our children, then we treated them with severity, and at last we have had recourse, though with great reluctance, to public reproof. But, you know, venerable brethren, how fruitless has been our action. They bowed their head for a moment, but it was soon uplifted more arrogantly than ever. If it were a matter which concerned them alone, we might perhaps have overlooked it; but the security of the Catholic name is at stake. Wherefore, as to maintain it longer would be a crime, we must now break silence, in order to expose before the whole Church in their true colors those men who have assumed this bad disguise.

"But since the modernists (as they are commonly and rightly called) employ a very clever artifice, namely, to present their doctrines without order and systematic arrangement into one whole, scattered and disjointed one from another, so as to appear to be in doubt and uncertainty, while they are in reality firm and steadfast, it will be of advantage, venerable brethren, to bring their teachings together here into one group, and to point out the connection between them, and thus to pass to an examination of the sources of the errors and to prescribe remedies for averting evil. . . . Against this host of grave errors, and its secret and open advance, our predecessor, Leo XIII., of happy memory, worked strenuously, especially as regards the Bible, both in his words and his acts. But, as we have seen, the modernists are not easily deterred by such weapons; with an affectation of submission and respect they proceeded to twist the words of the Pontiff to their own sense, and his acts they described as directed against

others than themselves. And the evil has gone on increasing from day to day. We therefore, venerable brethren, have determined to adopt at once the most efficacious measure in our power, and we beg and conjure you to see to it that in this most grave matter nobody will ever be able to say that you have been in the slightest degree wanting in vigilance, zeal or firmness. And what we ask of you and expect of you we ask and expect also of all other pastors of souls, of all educators and professors of clerics, and in a very special way of the superiors of religious institutions.

"I. In the first place, with regard to studies, we will and ordain that scholastic philosophy be made the basis of the sacred sciences. It goes without saying that if anything is met with among the scholastic doctors which may be regarded as an excess of subtlety, or which is altogether destitute of probability, we have no desire whatever to propose it for the imitation of present generations (Leo XIII. Enc., "Aeterni Patris"). And let it be clearly understood above all things that the scholastic philosophy we prescribe is that which the Angelic Doctor has bequeathed to us, and we, therefore, declare that all the ordinances of our predecessor on this subject continue fully in force, and, as far as may be necessary, we do decree anew and confirm and ordain that they be by all strictly observed. In seminaries where they may have been neglected let the Bishops impose them and require their observance, and let this apply also to the superiors of religious institutions. Further, let professors remember that they cannot set St. Thomas aside, especially in metaphysical questions, without grave detriment. On this philosophical foundation the theological edifice is to be solidly raised. Promote the study of theology, venerable brethren, by all means in your power, so that your clerics on leaving the seminaries may admire and love it, and always find their delight in it. For in the vast and varied abundance of studies opening before the mind desirous of truth everybody knows how the old maxim describes theology as so far in front of all others that every science and art should serve it and be to it as handmaidens. . . . With regard to profane studies, suffice it to recall here that our predecessor has admirably said: 'Apply yourselves energetically to the study of natural sciences: the brilliant discoveries and the bold and useful applications of them made in our times, which have won such applause by our contemporaries, will be an object of perpetual praise for those that come after us' (Leo XIII. Alloc., March 7, 1880). But this do without interference with sacred studies, as our predecessor in these most grave words prescribed: 'If you carefully search for the cause of these errors, you will find that it lies in the fact that in these days, when the natural sciences absorb so much study, the more severe and lofty studies have been proportionately neglected; some of them have almost passed into oblivion, some of them are pursued in a half-hearted or superficial way, and, sad to say, now that they are fallen from their old estate, they have been disfigured by perverse doctrines and monstrous errors (*loco cit.*)'. We ordain, therefore, that the study of natural science in the seminaries be carried on under this law."

"II. All these prescriptions and those of our predecessor are to be borne in mind whenever there is question of choosing directors and professors for seminaries and Catholic Universities. Anybody who in any way is found to be imbued with modernism is to be excluded without compunction from these offices, and those who already occupy

them are to be withdrawn. The same policy is to be adopted towards those who favor modernism, either by extolling the modernists, or excusing their culpable conduct, by criticizing scholasticism, the Holy Father, or by refusing obedience to ecclesiastical authority in any of its depositories; and towards those who show a love of novelty in history, archæology, Biblical exegesis, and finally towards those who neglect the sacred sciences or appear to prefer them to the profane. In all this question of studies, venerable brethren, you cannot be too watchful or too constant, but most of all in the choice of professors, for as a rule the students are modeled after the pattern of their masters. Strong in the consciousness of your duty, act always prudently, but vigorously. Equal diligence and severity are to be used in examining and selecting candidates for holy orders. Far, far from the clergy be the love of novelty. God hates the proud and the obstinate. For the future the doctorate of theology and canon law must never be conferred on anybody who has not made the regular course of scholastic philosophy, if conferred, it shall be held as null and void. The rules laid down in 1896 by the Sacred Congregation of Bishops and Regulars for the clerics, both secular and regular, of Italy, concerning the frequenting of the universities, we now decree to be extended to all nations. Clerics and priests inscribed in a Catholic institute or university must not in the future follow in civil universities those courses for which there are chairs in the Catholic institutes to which they belong. If this has been permitted anywhere in the past, we ordain that it be not allowed for the future. Let the Bishops who form the governing board of such Catholic institutes or universities watch with all care that these our commands be constantly observed.

"III. It is also the duty of the Bishops to prevent writings infected with modernism or favorable to it from being read when they have been published, and to hinder their publication when they have not. No book or paper or periodical of this kind must ever be permitted to seminarists or university students. The injury to them would be equal to that caused by immoral reading—nay, it would be greater, for such writings poison Christian life at its very fount. The same decision is to be taken concerning the writings of some Catholics, who, though not badly disposed themselves, but ill instructed in theological studies and imbued with modern philosophy, strive to make this harmonize with the faith, and, as they say, to turn it to the account of the faith. The name and reputation of these authors cause them to be read without suspicion, and they are, therefore, all the more dangerous in preparing the way for modernism. To give you some more general directions, venerable brethren, in a matter of such moment, we bid you do everything in your power to drive out of your dioceses, even by solemn interdict, any pernicious books that may be in circulation there. . . .

"IV. But it is not enough to hinder the reading and the sale of bad books; it is also necessary to prevent them from being printed. Hence, let the Bishops use the utmost severity in granting permission to print. Under the rules of the Constitution 'Officiorum,' many publications require the authorization of the ordinary, and in some dioceses it has been made the custom to have a suitable number of official censors for the examination of writings. We have the highest praise for this institution, and we not only exhort, but we order that it be extended to all dioceses."—Pope Pius X., *Doctrines of the modernists* (*American Cath-*

olic Quarterly Review, Oct., 1907).—See also TYRREL, FATHER GEORGE.

1907-1909.—Revision of Saint Jerome's Latin translation of the Bible, known as the "Vulgate."—In May, 1907, an announcement was made of the Pope's intention to revise the Latin Bible, and the work has already made such progress that the time has come to record not only the main lines upon which the revision is being carried out but also the actual completion of its preliminary preparations. . . . Pius X. . . . offered the honourable though costly and arduous task to the learned Order of the Benedictines, by whom it was accepted. A commission of revision was appointed, with Abbot Gasquet, the President of the English Benedictines, as its head, and the International College of the Order at San Anselmo in Rome was chosen as the headquarters of their work. It is here that Abbot Gasquet and his fellow-workers have already made a good start upon the vast labour which their Order has undertaken [1909]. The object of the Commission, according to the Pope's definite instructions, is to determine and restore as far as possible the original text of St. Jerome's Latin translation made in the fourth century. [See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 7th-8th centuries.] How far St. Jerome's translation represents the Hebrew or Greek is another question which may be the subject some day for future criticism and another commission. . . . Pius X. has made it clear to the Commission that he desires their work of revision to be conducted on the most modern and scientific lines, and that neither money nor labour should be spared to make it as thorough as possible. An exhaustive search will be made through all the libraries of Europe in the hope of finding hitherto unrecognized manuscripts of the Vulgate. Already there are 15 collaborators at work in different centres, collating the best-known and most important manuscripts with the Clementine text, while another commission, with its assistants, is making a thorough examination of the libraries and cathedral archives of Spain in search of fresh material. . . . The method of work is as follows. For the purpose of collation copies of the Clementine text have been printed; each page being left blank for two-thirds of its surface, the text being printed on the remaining third with no capital letters, no stops, no word divided, so as to resemble manuscript as far as possible. When a reviser wishes to collate any manuscript he has only to correct this print like an ordinary proof-sheet and so reproduce every difference of the manuscript before him. The printing of these copies of the Vulgate, which are to form the basis of the collations, with the preparation of the texts and correction of proofs—no light matter—has been the work of the first year. Three hundred and sixty copies have been printed in all, one hundred upon the best hand-made paper, two hundred upon ordinary book paper, and sixty upon thin paper for the purpose of postage abroad. The Pope himself has defrayed the rather heavy cost of this production. Besides the printing of this Bible considerable progress has been made during the past year with the preparation of a hand-list of all the Latin Biblical MSS. in the libraries of Europe, which, when completed, will be of great use to the revisers. As the collators finish their work in the various libraries or archives where Biblical manuscripts are found, they send their annotated copies to San Anselmo, where they are bound up and added to a collection which, when complete, will form a vast library of all the different versions of the Bible."—*Rome correspondence of the London Times*, July 21, 1909.

1908.—New Apostolic constitution of the Curia.—A change of far-reaching and great importance in the ecclesiastical constitution of the Roman church was decreed by Pope Pius X in 1908, by the promulgation of a new Apostolic constitution of the Curia. It reorganized the numerous congregations or departments of the Vatican government which had exercised the judicial functions of the Curia for some generations past. The pope now restored these functions to an ancient ecclesiastical court, the Rota, which had fallen out of use. The Rota is constituted as an international court, before which questions between priest and bishop, bishop and diocese, and the like, have their hearing, and from which there is appeal to a tribunal of last resort, the Segnatura, composed of Cardinals alone. The reorganization of the Congregation of the Propaganda by this new Constitution removed from that body the ecclesiastical jurisdiction it had exercised heretofore over the Church in Great Britain, Holland, the United States, Canada, and some other countries, thus taking them out of the Roman category of missionary lands.

1908.—Situation of the church in France after separation. See FRANCE: 1904-1908.

1909 (April).—Beatification of Joan of Arc.—The ceremony of the beatification of Joan of Arc was performed at St. Peter's, in Rome, on April 18, 1909. Proceedings which began about ten years before were brought by this ceremony to the end of their first stage, beyond which they must still be continued for possibly many years, before the canonization of "the Maid" as a Saint should be complete. The question of the beatification had been under consideration in the Congregation of Rites for several years. The grounds on which that question is decided, in every case, were explained by *The Catholic Union and Times*, in connection with its account of the ceremony now referred to, as follows: The Congregation of Rites "may decide that the life of the person was a very worthy and very holy one, but they require much more than that. It must be proved to their satisfaction that 'miracles' have been performed. The Congregation of Rites requires evidence of not fewer than three miracles. In the case of 'miraculous cures' it must be shown that doctors have pronounced the cases hopeless, or that diseases have been cured which doctors call incurable. Usually the report contains particulars of a number of 'miracles,' from which the Congregation of Rites may make a selection. The three chosen among those attributed to Joan of Arc relate to the curing of nuns belonging to different communities, who are said to have obtained relief from their diseases by her intercession. One of these nuns had suffered for years from cancer and was on the point of death when, it was claimed, she was instantly cured by a prayer of Joan of Arc. When the Congregation of Rites has been satisfied as to the authenticity of three miracles they prepare their report, which is submitted to the Pope, who considers it. There is then a gathering at the Vatican, to which the public is admitted. Cardinals and bishops are present, and a lawyer of the papal court reads out the decision. After this, the ceremony of beatification generally takes place within a few months." In January, 1910, it was announced in Paris that the ecclesiastical process for the canonization would begin on February 9.—See also below: 1919; 1920 (May).

1909 (May).—Vote in British House of Commons for removal of remaining Catholic disabilities. See ENGLAND: 1909 (May).

1909-1912.—Separation of church and state in Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1909-1912.

1910.—Political confusion and anti-clerical demonstrations in Rome and Germany.—Renewed anti-modernist policy of the pope.—“Under the confused state of the government during the year anti-clerical feeling in Rome resulted in insults to the Holy See which the Catholics finally met by a formal complaint to the Government. Although the Government showed a conciliatory spirit and harmony seemed about to be restored, the breach between the Holy See and the people was widened when somewhat the same policy that had been adopted by the Vatican with France was attempted with Germany. On the tercentenary of the canonisation of San Carlo Borromeo the Pope issued an encyclical charging the German reformers with having weakened morality in their country. This pronouncement was bitterly protested against on all sides and the Prussian government instructed its representative at the Vatican, von Mühlberg, so pointedly that the Holy See relaxed in its aggressive attitude for a time. But the *motu proprio* of the Pope, entitled *Sacrorum Antistitum* (September 8) imposing a vigorous anti-Modernist oath on all the clergy was the occasion of another war-like demonstration among democratic Catholics and encountered serious resistance in Germany later on. The fortieth anniversary of the entry of the Italian troops into Rome (September 20) brought with its celebration an aggressive demonstration against the Papacy.”—*Annual Register*, 1910, pp. 300-302.

1911-1914.—Movement toward Catholic political union.—Struggle between syndicalism and integralism.—Pius X's decree condemning syndicalism.—Death of Cardinal Rampolla.—“The clericals in Rome were, more and more, trying their strength in political or semi-political action. In 1910 moderate clericals gained success in the elections at Florence; in 1911 a strong Catholic agitation was initiated against the radical government's new rules suppressing religious teaching in the schools; on Easter Monday, April 8, 1912, a manifesto was officially published, signed by five notable Catholic societies, expressing approval of the government's plan of suffrage reform. Thus the work already undertaken and under way for some years in Italy, France and Belgium for the purpose of uniting the Catholics into one body for political action, was actively resumed with the tacit approval of the Vatican. On January 26, 1913, the General Assembly of the Popular Union of Italian Catholics met at Venice and drew up a detailed program of political and social demands to be submitted to candidates who wished the support of the Catholic electorate. The purpose was adequate clerical representation not only in the Chamber but in the Supreme Council of Labour. The demands drawn up included the liberty and independence of the pope, improvement in the condition of the working classes, maintenance of religious instruction in the schools and rejection of the bills relating to divorce. The last year of the pontificate of Pius X witnessed the most striking episode of . . . [the] struggle between the harassing Curia and the institutions of the church which resisted it. . . . In Germany first, and afterward in France and in Italy, the Catholic organizations of workmen, after various experiences, came to the decision to accept the Christian syndicates which had been started by the workmen themselves with a strictly economic purpose, and which were independent both of the Catholic political organization and of the control of the Catholic clergy. But the conservative party among the Catholics,

deemed these free syndicates to be dangerous for the church and to oppose the very spirit of Catholic doctrine and practice. . . . Holding this principle, the conservatives took for themselves the title of Integralists, in opposition to the Syndicalists. . . . The Syndicalists were numerous and well organized. . . . The Integralists were in the minority, but they had with them the Vatican and the pope himself. . . . The antagonism between Integralism and Syndicalism . . . assumed wider proportions, as a consequence of an . . . incident that happened in Austria. . . . The local quarrel spread to other countries. . . . But at this point something happened that was almost unprecedented in the history of the Roman church. . . . It was evident that the Society of Jesus did not share the views of the pope and had taken its place of combat with the opposition. . . . Evidently in their judgment Pius X had reached the summit of his reactionary policy and now a decline was to come. The constructive period of his pontificate was past; now it was necessary to prevent him from destroying through his own excesses what he had previously done for the church. . . . In the consistory of May 24, addressing the new cardinals, Pius X complained . . . of the conduct of Syndicalists, who had failed to understand his wishes and to follow his directions. . . . As for the Syndicalist unions, the pope said that they were to be permitted only in exceptional circumstances. . . . The intervention of the pope did not bring peace; there was still room for difference of interpretation of his words, and the quarrels grew more bitter. The pope realized then that he was not obeyed. . . . Overcoming the last hesitation, with a decree published July 15, 1914, he formally condemned the Syndicalist unions. It was his last condemnation; a month later the great European war began and the heart of the old pope was broken.”—G. F. La Piana, *From Leo XIII to Benedict XV* (*American Journal of Theology*, Apr., 1917).—The death of Cardinal Rampolla in December of the previous year deprived the Holy See of a powerful influence and reduced the likelihood of a resumption of official relations between France and the Vatican.

1914.—Death of Pius X (August 20).—Election of Benedict XV (September 3).—Conservative war policy.—Internal reforms.—“The death of Pope Pius X., on August 20, gave the Ministry the opportunity of exhibiting an entirely correct attitude toward the Holy See. [See also ITALY: 1914: Death of pope.] The Conclave opened on August 31. There were three parties in it: the Right, Conservative, directed by Cardinals Merry del Val and Billot, and inclined to vote for Cardinal de Lai; the Centre, led by Cardinals Pompili, Serafini, and Gatti, and putting forward Cardinal Ferrata; the Left, headed by Cardinals Agliardi, Della Chiesa, and Amette, hesitated between Cardinals Gaspari and Maffi. . . . After sixteen ballots, Cardinal Agliardi pronounced the name of Cardinal Della Chiesa, who was elected on September 3 and took the name of Benedict XV. He was a professed diplomatist, and had been a collaborator of the late Cardinal Rampolla. He had only been a Cardinal for three months, and was Archbishop of Bologna. He had to define his course of conduct in the European struggle almost at once. The Belgian Cardinal Mercier, Archbishop of Malines, was destined upon returning from the Conclave, to come into contact with the Germans who had destroyed Louvain and Malines, and who prevented him from communicating with his suffragans and his flock. Contrary to general expectations, the new Pope did

not take up with sufficient energy these encroachments on ecclesiastical prerogatives. . . . When at the end of the year the Holy See enjoined all the episcopal authorities to cause prayers to be offered for the restoration of peace, it met in France with an almost universal resistance. The Bishops refused to allow the Pope's words to be read without qualification; they were communicated subject to the reserve that there could be no question of any peace which did not safeguard the rights of the French nation."—*Annual Register*, 1914, pp. 302-303.—In his first encyclical, Benedict XV not only presented his policy of neutrality in regard to the World War but he outlined his ecclesiastical policy within the church, virtually repudiating the antagonizing methods of his predecessor, though his aims of strengthening and unifying the church body were similar to those of Pius X. He condemned the reactionary Integralists and encouraged the publications of the Syndicalists, obedience to the bishops, whose power had been curtailed under the late pontificate was recommended, and the Society of St. Jerome for the Diffusion of the Gospel which had been practically dissolved was reorganized. The anti-modernist declarations of Pius, however, were confirmed by his successor.

1915.—British envoy sent to the Vatican.—"The absence of a French representative at Rome was felt keenly throughout the course of the past war. It may or may not have been true that the Vatican was possessed of German sympathies. So strongly was this belief held in France that in many instances it led to a revival of the old spirit of Gallicanism within the ranks of the clergy itself. When Pope Benedict XV in the fall of 1914 asked that prayers be offered for immediate peace, the French bishops refused to allow them to be said without the qualification that the peace to be prayed for should adequately guarantee French interests. . . . At the outbreak of the war Great Britain was quick to realize that the Pope's influence over millions of British subjects, as well as over the enemy countries, was not to be despised. Realizing the necessity of keeping the Vatican informed as to the principles for which the Allies were fighting, and also of counteracting German influence, the British government in the early months of the war [1915] dispatched Sir Henry Howard upon a special mission to Rome. According to some writers, the effect of this movement was almost immediately perceptible. For Sir Henry Howard (and later, Count de Salis) was able to secure a fairer hearing for the Allies, one result of which was the effort of the Vatican to repress the opposition of the Irish priesthood to conscription. . . . The diplomatic relations between Bavaria and Rome were not even broken off during the war. The Papal Nuncio continued to live in Munich, while the Bavarian minister retired to Switzerland. Here diplomatic correspondence was carried on with the Vatican; and the Italian government always respected the use of the Vatican's mail pouch for this purpose."—R. L. Buell, *France and the Vatican* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Mar., 1921.)

1915-1917.—Vatican's attitude of neutrality continued.—Appeal to heads of belligerent nations (August, 1917).—Reply to Jewish letter.—Italy's entrance into the World War did not prevent Benedict XV from preserving his neutral attitude. Late in June, 1915, the result of an interview with the pope by a correspondent of the *Liberté* made this fact plain. In a letter to the Belgian Minister to the Holy See, dated July 6, 1915, Cardinal Gasparri explained the pope's

position: "The Chancellor of the German Empire, M. Bethmann-Hollweg, declared on August 4, 1914, in open Parliament, that by invading Belgian territory Germany was violating the neutrality of Belgium in opposition to International Law. Generally in the case of an actual conflict, one of the parties accuses and the other denies; and the Holy See, being unable to throw any light on the dispute by means of an Enquiry, finds itself unable to make any pronouncement. In the present case, on the contrary, the German Chancellor admitted that the invasion of Belgium was a violation of neutrality and contrary to International Law, although he declared it to be rendered legitimate by military necessity. The invasion of Belgium is, consequently, comprehended in the words of the Consistorial Allocation of January 22 last, wherein the Holy Father emphatically re-proves every injustice, by whatever side, and for whatever motive, it may have been committed. In the meantime, it is true, Germany has published some documents of the Belgian Staff by which she seeks to prove that Belgium, before the war, had failed in her duty as a neutral Power, and that therefore such neutrality was non-existent at the period of the invasion. But, even if the German point of view be admitted, it would always remain true to say that Germany, according to the Chancellor's own confession, penetrated into Belgian territory with the consciousness that she was committing a breach of neutrality and, as a consequence, an injustice. This is sufficient to prove that this act must be considered as directly included in the terms of the pontifical allocation."—*Letter of Cardinal Gasparri, Secretary of State of His Holiness, dated July 6, 1915* (*Osservatore Romano*, July 18, 1915).—When in his allocation of December, 1915, the pope said that every effort should be made to bring the war to a conclusion and that that result could only be achieved by concessions on both sides, his pacific pronouncement was very unfavorably received in Italy except in ultra-clerical circles. In his allocation of December, 1916, special emphasis was laid on the passages concerning the war, the deportation of the Belgians, and the bombardment of undefended towns. Ten new cardinals were created, all of them belonging to the Entente countries. But that there was no change in his fundamental policy of neutrality became obvious in his peace proposals of 1917. (See also WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: g; h; i; j; m.) "In a note dated August 1, 1917, but published about the middle of the month, the Vatican invited the belligerent states to consider peace on the basis of certain definite proposals: the diminution of armaments; the arbitration of international disputes; the freedom of the seas; the reciprocal condonation of military damages; the general restitution of occupied territory, particularly the complete evacuation of Belgium and France and the restitution of the German colonies; and the examination in a conciliatory spirit of the other territorial question such as those between Italy and Austria and Germany and France, and others relating to Armenia, the Balkan states and Poland."—G. H. Allen, W. S. Sims, S. W. McAndrew and E. Wiley, *Great War*, v. 5, pp. 101-102.—Bearing on the disputed territorial questions Pope Benedict's own words were: "As regards territorial questions as, for instance, those that are disputed by Italy and Austria, by Germany and France, there is reason to hope that in consideration of the immense advantages of durable peace with disarmament, the contending parties will examine in a conciliatory spirit, taking into account

as far as is just and possible, as we have said formerly, the aspirations of the population, and if occasion arises adjusting private interests to the general good of the great human society. The same spirit of equity and justice must guide the examination of the other territorial and political questions, notably those relative to Armenia, the Balkan States, and the territories forming part of the Old Kingdom of Poland, for which in particular, its noble historical traditions and the suffering particularly undergone during the present war, must win, with justice, the sympathies of the nations."—Benedictus P. M. XV, *Appeal to heads of belligerent nations*, Aug. 1, 1917 (*American Journal of International Law*, 1917, Supplement).—The attitude of the pope now officially expressed in his peace proposal was subject to criticism in the Allied camps. Such charges as the following were typical: "In quarters hostile both to Germany and the Vatican it has again and again been said that, in refraining from all protest against the violation of Belgium, the invasion of Serbia and the numberless breaches of international law committed by the Teutons, Pope Benedict was obviously partial to Germany; and it was sometimes added that the Kaiser had promised to restore the temporal power of the Popes as a reward for this partisanship."—*New York Times Current History*, Oct., 1917, p. 6.—On the other hand champions of the papal policy contended that the pope's obligation was international and that his neutrality was synonymous with neither indifference nor a veiled political preference. "Even if the Pope had been inclined to cast neutrality to the winds and take the part of one of the belligerent parties, he would be constrained not to do so by his unique title to sovereignty. Being the infallible law giver in matters of faith and morals, the supreme regulator of ecclesiastical discipline, the Head of the Church militant, the Pope, by the very force of circumstances, is frequently involved in the domestic concerns of certain States. These States, whether their population is wholly or only partially Catholic, cannot admit the possibility of the Pope becoming subject to any State. They cannot view with indifference the eventuality which would place the Pope under the authority of any State, as the abandoning of neutrality would suggest, for this Power would soon become mixed up in the domestic affairs of other States. This is perhaps the reason for the Italian Law of Guarantees. . . . As a temporal power, his [the Pope's] fighting force is entirely negligible. . . . As a spiritual power, however, his influence is incalculable, and it is precisely as the greatest moral force in the world that it is claimed he should have broken his neutrality by taking up the cause of the Allies. This argument, however, is its own reply. For as the greatest moral force in the world, the Pope must denounce 'all injustice, on whatever side it has been committed.' He must not approve one side exclusively, because he has spiritual subjects on both sides and because there is bound to be some injustice and wrong committed on both sides, however unintentional it may be on the part of the people themselves or of their ruler."—H. F. Wright, *Pope and the war* (*American Catholic Quarterly Review*, Apr., 1919).—The pope's reply to the letter of the American Jewish Committee, of December 30, 1915, pleading for intercession in alleviating the persecution to which the Jews in various lands had been subjected, was an unmistakable plea against religious prejudice and persecution and was highly commended by liberal Christian as well as Hebrew publications.

1916.—Peace note of Central Powers addressed to Vatican. See WORLD WAR: 1916: XI. Peace proposals: a, 2.

1917 (May).—Promulgation of new canon law.—In December, 1916, the pope announced the immediate publication of a new code of canonical law, giving credit to his predecessor Pius X for its initiation, and praising Cardinal Gasparri who, he said, had borne most of the burden. "When on May the twenty-seventh, 1917, a new *Codex Juris Canonici* was promulgated by Papal Bull, this memorable event marked the happy conclusion of a revision of the Code of Law for the Catholic Church which had taken thirteen years of the most painstaking work on the part of a large number of erudite scholars and specialists in Canon Law. The new Code is truly a monumental work. . . . During the Middle Ages various Popes caused official collections made of laws that had been enacted within a limited period of years, but never before was the entire legislation of the Church unified and codified as it has now been done in the new *Codex*. The Papal Bull decreed that the new book of law was to go into effect on Whitsunday May the nineteenth, 1918. . . . The purpose of the new *Codex* is, to supersede all existing collections of papal laws, whether contained in the various official compilations published with the special approval of former Popes, or in the volume of decrees and declarations published by the various Roman Congregations, or, finally, in the many existing private collections of papal laws. Only in those instances in which the new Code expressly declares that a former law on a specified subject is to be retained, are former laws to continue in force. . . . The present Code . . . cannot be the final law in all and everything. . . . With the gradual progress of civilization, new amendments, decisions, declarations, . . . exceptions and particular regulations, . . . must naturally be expected. The Holy Father has, however, provided . . . that any and all new laws, as well as the possible repeal of some Canons of the new Code, also any interpretative declarations, etc., issued either by the Supreme Pontiff himself or by one of the Sacred Congregations, shall be turned over to a committee whose duty it will be to formulate the new laws, etc., into Canons, and to insert them in the Code in their proper places, so that the Code may for all times remain the one authoritative and complete lawbook of the Church."—S. Woywod, *New canon law, introduction*, pp. v-vii.—See also ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: 1917.

1917-1918.—Pope's letter on divorce in the United States.—Beatification and canonization proceedings.—While the papal peace note and the publication of the new code of canon law were the most conspicuous events of the Papacy during the year 1917, these were not the only matters which engaged the attention of the Vatican. On January 15, Pope Benedict XV sent a brief to the hierarchy of the United States lamenting the divorce evil, and in August, a series of special rules was published by the Consistorial Congregations, instructing the bishops all over the world in the regulation of preachers and preaching. On March 17, 1918, the Vatican formally pronounced the decree of beatification of Oliver Plunkett, Archbishop of Armagh, Ireland, executed at Tyburn in 1661, and in August, preliminary steps were approved for the beatification of Father Felix de Andreis, first superior of the Lazarist Fathers in the United States.

1919.—Formation of Catholic party in Italy.—Benedict declines Protestant overtures for unity.

—Decrees read confirming miracles of Joan of Arc.—On January 19, 1919, the announcement was made "of the formation of the 'Italian Popular Party' in Parliament. This is in fact if not in name the Catholic Party. [See ITALY: 1919; Internal affairs.] . . . Officially the Holy See is not involved; it accepts no responsibility for the programme and actions of the new party, which is autonomous, purely political, and in a quite different category from the 'Popular Union' and other officially authorized Catholic organizations. Nevertheless it is quite impossible that Italian Catholics should have initiated this movement without the knowledge and tacit consent of the Holy See. . . . Catholics are now at liberty to take part openly and without subterfuge in the life of the State."

—L. J. S. Wood, *Temporal power* (*Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1919).—Early in 1919 "the representatives of the Protestant commission on Faith and Order were received . . . in audience by the Holy Father. In answer to their request that the Catholic Church should participate in a world-wide conference on Christian Unity, the Holy Father kindly but very firmly declined, stating that the Catholic Church was the one visible Church of Christ upon earth, and adding his prayer that all outside the true Church might by God's grace see the light and reunite themselves with the visible head of the Church by whom they would be received with open arms."—*Catholic World*, July, 1919, p. 571.—Decrees were read at the Vatican on April 7, 1919, confirming the miracles proposed for the canonization of Joan of Arc and on March 10, confirming those for the beatification of Louise de Marillac de Gras, founder of the Sisters of Charity.

1919 (April).—First annual meeting of American hierarchy.—Formation of National Catholic Welfare Council.—In April, 1919, the pope in a letter to Cardinal Gibbons proposed that the hierarchy of the United States should hold annual meetings in the interests of church welfare. The first of these conventions accordingly met in Washington in September. Cardinal Mercier of Belgium [was] among the visitors. "The important outcome of the meeting [is] the establishment of the National Catholic Welfare Council for the religious, educational, and social well-being of the Catholic Church in the United States. To this end Catholic publicity will be promoted, recognized agencies engaged in foreign and home missions will be assisted, and the public interests of the Church in this country [the United States] systematically supervised. The permanent Boards established indicate the scope of the activities to be coördinated: Education, Social Work, Press and Literature, Lay Societies, Home and Foreign Missions. . . . So the entire Hierarchy, which forms the personnel of the Council, can only meet annually; an Administrative Committee, composed of three Archbishops and four Bishops will be its executive organ. The chairmen of Boards will be drawn from this Committee, thus keeping every activity under the immediate guidance and protection of the episcopate."—*Catholic World*, Nov., 1919, p. 286.

1920.—Benedict XV's policy of reconciliation.—Relations with France and Italy.—"When, in July, 1918, the Vatican and the Chinese government had agreed to exchange ministers, and, in fact, when the Pope had appointed the Most Reverend Joseph Petrelli as papal nuncio to China, the French government entered a vigorous protest. . . . The Pope's success in establishing diplomatic relations with Portugal in 1918 was another move to arouse French fears. But there is not

the slightest possibility of the establishing of a state religion in any of the countries (with the possible exception of Poland) to which the Vatican . . . sent papal nuncios. Frequently, Protestants, Orthodox Christians, Confucianists and Moslems comprise majorities. . . . The very fact that the Pope has been willing to receive delegates from these completely lay and neutral states, so far as religion is concerned, should be proof that the Vatican has finally reconciled itself to the new order of international society. No longer can it hope to be bound up inextricably with governments. Henceforth its rule cannot claim to be corporeal or even sovereign. The Vatican must restrict itself to the spiritual control of millions of Catholic communicants. It wishes, in return, that European powers recognize that it is an anomalous force in world politics. For it represents an international organization which has concentrated tremendous power in Rome over property and individuals situated the world over. The papal encyclical 'On Christian Reconciliation,' issued the last of May, 1920, is of extraordinary significance in the light of these facts. For it abrogates the rule which has caused so much friction in the courts of Europe, preventing Catholic sovereigns from visiting the king of Italy, whose existence the pope refused to recognize because he had been dispossessed of his lands to furnish a capital for the new nation. . . . In the light of the break of 1904, the repeal of his inhibition may be regarded as a direct concession to France (and more particularly to Italy). Benedict XV justified it in these words: 'It seems to be called for by the gravity of the moment and the established custom of exchanging visits for consultation between the heads of States and Governments.' Benedict was forced to make this move by the pressure of Catholic sovereigns, unable longer to resist the pressure of socialist and anti-clerical elements in their governments. In another respect the Vatican . . . [was] compelled to recede from its former position. Originally it forbade Catholics to vote or become candidates in Italian elections; but the formation of the Italian Catholic party, which in May and June, 1920, was strong enough, in coöperation with the Socialists, to drive the Nitti cabinet out of power, . . . has also brought about papal acquiescence. These admissions virtually constitute the recognition of the Italian government."—R. L. Buel, *France and the Vatican* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Mar., 1921). —"M. Colrat made an important statement before the French Foreign Affairs' Committee at Paris on June 28. It dealt with the re-establishment of diplomatic relations between the French Republic and the Holy See, and was to this effect: An agreement having been reached on the question of a foreign policy, steps may now be taken to re-establish the French Embassy at the Vatican. The internal laws of France will not be altered, and the Holy See will not intervene with regard to such matters as the prohibition of monastic societies. The *Corriere d'Italia*, semi-official organ of the Vatican, published in Rome, stated on July 8 that a *rapprochement* between the Vatican and Quirinal might be looked for in the selection of a protector of the holy places in Palestine. As England, on account of the appointment of Sir Herbert Samuel as High Commissioner, and also because she was officially a Protestant nation, could not be considered, nor France, because she already had her hands full in Syria, it was natural that Italy should receive the mandate, provided the way were paved by a recognition by the Italian Government of the inalienable rights

of the Holy See in Italy."—*New York Times Current History*, Aug., 1920, pp. 784-785.—"The [French] Chamber of Deputies supporting the government's bill for a resumption of diplomatic relations with the Vatican, voted confidence in the Government . . . [on November 30, 1920]. The bill was adopted. Premier Leygues stated in the Chamber that the government's decision to ask authority from Parliament to send a French Ambassador to the Vatican was simply a question of foreign policy and that it was in the interest of France. 'The Vatican is a moral force,' he declared, 'which France cannot afford to neglect.' . . . Premier Leygues reminded the Chamber that Great Britain was maintaining its envoy at the Vatican and that the Swiss government was resuming diplomatic relations with the Vatican, broken in 1873."—*New York Times*, Dec. 1, 1920, p. 19.—"In voting to resume diplomatic relations with the Vatican, the French Chamber of Deputies was mainly moved by two considerations, each important. The loyalty, the gallantry, the unself-



POPE PIUS XI

ish patriotism of the French Catholics, the spirit that inspired the French clerics, were beyond praise. It was the part of sound statesmanship apart from any sentimental reasons, to try to put away the old religious quarrels, to continue something of the 'Sacred Union.' The past is past. The republic retains the old laws against the congregations. The separation of Church and State remains a fact. . . . Rome is really a world capital. Representation at the Vatican is not a matter of religion alone. Great Britain is there. Switzerland is there. France must still regret that in a great crisis she was absent and Germany very much present. Bulgaria, Greece, Rumania are negotiating concordats. France can't afford not to be represented there."—*France and the Vatican* (*New York Times*, Dec. 4, 1920, p. 12).—"Approval having been given by the Dutch Chamber to the bill providing for the establishment of a permanent minister at the Vatican, the Holy See will soon appoint a nuncio at the Hague. No Papal representative has been at the Dutch capital since diplomatic relations with the Vatican were interrupted in 1907 with the recall of Monsignor

Rodolfo Giovannini when the Dutch Foreign Minister omitted to invite the Pope to the second peace conference at The Hague. Lately diplomatic relations were resumed, but the Vatican did not send a representative to The Hague, entrusting the nuncio in Belgium with the position of internuncio in Holland."—*New York Times*, Dec. 27, 1920.

1920.—Pope and the League of Nations.—"The Vatican denies that any steps have yet been taken to obtain admission into the League, and one must accept that denial. Nevertheless . . . it remains true that the subject has been considered, and that . . . semi-official conversations are going on which it is hoped will result in the representation of the Vatican on the council of the League of Nations."—S. Huddleston, *Vatican's new place in world politics* (*New York Times Current History*, Nov., 1920).

1920.—Schism in Czecho-Slovakia.—Benedict refuses their demands.—"Czecho-Slovakia seems to be entering a struggle similar to that which rent France with dissension prior to the war—a struggle between church and state. . . . On one side are the Slovak Catholics; on the other, the Czech anti-clericals. . . . When the empire of the Hapsburgs was dissolved, there were priests in the Bohemian country who thought of a schism. Some of these took the preliminary step of appealing to Pope Benedict for certain reforms. They asked, among other things, for the privilege of electing bishops by a vote of the laity, for the abolition of celibacy and for the privilege of using a liturgy in the Czech tongue instead of the Latin. There were other pleas, some of which were discussed for a long time at the Vatican. In the end, Benedict XV denied all pleas for a relaxation of the discipline and the suggested change in the mode of choosing bishops was not even considered. Some of the priests were aggrieved. . . . The schismatic priests organized a new church which they called Czecho-Slovakian. . . . Some of the Roman Catholic churches have been occupied by force in spite of an edict from Rome. . . . The whole of Czecho-Slovakia seems destined to be agitated and perhaps shaken to its foundations before the conflict ends. In the hope of averting the worst, Benedict XV contemplates the dispatch of a personal envoy to Prague."—*Vatican faces a new schism* (*Current Opinion*, Jan., 1921, pp. 6-7).—In September, 1920, the separation of church and state in Czecho-Slovakia was agreed to by the Vatican. In the following December, Benedict, at a secret consistory, upheld celibacy and said that the democratic forms asked by the Czecho-Slovak priests would never be granted.

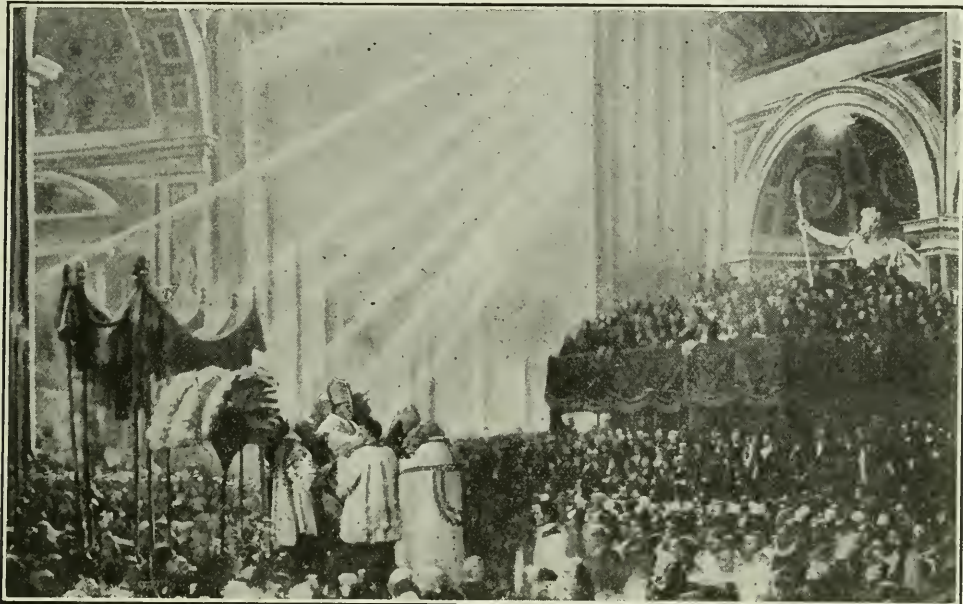
1920 (May).—Ceremony of canonization of Joan of Arc.—Diplomatic corps present.—"Always a saint in the popular mind, the canonization of Joan of Arc on May 16 in the historic basilica at Rome five hundred years after her martyrdom 'was hardly more than an official ratification of a sainthood revered by free peoples everywhere.' All Christendom joined in paying tribute to the memory of the French heroine. The canonization ceremony, conducted by Pope Benedict, was described in the press dispatches as the most impressive function in several centuries. Thirty thousand persons, including 140 descendants of the shepherd girl's family and Church dignitaries from all parts of the world witnessed the rites in St. Peter's. . . . The first petition for canonization was made in 1869, by the Bishop of Orleans and twelve colleagues. The decree of heroicity was published in 1904; the proof of the three required miracles—three modern cures following invocation

to Joan was admitted in 1908; beatification took place in 1909, and in March, 1919, the Pope's decision was given for canonization."—*Saint Joan of Arc (Literary Digest, June 5, 1920, p. 47)*.—"At the ceremony in St. Peter's, Diego von Bergen, the new German Ambassador to the Vatican, made his first official reappearance in the Eternal City. Hitherto he had been the Prussian Minister to the Holy See, a post suppressed in April. The Bavarian Legation, however, was maintained at the Vatican, as was also the Nunciature at Munich. At no time since the Papacy was deprived of its temporal power and secular sovereignty in 1870 had the Vatican been able to boast of such a large *Corps Diplomatique*. . . . Aside from the German Ambassador and the Bavarian Minister, there were representatives from Argentina, Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Chile, Columbia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Great Britain, Holland, Jugoslavia, Nicaragua, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Russia, the Ukraine, Venezuela, China and

cree against any participants in the ambushing of the crown forces. In April, 1921, the appointment of Lord Edmund Talbot as first viceroy of Ireland was officially announced. "The appointment of Lord Edmund Talbot is a historical event of the first importance as he is the leading lay Roman Catholic in the kingdom and first Roman Catholic to be Lord Lieutenant of Ireland."—*New York Times, Apr. 2, 1921, p. 1*.

1921 (March).—Appointment of new American cardinal.—Death of Cardinal Gibbons.—Early in March, at a secret consistory at which Pope Benedict announced and created six new cardinals, Denis J. Dougherty, archbishop of Philadelphia, was made cardinal to succeed the late Cardinal Farley of New York. American Catholics and Protestants alike mourned the death, March 24, of Cardinal Gibbons, Archbishop of Baltimore and Dean of the American hierarchy.

1922.—Death of Benedict XV.—Election of Pius XI.—"Pope Benedict XV. died of pneumonia



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Japan."—*Vatican (New York Times Current History, June, 1920, p. 430)*.

1920-1921.—Vatican and the Irish struggle.—During the summer of 1920 numerous remonstrances by Australian Catholics against the position taken by the Irish-Australian prelate, Archbishop Mannix of Melbourne, on the Irish question were answered by Benedict XV on August 6, in a statement through Cardinal Gasparri. The Vatican disclaimed all intention of interfering with the Archbishop's independence of action in the struggle of Ireland. Various delegations protesting against the treatment of Irish Catholics by the police and crown troops were received and listened to by the pope, who manifested deep regret when informed of the death of Lord Mayor MacSwiney of Cork in October. Benedict gave as his own opinion that death through hunger striking in such a cause was not suicide. In December, Bishop Cohalan of Cork demonstrated the policy of the church against lawless and violent methods of rebellion when he notified the churches of the promulgation of an excommunication de-

at the Vatican on Jan. 22, 1922, and his successor, Cardinal Achille Ratti, elected in solemn conclave of the high Cardinals of the Church on Feb. 6, was crowned in St. Peter's amid scenes of medieval grandeur on Feb. 12. . . . Profound grief was manifested throughout Italy over the death of Pope Benedict. Flags were flown at half mast on the public buildings, and the Italian Cabinet which subsequently fell . . . sent Catholic representatives to bring condolences to the Vatican. . . . The new Pope, Cardinal Ratti [who adopted the name of Pius XI] was elected by the Sacred College, consisting of fifty-three Cardinals, which deliberated in secret council in the Sistine Chapel. . . . The Cardinals were completely cut off from the outside world on Feb. 2, when workmen walled up the doors, according to ancient custom. In the first two votes taken (Feb. 3), the Sacred College reached no agreement. . . . The same result attended the voting of the next two days. It was not until Feb. 6 that Cardinal Ratti was elected. A thin stream of white smoke announced that a decision had been reached, and Cardinal

Bisleti . . . appeared on the balcony and announced the result to the excited crowd of 10,000 people, waiting outside St. Peter's in the rain. . . . His blessing of the people from this balcony was an innovation, contrary to precedent since the feud between the Papacy and the Italian Government began. . . . Cardinal O'Connell of Boston reached Rome one hour too late to take part in the election."—*Death of Pope Benedict XV and election of Pius XI.* (New York Times Current History, Mar., 1922).

See also ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Middle Ages; BULLS, PAPAL; CONFESSION; NUNCIO, PAPAL; PRIESTHOOD: Derivation of term; VATICAN.

Also in: W. Barry, *Papacy and modern times*.—W. E. Beet, *Rise of the papacy*.—Idem, *Medieval papacy*.—E. Denny, *Papalism*.—L. Duchesne, *Beginnings of temporal sovereignty of the popes*.—F. Gregorovius, *Tombs of the popes*.—C. S. Isaacson, *Story of later popes*.—R. L. Poole, *Benedict IX and Gregory VI*.—D. L. Tosti, *History of Pope Boniface VIII and his times*.—H. M. Vaughan, *Medici popes*.—H. Weddewer and J. McSorley, *Short history of the Catholic church*.—A. E. McKilliam, *Chronicles of the popes*.—J. McCaffrey, *Great western schism (Irish Ecclesiastical Record, Jan., 1904)*.—R. L. Buell, *Vatican and the new world* (New York Times Current History, Sept., 1922).—J. A. Ryan and M. F. X. Miller, *State and the church*.—J. H. Ryan, *Vatican's world policy* (New York Times Current History, Dec., 1922).

PAPAGOS, North American Indian tribe. See PIMAN FAMILY; PUEBLOS.

PAPAL BULLS. See BULLS, PAPAL.

PAPAL COUSULTA. See CONSULTA, PAPAL.

PAPAL GENDARMES. See VATICAN: 1800-1850.

PAPAL GUARANTEES, Law of. See PACY: 1870.

PAPAL INFALLIBILITY, Dogma of (1870). See PACY: 1860-1870.

PAPAL LEGATE. See LEGATE.

PAPAL NUNCIO. See NUNCIO, PAPAL.

PAPAL PRIVATE CHANCERY. See VATICAN: Present-day papal administration.

PAPAL STATES. See ITALY: 568-800; 1215; 1250-1520, to 1870; PACY: 755-774; 1077-1102; 1108-1216; 1108-1303, to 1870.

PAPEN, Franz von (1879-), German officer. Military attaché at the German embassy in Washington at the outbreak of the World War. See U. S. A.: 1914-1917.

PAPER: Earliest history and ancient processes of manufacture. See BOOKS: Writing materials; INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: Before 14th century.

Development and later improvements. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Industry; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1871-1900.

Manufacture by machinery, and experiments. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

PAPER BLOCKADE. See BLOCKADE, PAPER.

PAPER CURRENCY. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 17th-18th centuries; 1768-1904; 1780-1796; FRANCE: 1789-1791; 1794-1795 (July-April); GREENBACKS; STABILIZING THE DOLLAR.

PAPER TRUST. See TRUSTS: United States: 1901-1906; 1909: Dissolution of a paper-making combination.

PAPHLAGONIANS, a people who anciently inhabited the southern coast of the Euxine, from the mouth of the Kizil-Irmak to Cape Baba.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Persia*, ch. 1.—Paphlagonia formed part, in suc-

cession, of the dominions of Lydia, Persia, Pontus, Bithynia, and Rome, but was often governed by local princes.—See also BITHYNIANS.

PAPIN, Denis (1647-c. 1712), French physicist and inventor. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Development up to Watt's time.

PAPINEAU, Louis Joseph (1786-1871), Canadian rebel. See CANADA: 1837; 1837-1838.

PAPPENHEIM'S WALLOONS, regiment of cuirassiers in the Imperialist service during the Thirty Years' War. See GERMANY: 1630-1631.

PAPUA. See NEW GUINEA.

PAPUANS, inhabitants of New Guinea and the other islands of Melanesia. See MELANESIA; PACIFIC OCEAN: People; NEW GUINEA.

PAPYRUS. See BOOKS: Evolution; Writing materials; ALPHABET: Theories of origin and development; BOOK OF THE DEAD.

PARABOLANI OF ALEXANDRIA.—"The 'parabolani' of Alexandria were a charitable corporation, instituted during the plague of Gallienus, to visit the sick and to bury the dead. They gradually enlarged, abused, and sold the privileges of their order. Their outrageous conduct under the reign of Cyril [as patriarch of Alexandria] provoked the emperor to deprive the patriarch of their nomination and to restrain their number to five or six hundred. But these restraints were transient and ineffectual."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 47, footnote.

Also in: J. Bingham, *Antiquities of the Christian church*, bk. 3, ch. 9.

PARACELSUS, Philippus Aureolus (c. 1490-1541), German physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 16th century: Paracelsus; CHEMISTRY: General: Iatro- or medical chemistry; SCIENCE: Middle Ages and Renaissance.

PARACHUTES. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1870-1913; Development of airplanes and air service: 1908-1920.

PARAGUA, island in the Malay archipelago, lying between Borneo and the main group of the Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Map.

PARAGUAY: Name.—Geographic description.—Area.—Population.—Resources.—Immigration.—"De Azara tells us that the river Paraguay derives its name from the Payaguas tribe of Indians, who were the earliest navigators on its waters. Some writers deduce the origin of its title from an Indian cacique, called Paraguaio, but Azara says, this latter word has no signification in any known idiom of the Indians, and moreover there is no record of a cacique ever having borne that name."—T. J. Hutchinson, *Parana*, p. 44.—Paraguay "is remarkable for enchanting scenery, fertile soil and healthy climate. It has an area of 90,000 square miles, that is, about equal to the island of Great Britain, and is situated between 22 and 27½ degrees S. lat., and 54½ and 58½ W. long. It is bounded on the north by Rio Apa, which separates it from Brazil, on the west by the river Paraguay, and on the east and south by the Upper Paraná. [See LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.] It has also territorial rights over a vast and undefined portion of the Gran Chaco [see GRAN CHACO], which is also claimed by Bolivia. . . . Being situated nearly 1,000 miles from the seaboard, it is in a manner secluded from the outer world."—M. G. and E. T. Mulhall, *Handbook of the River Plate comprising the Argentine Republic, Uruguay and Paraguay*, pp. 637.

Also in: *Paraguay: General, commercial and financial information relating to the Republic of Paraguay*, p. 589.—H. Stephens, *South American travels*, p. 349.

"The resources of the republic are at present confined mostly to the production of raw material, the industries being few in number. The principal crop is maté, of which about 17,600,000 pounds are treated annually. About one half of this amount is exported. . . . The climate and soil of the republic are suited for all tropical growths; and rubber is grown to some extent, exports of this article in 1907 amounting to 4,400 pounds, sent principally to France. Cotton grows abundantly, and tobacco with little effort, while indigo and sugar cane yield easily to cultivation, and the forests contain many different grades of cabinet and dye woods, resins and balsams, while a native fibre plant known as *mapajo* is used by the Indians in the manufacture of a coarse textile for garments. . . . The live stock industry is constantly increasing, many cattlemen from the Argentina Republic and Brazil having located in the country in recent years."—International Bureau of American Republics, *Paraguay* (pamphlet), pp. 8, 9, 10.—The population of Paraguay is less than one million, including the people of the Chaco district, which is estimated at 50,000. Every encouragement has been given to immigrants entering Paraguay. Transportation is allowed from Buenos Aires or Montevideo. This was suspended during the war but is now resumed. "As a field for immigration Paraguay is at a serious disadvantage because of its position, for Brazil and Argentina drain off the current of immigration from Europe before it can reach the interior Republic. . . . The natural advantages which Paraguay offers to counterbalance the superiority of Argentina in these respects are an exuberantly fertile soil in nearly all parts of a climate whose winters present few problems. . . . Besides good farms and cattle lands can be bought at a much lower price in Paraguay than in Argentine where land values are much inflated. According to statistics of the Foreign Office during the period 1881-1907, 12,241 immigrants entered Paraguay. This number includes only immigrants whose passage from the River Plate was paid by the Paraguayan Government. . . . It does not include immigrants who came to the country of their own accord."—W. L. Schurz, *Paraguay*, p. 133.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See PAMPAS TRIBES; TUPÍ.

1515-1557.—Discovery and exploration of La Plata.—Settlement and early years of colony.—The Rio de la Plata, or River of Silver, was discovered in 1515 by the Spanish explorer, Juan de Solís, who landed incautiously and was killed by the natives. In 1519 this "Sweet Sea," as Solís called it, was visited again by Magellan, in the course of the voyage which made known the great strait which bears his name. The first, however, to ascend the important river for any distance, and to attempt the establishing of Spanish settlements upon it, was Sebastian Cabot, in 1526, after he had become chief pilot to the king of Spain. He sailed up the majestic stream to the junction of the Paraguay and the Parana, and then explored both channels, in turn, for long distances beyond. "Cabot passed the following two years in friendly relations with the Guaranis, in whose silver ornaments originated the name of La Plata, and thence of the Argentine Republic, the name having been applied by Cabot to the stream now called the Paraguay. That able and sagacious man now sent to Spain two of his most trusted followers with an account of Paraguay and its resources, and to seek the authority and reinforcements requisite for their acquisition. Their request was favourably received, but so tardily acted

on that in despair the distinguished navigator quitted the region of his discoveries after a delay of five years." In 1534, the enterprise abandoned by Cabot was taken up by a wealthy Spanish courtier, Don Pedro de Mendoza, who received large powers, and who fitted out an expedition of 2,000 men, with 100 horses, taking with him eight priests. Proceeding but a hundred miles up the Plata, Mendoza founded a town on its southwestern shore, which, in compliment to the fine climate of the region, he named Buenos Aires. As long as they kept at peace with the natives, these adventurers fared well; but when war broke out, as it did ere long, they were reduced to great straits for food. Mendoza, broken down with disappointments and hardships, resigned his powers to his lieutenant, Ayolas, and sailed for home, but died on the way. Ayolas, with part of his followers, ascended to a point on the Paraguay some distance above its junction with the Parana, where he founded a new city, calling it Asuncion. This was in 1537. Ayolas perished that same year in an attempt to make his way overland to Peru. The survivors of the colony were left in command of an officer named Irala, who proved to be a most capable man. The settlement at Buenos Aires was abandoned and all concentrated at Asuncion, where they numbered 600 souls. In 1542 they were joined by a new party of 400 adventurers from Spain, who came out with Cabeza de Vaca—a hero of strange adventures in Florida—now appointed Adelantado of La Plata. Cabeza de Vaca had landed with part of his forces on the Brazilian coast, at a point eastward from Asuncion, and boldly marched across country, making an important exploration and establishing friendly relations with the Guaranis. But he was not successful in his government, and the discontented colonists summarily deposed him, shipping him off to Spain, with charges against him, and restoring Irala to the command of their affairs. This irregularity seems to have been winked at by the home authorities, and Irala was scarcely interfered with for a number of years. "The favourable reports which had reached Spain of the climate and capabilities of Paraguay were such as to divert thither many emigrants who would otherwise have turned their faces toward Mexico or Peru. It was the constant endeavour of Irala to level the distinctions which separated the Spaniards from the natives and to encourage intermarriages between them. This policy, in the course of time, led to a marked result,—namely, to that singular combination of outward civilization and of primitive simplicity which was to be found in the modern Paraguayan race until it was annihilated under the younger Lopez. . . . Irala, in fact, created a nation. The colony under his administration became numerous and wealthy. . . . He was the life and soul of the colony, and his death, which occurred in 1557 at the village of Ita, near Asuncion, when he had attained the age of 70 years, was lamented alike by Spaniards and Guaranis. . . . The Spaniards brought with them few if any women, and if a certain proportion of Spanish ladies arrived later they were not in sufficient numbers to affect the general rule, which was that the Spanish settlers were allied to Guarani wives. Thus was formed the modern mixed Paraguayan race. In a very short time, therefore, by means of the ties of relationship, a strong sympathy grew up between the Spaniards and the Guaranis, or those of Guarani blood, and a recognition of this fact formed the basis of the plan of government founded by the great Irala. The lot of the natives of Paraguay, as compared with

the natives of the other Spanish dominions in the New World, was far from being a hard one. There were no mines to work. The Spaniards came there to settle, rather than to amass fortunes with which to return to Europe. The country was abundantly fertile, and such wealth as the Spaniards might amass consisted in the produce of their fields or the increase of their herds, which were amply sufficient to support them. Consequently, all they required of the natives, for the most part, was a moderate amount of service as labourers or as herdsmen."—R. G. Watson, *Spanish and Portuguese South America*, v. 1, ch. 5, 16.

ALSO IN: R. Southey, *History of Brazil*, v. 1, ch. 2-3, 5-7, 11.—R. Biddle, *Memoir of S. Cabot*, ch. 16-23.—Father Charlevoix, *History of Paraguay*, bk. 1-3.

1608-1873.—Rule of Jesuits.—Dictatorship of Dr. Francia and of Lopez I and Lopez II.—Disastrous war with Brazil.—"Under Spanish rule, from the early part of the 16th century as a remote dependency of Peru, and subsequently of Buenos Ayres, Paraguay had been almost entirely abandoned to the Jesuits [see JESUITS: 1542-1649] as a virgin ground on which to try the experiment of their idea of a theocratic government. The Loyaola Brethren, first brought in in 1608, baptized the Indian tribes, built towns, founded missions [and communities of converts called Reductions, meaning that they had been reduced into the Christian faith], gave the tamed savages pacific, industrious, and passively obedient habits, married them by wholesale, bidding the youth of the two sexes stand up in opposite rows, and saving them the trouble of a choice by pointing out to every Jack his Jenny; drilled and marshalled them to their daily tasks in processions and at the sound of the church bells, headed by holy images; and in their leisure hours amused them with Church ceremonies and any amount of music and dancing and merry-making. They allowed each family a patch of ground and a grove of banana and other fruit trees for their sustenance, while they claimed the whole bulk of the land for themselves as 'God's patrimony,' bidding those well-disciplined devotees save their souls by slaving with their bodies in behalf of their ghostly masters and instructors. With the whole labouring population under control, these holy men soon waxed so strong as to awe into subjection the few white settlers whose estates dated from the conquest; and by degrees, extending their sway from the country into the towns, and even into the capital, Asuncion, they set themselves above all civil and ecclesiastical authority, snubbing the intendente of the province and worrying the bishop of the diocese. Driven away by a fresh outburst of popular passions in 1731, and brought back four years later by the strong hand of the Spanish Government, they made common cause with it, truckled to the lay powers whom they had set at naught, and shared with them the good things which they had at first enjoyed undivided. All this till the time of the general crusade of the European powers against their order, when they had to depart from Paraguay as well as from all other Spanish dominions in 1767. In the early part of the present century, when the domestic calamities of Spain determined a general collapse of her power in the American colonies, Paraguay raised its cry for independence, and constituted itself into a separate Republic in 1811. But, although the party of emancipation was the strongest and seized the reins of government, there was still many among the citizens who clung to their connection with the mother country, and these were known as Penln-

sulares; and there were many more who favoured the scheme of a federal union of Paraguay with the Republics of the Plate, and these went by the name of Porteños, owing to the importance they attached to the dependence of their country on Buenos Ayres (the puerto or harbour), the only outlet as well as the natural head of the projected confederation [see ARGENTINA: 1580-1777]. All these dissenters were soon disposed of by the ruthless energy of one man, Juan Gaspar Rodriguez, known under the name of Dr. Francia. This man, the son of a Mamaluco, or Brazilian half-caste, with Indian blood in his veins, a man of stern, gloomy and truculent character, with a mixture of scepticism and stoicism, was one of those grim, yet grotesque, heroes according to Mr. Carlyle's heart whom it is now the fashion to call 'Saviours of society.' A Doctor of Divinity, issuing from the Jesuit seminary at Cordova, but practising law at Asuncion, he made his way from the Municipal Council to the Consular dignity of the New Republic, and assumed a Dictatorship, which laid the country at his discretion . . . (1814-1840), wielding the most unbounded power till his death, at the advanced age of 83. With a view, or under pretext of stifling discontent and baffling conspiracy within and warding off intrigue or aggression from without, he rid himself of his colleagues, rivals, and opponents, by wholesale executions, imprisonments, proscriptions, and confiscations, and raised a kind of Chinese wall all round the Paraguayan territory, depriving it of all trade or intercourse, and allowing no man to enter or quit his dominions without an express permission from himself. Francia's absolutism was a monomania, though there was something like method in his madness. There were faction and civil strife and military rule in Paraguay for about a twelvemonth after his death. In the end, a new Constitution, new Consuls—one of whom, Carlos Antonio Lopez, a lawyer, took upon himself to modify the Charter in a strictly despotic sense, had himself elected President, first for ten years, then for three, and again for ten more, managing thus to reign alone and supreme for 21 years (1841-1862). On his demise he bequeathed the Vice-Presidency to his son, Francisco Solano Lopez, whom he had already trusted with the command of all the forces, and who had no difficulty in having himself appointed President for life in an Assembly where there was only one negative vote. The rule of Francia throughout his reign, though tyrannical and economically improvident, had not been altogether unfavourable to the development of public prosperity. The population, which was only 97,480 in 1796 and 400,000 in 1825, had risen to 1,337,431 at the census of 1857. Paraguay had then a revenue of 12,441,323l., no debt, no paper money, and the treasury was so full as to enable Lopez II to muster an army of 62,000 men, with 200 pieces of artillery, in the field and in his fortresses. Armed with this two-edged weapon, the new despot, whose perverse and violent temper bordered on insanity, corrupted by several years' dissipation in Paris, and swayed by the influence of a strong and evil-minded woman, flattered also by the skill he fancied he had shown when he played at soldiers as his father's general in early youth, had come to look upon himself as a second Napoleon, and allowed himself no rest till he had picked a quarrel with all his neighbours and engaged in a war with Brazil and with the Republics of the Plate, which lasted five years (1865-1870) [see BRAZIL: 1825-1865]. At the end of it nearly the whole of the male population had been led like

sheep to the slaughter; and the tyrant himself died 'in the last ditch,' not indeed fighting like a man, but killed like a dog when his flight was cut off, and not before he had sacrificed 100,000 of his combatants, doomed to starvation, sickness, and unutterable hardship a great many of the scattered and houseless population (400,000, as it is calculated), and so ruined the country that the census of 1873 only gave 221,079 souls, of whom the females far more than doubled the males."—A. Gallenga, *South America*, ch. 16.

ALSO IN: Father Charlevoix, *History of Paraguay*.—J. R. Rengger and Longchamps, *Reign of Dr. Francia*.—T. Carlyle, *Dr. Francia (Essays, v. 6)*.—C. A. Washburn, *History of Paraguay*.—R. F. Burton, *Letters from the battlefields of Paraguay*.—T. J. Page, *La Plata, the Argentine confederation and Paraguay*, ch. 27-30.—T. Griesinger, *Jesuits*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.—J. E. Darras, *General history of the Catholic church*, v. 4, period 7, ch. 7.

1870.—New constitution.—After the death of Lopez, Paraguay set itself the task of trying to recover from the effects of his campaigns, and to prevent another ruler precipitating the country into similar disasters. In 1870 a new constitution was proclaimed. "The constitution of Paraguay provides for a republican form of government, with the usual division of legislative, executive, and judicial authority. The National Congress is composed of the Senate and, the Chamber of Deputies, both elected by direct, popular vote, all citizens over 18 years of age being entitled to vote. Senators are elected for a term of six years, in the proportion of 1 for every 12,000 inhabitants or fraction exceeding 8,000. The Senate is renewed by thirds every two years. Deputies are elected for a term of four years, 1 for every 6,000 inhabitants or fraction exceeding 3,000. The Chamber of Deputies is renewed by halves every two years. The President and Vice-President of the Republic are elected by electors chosen for that purpose, for a term of four years. [See ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: South American republics.] The President is assisted by a cabinet of five Ministers or Secretaries. Congress is represented during recess by a Standing Committee composed of two Senators and four Deputies, which assists the President and is consulted by him on all matters pertaining to Congress. The Judiciary includes a Superior Court, two Courts of Appeals, and a number of minor tribunals. The Superior Court is composed of three Justices, appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, for a term of four years."—International Bureau of American Republics, *Paraguay (pamphlet)*, p. 5.

1872-1894.—Boundary settlement.—**Gonzalez president.**—In 1872 Paraguay settled her boundary dispute with Brazil, and in 1876 the Brazilian army of occupation was withdrawn. In the same year a quarrel with Argentina concerning boundaries was submitted to the United States for settlement. President Hayes decided in 1878 that Paraguay was entitled to the land between the Pilcomayo and the Verde rivers. In 1879 a dispute arose with Bolivia about the Chaco territory, but this was not settled. In 1890 Don Juan Gonzalez entered upon a presidential term which expired in 1894.

1890.—Represented at First International American Conference. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1890.—William Lane's Utopia.—One of the most interesting of all colonizing efforts of modern times was begun in Paraguay. This was the attempt of William Lane, editor of the *Work* in

Australia to found a socialistic colony. During the time of the great strike of 1890, he set sail with 250 men and women, their only band of union being that each should work for the good of all. From the start the scheme failed, for men and women who had worked well in Australia under the stimulus of personal gain, found it impossible to work as strenuously when their gain was for the common good.

1901-1910.—Participated in Second, Third and Fourth International American Conferences. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902; 1906; 1910.

1902-1915.—Revolutions the characteristic feature of recent history.—Details of revolutions of 1902, 1903, 1911-1912, 1915.—From 1920 to the time of the World War, the history of Paraguay is chiefly the history of its revolutions. Few changes of government were accomplished without bloodshed. Though these revolutions seemed but very little flurries, when viewed in the perspective of world-affairs, they decimated the population and made it almost impossible for the state to claim any other achievement more worthy of historical record. The first of these recent series of revolutions occurred in 1902. "In 1902 a struggle took place between factions of the *Colorado* party. As President Aceval [elected 1898] opposed the candidacy of his secretary of the interior for the presidency, certain military leaders thrust Aceval into a dungeon and even fired upon the national Congress which was deliberating about his enforced resignation. Eventually the vice-president was made acting president; in October the secretary of war Juan Escurra was elected president. Escurra was inaugurated in November, 1902. In August, 1904, an insurrection led by a group called the *Azules* or *Civicos* took place. Martial law was proclaimed, the insurrectionists gained control of the Paraguay River, and the government forces were defeated. An agreement was patched up between the contending groups which stipulated that a new president should be elected, that the *Civicos* should be accorded a majority of the members of the next cabinet, that a new army should be organized, and that an amnesty should be conceded to all political offenders. The leader of this revolution was Benigno Ferreira, who soon became president. Tranquillity was soon upset by a revolt led by Colonel Albino Jara, who posed as chief of the Liberal-Radical party. Revolutionists bombarded the 'palace of government' [1908]. With a small following, the President took refuge in the basement of that palace, while some members of his cabinet fled to the railroad station. Many citizens were killed in the streets of the capital city [Asuncion]. Through the mediation of the diplomatic corps—as the revolutionists promised to save his life—President Ferreira was induced to resign; and Vice-President Emiliano Navero then became chief magistrate. In 1910 his secretary of foreign relations, Manuel Gondra, a cultured member of the Liberal-Radicals, was elected president. Manuel Gondra was inaugurated in December, 1916. The four years that followed were among the stormiest in Paraguay's history. By a sudden coup in January, 1911, Colonel Jara, acting secretary of war, induced President Gondra to resign in order to avoid bloodshed. A rump Congress promptly elected Jara president. In July insurrections broke out in various districts distant from the capital. At last Jara's position became untenable and he resigned: Congress elected Liberto Rojas as his successor. Because of the strife which continued between Jara's partisans and leaders of the Liberal-Radical

party, political conditions remained chaotic and there were rapid changes in the presidency. In April, 1912, Jara emerged at the head of a fresh revolt in southern Paraguay. He was mortally wounded, however, in a bloody engagement at Paraguarí, and on July 19, Eduardo Schaerer, a Liberal-Radical of Teutonic descent, was elected president. With the inauguration of Schaerer, who became president on August 15, 1912, . . . [political] revolutions became less frequent. A revolt led by the secretary of war soon collapsed. A survey of public lands was undertaken by the national government. At the instance of the President, a homestead law was enacted which promised a strip of land to each applicant who would agree to till the soil and build a home."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations*, pp. 283-284.—In 1915 owing to the protest of Colonel Escobar against a reduction of army expenditure, there was a mutinous attack of soldiers against President Schaerer, but this was not successful. "Between 1871 and 1915 there were 26 of what one Paraguayan writer calls 'alterations of the legal order.'"—W. L. Schurz, *Paraguay*, p. 21.

1913.—Appointment of minister to the United States.—Ratification of extradition treaty with the United States.—For the first time in eight years Paraguay appointed a minister to the United States. Dr. Hector Vélasquez was chosen. In the same year an extradition treaty between the United States and Paraguay was ratified.

1913-1915.—Establishment of steam ferry route across the Alto Paraná river.—Economic significance.—"It was in 1913 that occurred one of the most important events in the history of Paraguay. It is true that this was in no way connected with politics, presidents, or constitutions. All that actually occurred, in fact, was the establishment of the steam ferry across the Alto Paraná River, by means of which communication was opened up between the Paraguay Central Railway and the Argentine North Eastern Railway. But the link was actually of the most momentous order; for it was the last in the lengthy chain by which the inland State of Paraguay for the first time in its history was given a direct road to the sea independent of the watery highway offered by its great river. By means of this steam ferry, which bodily transports the trains between Posadas on the Argentine shore and Encarnación on the opposite Paraguayan bank, Asunción is now in direct railway communication not only with Buenos Aires, but with the Uruguayan capital of Montevideo in addition. The true importance of this achievement has been considerably obscured by the shadow of contemporary events. From the point of worldwide acknowledgment it was certainly unfortunate that the fruit of all the years of work and preparation should have come to maturity just at a period when the countries of the Río de la Plata—suffering from the European complications hatched in the Balkans—were undergoing a financial crisis. This in itself was sufficient to depress the spirits of the most resolute shareholders; but when in the following year the great European War broke out, scarcely a ray of light seemed to be left on the horizon. It was inevitable, of course, that this gigantic catastrophe should lead to an unprecedented situation in Paraguay. Thus, instead of the "bumper" freights and financial profit which in ordinary circumstances could scarcely have failed to attend the enterprise, a far less satisfactory situation had to be faced. This has been admirably explained in the Paraguay Central Railway's report for the

year ending on the 30th of June, 1915:—"The situation of Paraguay has been entirely abnormal: the economic life of the country passed through a period of rapid changes. Much of the business effected during the past year has been incidental to this abnormal condition; that is to say, is perhaps due less to a healthy increase in the output of produce, where increase has occurred, than to efforts to adjust changing values to the new conditions. For example produce has in some cases been exported in satisfaction of debts abroad, whereas in normal times money payments would have been made. In some cases the depreciation of the currency enabled exporters to purchase native products at unusually favourable prices, but the rise in freights, etc., and the congestion of ocean traffic soon tended to make these profits illusory. The depreciation of the currency enabled the timber companies to save on wages and to sell in Argentina, where a stock of Paraguayan timber has accumulated. On the other hand, the same cause affected the internal cattle trade adversely, and the depreciation of the paper money has, perhaps more than anything else, contributed to the impoverishment of the people." It is clear enough that a situation such as this could not fail to result in a fall in traffic receipts. But, although the vastly increased commerce that had been anticipated with so much reason has not yet materialized, there is no question whatever but that its advent is merely postponed, and that when once the normal situation has been re-established in South America and throughout the world, the benefits of this most important railway communication must be experienced to the full."—W. H. Koebel, *Paraguay*, pp. 231-232.

1913-1920.—Railways and telegraphs.—The most important railway in Paraguay is the Central Paraguay, which was begun in 1850. "In 1913 the gauge was changed to permit of direct communication with the Argentine North Eastern Railway and through service was opened between Asunción and Buenos Aires. [The proposed Trans-Paraguay Railway has not yet been started.] A railway across the centre of the Republic would undoubtedly open large areas to settlement and promote the advancement of the interior which is now virtually without communications. . . . As is general throughout South America the Paraguayan telegraphs are government owned. There are [1920] about 2,050 miles of wire."—S. L. Schurz, *Paraguay*, pp. 116, 126.

1914.—Bryan-Wilson Treaty. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1913.

1915.—Treaty signed with Bolivia concerning Chaco.—The question as to the ownership of the Chaco had been disputed with Bolivia for many years. Bolivia as early as 1879 had promised to produce evidence from the Spanish archives that she had a right to it. There was another attempt in 1913 to settle the question. In 1915 a treaty was signed but this has never been ratified. It is usually conceded that Paraguay has the real right to this land. It is still under Paraguayan rule.

1918.—Progress in education.—"In 1916 the Director General of Schools declared that 300 additional schools would scarcely fill the most urgent needs of the country, and that over 80,000 children of school age were receiving no education because of lack of schools. During 1916 thirty five rural schools were closed because teachers were not available. Some of the large corporations operating in the Alto Parana region have established schools for educating the children of their employees."—W. L. Schurz, *Paraguay*, p. 23.—"Notable prog-

ress has been made in the educational problems of the Republic. The simplest forms of education are apt to present some difficulties in a country whose population is as sparse and scattered as that of Paraguay. In 1908 it was estimated that the number of the inhabitants of Paraguay over the age of six years was 411,131, out of which total 254,171 were illiterate. In Asuncion itself is a university, as well as a number of secondary schools. It is in the remoter rural districts that the most difficult educational problems present themselves; but in the natural course of events these must automatically disappear when the districts in question are more fully opened up. . . . In 1918 there were 1,086 primary schools with 65,612 pupils of both sexes and an average monthly attendance of 47,377."—W. H. Koebel, *Paraguay*, p. 281.

1919.—Death of President Manuel Franco.—Vice President José Montero assumes office.—"Dr. Manuel Franco, elected president for the term expiring August, 1920, died in June, 1919. Dr. José Montero, who was vice-president, took office immediately and acted as President until the end of the term."—*Latin-American Year Book*, 1920, p. 555.—In November the Senate voted to join the League of Nations.

1919 (November).—Obligatory general arbitration treaty between Paraguay and Uruguay.—"In November, 1919, an ad referendum obligatory general arbitration treaty was concluded in Montevideo between representatives of the Republics of Paraguay and Uruguay. Under this pact all controversies arising between the high contracting parties, and which can not be settled through diplomatic channels, are to be submitted to arbitration. The arbitrator is to be the president or ruler of a State, and if no agreement can be arrived at as to his selection, the parties in interest shall submit their dispute to the Permanent Tribunal of The Hague established under the conventions of 1899 and 1907. The treaty is operative for a period of five years, and if not denounced by one of the parties shall be considered extended for a period of another five years, and so on successively."—*Latin-American Year Book*, 1920, p. 555.

1920 (June).—Presidential election.—On July 28 it was announced that Manuel Gondra, Paraguayan minister to the United States, had been elected president of Paraguay, and Felix Paiva, former minister of the interior, vice president. Señor Gondra at the time was on the ocean on his way from Buenos Aires to New York, arriving on July 2 to resume his post at Washington, where he had represented Paraguay for nearly three years. He later returned to Paraguay and was inaugurated president on August 15. "Soon afterward the Bank of Spain in Paraguay failed, precipitating a sudden monetary crisis, and the President, in a message to Congress on September 10, recommended the issue of 30,000,000 pesos currency with which to make loans to banks for six months to tide over the crisis. [On November 16, a moratorium of two months was declared. Later the general moratorium in Paraguay was extended to April 11, and that of the Banco Mercantil to May 16.]"—*New York Times Current History*, Jan., 1921, p. 118.

1921.—Argentine steamers under Paraguayan flag.—First ship flying Paraguayan flag in New York harbor.—"A decree of Jan. 13 gave temporary permission to vessels under foreign flags to engage in trade on the Upper Parana River, and the Argentine Navigation Company, in consequence of a strike, placed their steamers under the Paraguayan

flag, the Asuncion Government agreeing to operate them with 'officialized' crews. In March the company reached a settlement with the river boatmen's union, promising to restore union crews to the vessels. The 'officialized' crews protested, as this meant loss of their jobs. The nonunion men running the steamer Huttaita, on April 6, stole off with the vessel and headed north toward the Brazilian frontier. A Paraguayan gunboat was sent in pursuit and the Huttaita was sunk near Concepcion. This, it is believed, forestalled a plot of the crews to resist the Paraguayan Government's intention to restore the steamboats to the Argentine Company."—*New York Times Current History*, May, 1921, pp. 338.—The *Ilororo*, the first ship to appear in New York harbor flying the Paraguayan flag, inaugurated direct trade between the United States and Argentina, Uruguay, and Paraguay, early in 1921. This, together with the work of the new steam ferry across the Alto Paraná river (see above: 1913-1915), was regarded as an important factor in the development of trade.

1922.—Need of railways. See RAILROADS: 1912-1922.

1922.—Ayala appointed president.—On the death of President Gondra, President Ayala was appointed to serve out the unexpired term of office. Late in the year a revolt against him headed by Colonel Chirife was crushed.

See LATIN AMERICA; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Central and South America; RURAL CREDIT: Paraguay.

ALSO IN: C. E. Akers, *History of South America, 1854-1904*.—R. B. Graham, *Vanished Arcadia*.—C. A. Washburn, *History of Paraguay*.

PARALLAX METHOD: In astronomy. See ASTRONOMY: Measuring star distances.

PARALUS, the official vessel of the ancient Athenian government, for the conveyance of despatches and other official service.

PARASANG.—The parasang was an ancient Persian measure of distance, about which there is no certain knowledge. Xenophon and Herodotus represented it as equivalent to thirty Greek stadia; but Strabo regarded it as being of variable length. Modern opinion seems to incline toward agreement with Strabo, and to conclude that the parasang was a merely rough estimate of distance, averaging, according to computations by Colonel Chesney and others, something less than three geographical miles. The modern farsang or farsakh of Persia is likewise an estimated distance, which generally, however, overruns three geographical miles.—Based on E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, v. 1, ch. 10, note B.—See also SCHOENE.

PARAWIANAS, South American Indian tribe. See CARIBS.

PARCEL POST.—As far back as the time of the ancient Egyptians, Assyrians and Persians, we know that couriers were employed by the king and state officials to carry packages and documents. "Dr. R. P. Grenfell in a paper on the excavations by himself, and Dr. Hunt in the winter of 1907-1908 at Oxyrhynchus . . . discovered a document, written 270 B.C., which consisted of the register of an intermediate post office on the Nile Valley, which afforded a highly interesting glimpse of the postal arrangements of the ancients. Careful note was made of the day and the hour of the messenger's arrival, the number of packages he brought, the name and addresses on the exterior, and the names of the messengers to whom they were entrusted. The registered letter department of the present day Post Office, he commented, could hardly be more methodical and precise. . . . [In 31 B.C., the Romans officially instituted couriers. Charlemagne in

807 instituted a service throughout the empire. Marco Polo in his *Travels* speaks of a system in China. But most of these services were for the king and court officials. The Hansa towns in the 12th century were the first to begin a service for commercial use.] The French Post Office can claim the first introduction of a parcel post. Mazarin's edict of 1643 shows that there was a parcel as well as a letter post, and both were in operation at a later date according to the regulations framed in Fleury's edicts of 1728. In the United Kingdom when Robert Murray started in 1683 his penny post in London, the service was not confined to letters, the only condition being that neither parcel nor letter should exceed one pound in weight. The Post Office when it organised a supplementary parcel service, undertook the service of common carriers. . . . Vienna possessed a local letter and a parcel post in 1772, at which date no city in Germany possessed the like; and in 1785 this was taken over by the imperial post."—I. G. J. Hamilton, *Outline of postal history*, pp. 3, 29, 13.—In 1883 parcel post was established in England. Parcel post from the United States to the United Kingdom began in 1902. In 1913 the United States government decided that it would accept parcels as well as letters in the mail service. "The two impelling causes of the parcel post were the popular dissatisfaction with the express service of the private companies and the potentiality of the rural mail service in this field. Representative David J. Lewis, an earnest advocate in Congress of parcel post, urged that the million miles of rural routes be connected with the steam transportation lines so that express service might be carried to the farms. The universal extent of the mail lines and the common control of the postal service stood out in contrast to the conditions which made the private expresses unsatisfactory to the people. Altho there were several of the private express companies, the monopolistic nature of the business prevented competition and as a consequence the rates were high. The companies, moreover, quite naturally did not enter unprofitable territory, and altho assiduous in carrying service to such points as would yield a net profit, they were unable to reach thousands of out-of-the-way places. Millions of people who were receiving daily delivery and collection of mail were thus deprived of express service. The parcel-post law went into effect January 1, 1913. In the organic act, postage was to be paid according to a zone system of rates and individual shipments were limited to 11 pounds in weight. The service provided was express service but differed essentially from that provided by the private express companies. The parcel post was the adaptation of mail-service principles and methods to the small freight business. Unlike express rates, the parcel-post rates provided no classification of articles according to their value or urgency. The principle of fixing rates according to what the traffic will bear has no place in parcel-post rates. The vast extent of the country and the great distance which parcels would have to be carried in some instances, together with the prevailing method of compensating transportation lines, made it impossible to provide uniform flat rates for parcel post, but within large zones of distances rates to all destinations were the same."—D. C. Roper, *United States post office*, pp. 188-190.—See also POSTAL SYSTEM: 1600-1800; 1803-1914.

PARCHMENT. See BOOKS: Writing materials; BIBLE, ENGLISH: 7th-8th centuries.

PARDO, Manuel (1834-1878), Peruvian statesman. President of Peru, 1872-1876. See PERU: 1826-1876.

PARDO, Act of the (1728). See SPAIN: 1726-1731.

PARDO Y BARREDA, José (1864-), Peruvian statesman. President of Peru, 1904-1908; 1915-1919. See PERU: 1884-1908; 1914-1916.

PARDON, President's power of. See PRESIDENT: United States: Pardonng power.

PARÉ, Ambroise (1510-1590), French surgeon. Founded scientific surgery in France. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 16th-17th centuries; SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance: 16th century.

PARENZO, seaport in Istria on the Gulf of Venice, Italy, thirty-five miles south of Trieste. Formerly an Austrian port, it was a scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: b, 2.

PARIAN, former old Chinese quarter of Manila. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1574.

PARICANIANS, the name given by Herodotus to a people who anciently occupied the territory of modern Baluchistan.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies, Persia*, ch. 1.

PARILIA, or Pulilia, the anniversary of the foundation of Rome, originally a shepherds' festival. It was celebrated on April 21.—Based on C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 21, with footnote.

PARINI, Guiseppe (1720-1799), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1750-1873.

PARIS, Sir Archibald (1861-), English naval commander. Served in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: f, 1.

PARIS, François de (1690-1727), French theologian. Died as a result of his ascetic practices and his grave became a place of fanatical pilgrimage and wonder working. See CONVULSIONISTS.

PARIS, Louis Philippe Albert d'Orléans, Comte de (1838-1894), pretender to the throne of France. Captain in the American Civil War on McClellan's staff; elected to the National Assembly, 1871; formally resigned claim to the crown, 1873; became chief of the Legitimist party, 1883; forced to leave France, 1886. See LEGITIMISTS.

PARIS, Matthew (c. 1200-1259), English historian. See HISTORY: 19; CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 1066-1534; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 11th-14th centuries.

PARIS.—Paris, the capital of France, is situated on both banks of the River Seine, about 200 miles from its source. Together with the suburban arrondissements, it forms the Department of Seine. Its population according to the census of 1921 was 2,906,472.

Beginning.—A small island in the Seine, which now forms an almost insignificant part of the great French capital, was the site of a rude town called Lutetia, or Luketia, or Lucotecia, when Cæsar extended the dominion of Rome over that part of Gaul. It was the chief town or stronghold of the Parisii, one of the minor tribes of the Gallic people, who were under the protection of the more powerful Senones and who occupied but a small territory. They were engaged in river traffic on the Seine and seem to have been prosperous, then and afterwards. "Strabo calls this place Lucototia; Ptolemy, Luco-tecia; Julian, Luketia; Ammianus calls it at first Lutetia, and afterward Parisii, from the name of the people. It is not known when nor why the designation was changed, but it is supposed to have been changed during the reign of Julian. Three laws in the Theodosian Code, referred to Valentinian and Valens, for the year 365, bear date at Parisii, and since then this name has been preserved in all the histories and public records."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, bk. 2, ch. 7, note.—See also GAUL: B. C. 58-51.

Julian's residence.—Before Julian ("the Apostate") became emperor, while, as Cæsar (355-361), he governed Gaul, his favorite residence, when not in camp or in the field, was at the city of the Parisii, which he called his "dear Luketia." The change of name to Parisii (whence resulted the modern name of Paris) is supposed to have taken place during his subsequent reign. "Commanding the fruitful valleys of the Seine, the Marne, and the Oise, the earliest occupants were merchants and boatmen, who conducted the trade of the rivers, and as early as the reign of Tiberius had formed a powerful corporation. During the revolts of the Bagauds in the third century, it acquired an unhappy celebrity as the stronghold from which they harassed the peace of the surrounding region. Subsequently, when the advances of the Germans drove the government from Trèves, the emperors selected the town of the Parisii as a more secure position. They built a palace there, and an entrenched camp for the soldiers; and very soon afterward several of those aqueducts and amphitheatres which were inseparable accompaniments of Roman life. It was in that palace, which the traveller still regards with curiosity in those mouldering remains of it known as the 'Palais des Thermes,' that Julian found his favorite residence."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, bk. 2, ch. 7.

Capital of Clovis.—Clovis, the Frank conqueror—founder of the kingdom of the united Frank tribes in Gaul—fixed his residence first at Soissons [486], after he had overthrown Syagrius. "He afterwards chose Paris for his abode, where he built a church dedicated to the apostles St. Peter and St. Paul. But the epoch at which that town passed into his power is uncertain."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *French under the Merovingians*, ch. 5.

511-752.—Under Merovingians. See FRANKS: 511-752.

845.—Sacked by Normans.—"France was heavily afflicted: a fearfully cold year was followed by another still colder and more inclement. The North wind blew incessantly all through the Winter, all through the pale and leafless Spring. The roots of the vines were perished by the frost—the wolves starved out of their forests, even in Aquitaine. . . . Meanwhile the Danish hosts were in bright activity. Regner Lodbrok and his fellows fitted out their fleet, ten times twelve dragons of the sea. Early in the bleak Spring they sailed, and the stout-built vessels ploughed cheerily through the crashing ice on the heaving Seine. . . . Rouen dared not offer any opposition. The Northmen quietly occupied the City: we apprehend that some knots or bands of the Northmen began even now to domicile themselves there, it being scarcely possible to account for the condition of Normandy under Rollo otherwise than by the supposition, that the country had long previously received a considerable Danish population. Paris, the point to which the Northmen were advancing by land and water, was the key of France, properly so called. Paris taken, the Seine would become a Danish river: Paris defended, the Danes might be restrained, perhaps expelled. The Capetian 'Duchy of France,' not yet created by any act of State, was beginning to be formed through the increasing influence of the future Capital. . . . Fierce as the Northmen generally were, they exceeded their usual ferocity. . . . With such panic were the Franks stricken, that they gave themselves up for lost. Paris island, Paris river, Paris bridges, Paris towers, were singularly defensible: the Palais-des-Thermes, the monasteries, were as so many castles. Had the inhabitants, for their own sakes, co-operated with Charles-le-Chauve [who had stationed himself with a small army at Saint-Denis],

the retreat of the Danes would have been entirely cut off; but they were palsied in mind and body; neither thought of resistance nor attempted resistance, and abandoned themselves to despair. On Easter Eve [March 28, 845] the Danes entered Paris. . . . The priests and clerks deserted their churches: the monks fled, bearing with them their shrines: soldiers, citizens and sailors abandoned their fortresses, dwellings and vessels: the great gate was left open, Paris emptied of her inhabitants, the city a solitude. The Danes hied at once to the untenanted monasteries: all valuable objects had been removed or concealed, but the Northmen employed themselves after their fashion. In the church of Saint-Germain-des-près, they swarmed up the pillars and galleries, and pulled the roof to pieces: the larchen beams being sought as excellent ship-timber. In the city, generally, they did not commit much devastation. They lodged themselves in the empty houses, and plundered all the moveables. . . . The Franks did not make any attempt to attack or dislodge the enemy, but a more efficient power compelled the Danes to retire from the city; disease raged among them, dysentery—a complaint frequently noticed, probably occasioned by their inordinate potations of the country-wine." Under these circumstances, Regner Lodbrok consented to quit Paris on receiving 7,000 pounds of silver,—a sum reckoned to be equivalent to 520,000 livres. "This was the first Danegeld paid by France, an unhappy precedent, and yet unavoidable: the pusillanimity of his subjects compelled Charles to adopt this disgraceful compromise."—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: C. F. Keary, *Vikings in western Christendom*, ch. 9.

857-861.—Twice ravaged by Northmen.—"The Seine as well as the future Duchy of France being laid open to the Northmen [857], Paris, partially recovered from Regner Lodbrok's invasion, was assailed with more fell intent. The surrounding districts were ravaged, and the great monasteries, heretofore sacked, were now destroyed. Only three churches were found standing—Saint-Denis, Saint-Germain-des-près, and Saint-Etienne or Notre-Dame—these having redeemed themselves by contributions to the enemy; but Saint-Denis made a bad bargain. The Northmen did not hold to their contract, or another company of pirates did not consider it as binding: the monastery was burnt to a shell, and a most heavy ransom paid for the liberation of Abbot Louis, Charlemagne's grandson by his daughter Rothaida. Sainte-Généviève suffered most severely amongst all; and the pristine beauty of the structure rendered the calamity more conspicuous and the distress more poignant. During three centuries the desolated grandeur of the shattered ruins continued to excite sorrow and dread. . . . Amongst the calamities of the times, the destruction of the Parisian monasteries seems to have worked peculiarly on the imagination." After this destructive visitation, the city had rest for only three years. In 861 a fresh horde of Danish pirates, first harrying the English coast and burning Winchester, swept then across the channel and swarmed over the country from Scheldt to Seine. Amiens, Nimcugen, Bayeux and Terouenne were all taken, on the way, and once more on Easter Day (April 6, 861) the ruthless savages of the North entered Paris. Saint-Germain-des-près, spared formerly, was now set on fire, and the city was stripped of its movable goods. King Charles the Bald met the enemy on this occasion, as before, with bribes, gave a fief to Jarl Welland, the Danish leader, and presently got him settled in the country as a baptized Christian

and a vassal.—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3.

885-886.—Great siege by Northmen.—“In November, 885, under the reign of Charles the Fat, after having, for more than forty years, irregularly ravaged France, they [the Northmen] resolved to unite their forces in order at length to obtain possession of Paris, whose outskirts they had so often pillaged without having been able to enter the heart of the place, in the Ile de la Cité, which had originally been and still was the real Paris. Two bodies of troops were set in motion; one, under the command of Rollo, who was already famous amongst his comrades, marched on Rouen; the other went right up the course of the Seine, under the orders of Siegfried, whom the Northmen called their king. Rollo took Rouen, and pushed on at once for Paris. . . . On the 25th of November, 885, all the forces of the Northmen formed a junction before Paris; 700 huge barks covered two leagues of the Seine, bringing, it is said, more than 30,000 men. The chieftains were astonished at sight of the new fortifications of the city, a double wall of circumvallation, the bridges crowned with towers, and in the environs the ramparts of the abbeys of St. Denis and St. Germain solidly rebuilt. . . . Paris had for defenders two heroes, one of the Church and the other of the Empire [Bishop Gozlin, and Eudes, lately made Count of Paris]. . . . The siege lasted thirteen months, whiles pushed vigorously forward, with eight several assaults; whiles maintained by close investment. . . . The bishop, Gozlin, died during the siege. Count Eudes quitted Paris for a time to go and beg aid of the emperor; but the Parisians soon saw him reappear on the heights of Montmartre with three battalions of troops, and he re-entered the town, spurring on his horse and striking right and left with his battle-axe through the ranks of the dumfounded besiegers. The struggle was prolonged throughout the summer, and when, in November, 886, Charles the Fat at last appeared before Paris, ‘with a large army of all nations,’ it was to purchase the retreat of the Northmen at the cost of a heavy ransom, and by allowing them to go and winter in Burgundy, ‘whereof the inhabitants obeyed not the emperor.’”—F. P. Guizot, *Popular history of France*, v. 1, ch. 12.

Also in: F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, bk. 1, ch. 5.—C. F. Keary, *Vikings in western Christendom*, ch. 15.

987.—First becomes capital of France.—“Nothing is more certain than that Paris never became the capital of France until after the accession of the third dynasty. Paris made the Capets, the Capets made Paris.”—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, v. 1, p. 280.

1180-1199.—Improvement of city by Philip Augustus.—“During the few short intervals of peace which had occurred in the hitherto troubled reign of Philip [1180-1199], he had not been unmindful of the civil improvement of his people; and the inhabitants of his capital are indebted to his activity for the first attempts to rescue its foul, narrow, and mud-embedded streets from the reproach which its Latin name ‘Lutetia’ very justly implied. Philip expended much of the treasure, hitherto devoted solely to the revels of the court, in works of public utility, in the construction of paved causeways and aqueducts, in founding colleges and hospitals, in commencing a new city wall, and in the erection of the Cathedral of Notre-Dame.”—E. Smedley, *History of France*, pt. 1, ch. 4.

1252-1257.—Sorbonne founded.—In 1252 a deed authorizing a new college was granted to

Robert de Sorbon, and the site was acquired in 1257.

1258.—Drawing up of Commercial Code by Étienne Boileau.—Étienne Boileau, the provost of Paris, was commissioned by St. Louis to write out for future reference all the ancient regulations of the trades of the city. This book is sometimes called the “Book of Trades.”

1356-1383.—Building of the Bastille. See BASTILLE.

1357-1358.—Popular movement under Stephen Marcel. See FRANCE: 1356-1358; STATES-GENERAL OF FRANCE.

1367.—Louvre included within walls of city. See LOUVRE: 600-1548.

1381.—Insurrection of Maillotins.—At the beginning of the reign of Charles VI a tumult broke out in Paris, caused by the imposition of a general tax on merchandise of all kinds. “The Parisians ran to the arsenal, where they found mallets of lead intended for the defence of the town, and under the blows from which the greater part of the collectors of the new tax perished. From the weapons used the insurgents took the name of Maillotins. Reims, Châlons, Orleans, Blois, and Rouen rose at the example of the capital. The States-General of the Langue d’Oil were then convoked at Compiègne, and separated without having granted anything. The Parisians were always in arms, and the dukes [regents during the minority of the young king], powerless to make them submit, treated with them, and contented themselves with the offer of 100,000 livres. The chastisement was put off for a time. [The chastisement of Paris and of the other rebellious towns was inflicted in 1382 after the king and his uncles had subdued the Flemings at Rosebecque.]”—E. de Bonnechose, *History of France*, epoch 2, bk. 2, ch. 5.—See also FLANDERS: 1382.

1410-1415.—Reign of Cabochiens.—Civil war of Armagnacs and Burgundians. See FRANCE: 1380-1415.

1418.—Massacre of Armagnacs. See FRANCE: 1415-1419.

1420-1422.—King Henry V of England and his court in the city. See FRANCE: 1417-1422.

1429.—Repulse of the Maid of Orleans. See FRANCE: 1429-1431.

1436.—Recovery from the English. See FRANCE: 1431-1453.

1496.—Founding of the press of Henry Estienne. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1496-1598.

1567.—Battle of St. Denis. See FRANCE: 1563-1570.

1572.—Massacre of St. Bartholomew’s Day. See FRANCE: 1572 (August).

1588-1589.—Insurrection of Catholic League.—Day of Barricades.—Siege of the city by the king and Henry of Navarre. See FRANCE: 1584-1589.

1590.—Siege by Henry IV.—Famine and disease.—Relief by Duke of Parma. See FRANCE: 1590.

1594.—Henry IV’s entry.—Expulsion of Jesuits. See FRANCE: 1593-1598.

1626.—Port Royal and the Jansenists. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.

1643-1715.—Growing importance as a literary and artistic center.—Improvements in the city.—During the reign of Louis XIV Paris became the great center of literary influence. Her arts and crafts became the models of Europe, and though Louis disliked Paris, he realized that it was the capital and made many improvements. “Louis XIV was the first to appoint lieutenants of police for Paris. Then began the system of public lighting: from the first of November to the first of

March, a lantern in which was a burning candle was placed at the ends and in the middle of each street. The watch was increased or rather instituted. Bodies of firemen replaced the capuchins in the fire service (1699). The narrow streets were cleaned, widened, and paved, public carriages and cabs were established."—V. Duruy, *History of France*, p. 464.

1648-1652.—In wars of the Fronde. See FRANCE: 1647-1648, to 1651-1653.

1652.—Battle of Porte St. Antoine and massacre of Hôtel de Ville. See FRANCE: 1651-1653.

1789.—Scenes of the Revolution. See FRANCE: 1789 (June); (July); (August); (October).

1814.—Surrender to Allied armies. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March); (March-April).

1815.—English and Prussian armies in the city.—Restoration of art-spoils of Napoleon. See FRANCE: 1815 (July-November).

1833-1848.—Municipal improvements.—Era of prosperity.—"It was principally to the improvement of Paris that the Government devoted the funds at their disposal. When Thiers, on April 19, 1833, submitted to the Chambers a proposal for a loan of 100,000,000 francs for public works, he assigned one-quarter of that sum to the monuments of the capital. He foresaw the union of the Louvre and the Tuileries, the enlargement of the Royal Library, the completion of the Arc de Triomphe, the Madeleine, the Pantheon, the Museum of Natural History, the School of Fine Arts, the Palais Bourbon, and the Collège de France, the decoration of the Place de la Concorde, where the obelisk was erected, the opening of many streets and numerous bridges across the Seine. Having become the masters of France, the bourgeois of Paris spent their money in thus changing the face of their city, which attracted within its circuit the whole foreign and provincial world for pleasure and for business. Paris was attacked by a perfect fever of speculation and work, which bore witness alike to the pride and the wealth of the citizens. Their efforts were seconded by active and intelligent prefects, M. de Bondy and M. de Rambuteau. The King himself spent five hours on May 1, 1834, with the whole royal family, in inaugurating the Exhibition of Industry, and on July 14 came to congratulate the exhibitors in person, and distribute amongst them Crosses of the Legion of Honour. The great names of French industry—Erard the pianoforte maker, Fouquet-Lemaître, cotton-spinner, Hartmann and Koechlin, makers of oiled-cloth, Sallandrouze and Thomire, makers of carpets and of bronze, Guimet and Grange, whose trade-marks were world-known—had the honours of that day, on which the wealth and the labour of the middle class received its official recognition. 'You, Sir, have earned our thanks,' said Baron Thénard to the King on their behalf; 'in preserving peace with honour, you have done more for France than by winning battles, or conquering provinces. Our factories have multiplied; our machines have been brought nearer perfection; our manufactures have improved, and their cost has diminished. Our connexions have been enlarged, new arts have actually been created.' In thus thanking the King, the bourgeois were really honouring the success of the Government of order, peace, and commerce, assured by Casimir Perier and followed up by his successors—a success in whose final establishment they rejoiced, as the outcome of the Charter which they were proud to have bestowed on France."—E. Bourgeois, *History of modern France*, v. 1, pp. 160-161.

1848 (February).—Revolution.—Abdication

and flight of Louis Philippe. See FRANCE: 1841-1848; 1842-1848.

1848 (March-June).—Creation of Ateliers Nationaux.—Insurrection consequent on closing them. See FRANCE: 1848 (February-May); (April-December).

1851.—Coup d'état. See FRANCE: 1851; 1851-1852.

1852-1870.—Second empire.—Building activity.—Changes and improvements.—"The intention, which was frankly borrowed from the first Napoleon, was evident: 'to make Paris the unique city of the world, the metropolis of Europe.' This involved nothing less than the destruction of hundreds of houses, and the construction of vast avenues in the place of narrow and unhealthy streets and lanes. 'Hygiene prescribes it; progress demands it,' said the socialist Louis Blanc. The Government scored twice in this process; first, in doing away with an entangled labyrinth of lanes very useful to conspirators and for barricades, and substituting wide spaces to serve the operations of the army of order in case of a riot; and secondly, in providing work for the labourer, air and luxury for commercial men and bourgeois, a satisfaction to the national pride, and noble vistas for the people generally. A prefect of the name of Haussmann, a man of initiative and action, was summoned from Bordeaux to superintend these alterations, the first of which was the construction of the Rue de Rivoli in 1852 and the clearance of the purlieus of the Louvre and the Tuileries. He did not shrink from the expense of rebuilding the whole of Paris; he enlarged its borders so as to double its size; he appealed to the public credit to find the means of meeting the burden of so vast an enterprise; he built Central Markets, laid down parks, and created the Bois de Boulogne. Nobody had ever before been so audacious in his use of the spade in an old capital, or in removing so much building material. 'The extraordinary expenditure,' said Haussmann, 'will produce a general growth of revenue and of comfort; it will thus be repaid by the foreigners.' Thus was set on foot a policy which for the next fifteen years was worked in a way to strengthen and give permanence to the forces which had already under preceding reigns begun to attract cosmopolitan admirers of taste and aesthetic temper to enjoy the hospitality of the great city, so fascinating, so rich in all the graces of sense and intellect."—E. Bourgeois, *History of modern France*, v. 2, pp. 21-22.

1867.—Universal exhibition.—In 1867 a magnificent exhibition was held in Paris. All the sovereigns of Europe were invited, and among the guests of honor were Bismarck and Moltke.

1870-1871.—Siege by Germans.—Capitulation. See FRANCE: 1870 (September); (September-October), to 1871 (January-May).

1871 (March-May).—Insurgent Commune.—Reign of Terror.—Second siege of the city. See FRANCE: 1871 (March-May).

1873-1889.—Fortifications extended.—Three universal exhibitions held.—In 1873 in order to make invasion more difficult, Paris decided to spend vast sums on fortifications. The exhibition of 1878 was France's declaration to the world that she had recovered from the German invasion of 1870. In 1880, an exhibition was held to celebrate the centenary of the taking of the Bastille, and in 1889, another was held to celebrate the centenary of the French Revolution.

1897.—Burning of charity bazaar.—A terrible destruction of life was caused on the 4th of May by fire breaking out in a charity bazaar, held in the Rue Jean Goujon, at Paris. Temporary struc-

tures had been erected, of wood and other combustible materials, to represent a street of Old Paris shops, and the flames ran through them like wildfire. The place was thronged with people, mostly of the aristocratic class and more than 200 are said to have perished.

1913.—Syrian-Arab congress. See SYRIA: 1908-1921.

1914.—World War.—Government temporarily removed to Bordeaux.—City prepared for defense. See FRANCE: 1914 (August-September).

1914-1918.—Air raids.—Long range gun.—“The bombardment of Paris began on August 30, 1914, with the visit of a German aeroplane. . . . The Zeppelins were a failure. They dropped seven bombs in Paris one night in 1915 [see WORLD WAR: 1915: X. War in the air], and seventeen one night in 1916 and then we heard no more of them. . . . From January 1916 till January 1918 we lived in peace, on the defensive but tranquil. . . . The bombardments of the first nine months of 1918 were the history of Paris in that period. [see WORLD WAR: 1918: VIII. Aviation.] . . . The public shelters were very popular at first, but when they proved admirable breeding places for scarlet fever and measles and influenza, people became a little shy of them. . . . The bombardments by the big guns [see BIG BERTHA] were at first easy to deal with, because they fell in regular lines across Paris. Afterwards they were more erratic.”—H. P. Adam, *Paris sees it through*, pp. 210, 212, 216, 220.—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 1; g, 5.

1916.—First general war council held in the city.—On March 27 and 28, the first general war council of the Entente Powers was held in Paris.

1916.—Conference of Allies on trade and tariff policy. See TARIFF: 1916.

1918.—International scientific conference. See INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

1919.—Conference for international union of academies. See INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by French academy.

1919.—Peace conference. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF.

1920.—Housing shortage.—Housing policy. See HOUSING: France: Housing policy.

1922.—Improvement in outer areas.—In 1922, Paris started removing some of the great outer chain of fortifications constructed during the World War, and plans were accepted for making a new outer ring of boulevards of this area.

1923.—Reparations conference of Allies.—Failure. See GERMANY: 1923 (January).

See also CITY PLANNING: France; CIVIC BEAUTY: Paris; CLUBS: 19th-20th centuries: Paris; EDUCATION, ART: Modern period: France; HOUSING: France; LIBRARIES: Modern: France: Bibliothèque Nationale; Paris municipal, etc.

PARIS, Conference of: Outline of work.—Constitution.—Question of publicity.—Delegations to conference.—Council of Ten and Council of Four.—“Great peace conferences are proverbially slow bodies. The negotiators of Münster and Osnabrück spent five years in elaborating the treaty of Westphalia [1648]; the conferences of Paris and Vienna labored a year and a half at undoing the work of Napoleon. Judged by these standards the Peace Conference of 1919 was an expeditious body. It began its sessions January 18 and adjourned December 9. . . . The heaviest part of the work was done in less than six months, before the departure of President Wilson on June 28.”—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*, p. 3.—“When President Wilson

came to France he found that just as he had made up his mind that the League of Nations must be formed, so each of the other nations had certain pet objects which they wanted the Peace Conference to adopt, and in several cases the prime ministers had made definite promises to their people to this end. Prime Minister Lloyd George, for instance, was firm against conscript armies. M. Clemenceau had made definite promises of reparation, and rather than raise more money by taxes, the French cabinet looked forward to having its bills paid by Germany. Signor Orlando and Baron Sonnino were pledged to get everything called for by the treaty of London, the treaty of St. Jean de Maurienne, and the most extreme claims to territory of the Italian nationalists. The Japanese were determined to get a confirmation of their Shan-tung arrangement with China, and a statement guaranteeing racial equality in international relations.”—H. Hansen, *Adventures of the fourteen points*, p. 368.—“No one can understand the peace treaty who does not know and cannot measure the human conditions under which it was brought forth. It is singular but true that peace seemed very beautiful during the war, but almost hateful when the war ended. From a superficial survey of the conditions that prevailed at the Peace Conference, one would have been quite justified in assuming that many of the participants preferred war with all its horrors to any peace short of that which they demanded. Their demands had their genesis in deep-rooted and almost ineradicable hatreds and in the insistent desire for self-protection against future danger. Not a few among the Allies were so intent upon momentary gains as to imperil the entire structure of world-peace, which after all was the real purpose of the Conference. Though the peace delegates individually were able and high-minded, they were bound to the wheel of their national aspirations. Therefore they were unable or unwilling to yield on questions that concerned their own national advantages or safeguards against future German aggressions.”—B. M. Baruch, *Making of the reparation and economic sections of the treaty*, pp. 5-6.—“The Allies were caught unprepared for war in 1914. They were hardly less unprepared for peace. The Entente powers had stated their war aims on January 12, 1917, when Germany was trying to draw them into peace negotiations. These aims might have been embodied in a treaty, drawn after the recognized European pattern, if the Entente, as it was constituted in January, 1917, had won the war. But Russia presently dropped away. The United States replaced Russia, functioning however, not as an ‘Allied’ but as an ‘Associated’ power. On January 8, 1918, President Wilson promulgated his ‘Fourteen Points.’ [These Fourteen Points were based on the statement issued by the ‘Inquiry,’ a body of American experts under the guidance of Colonel House.] He supplemented these on February 11th with four ‘principles’; on July 4th with four more ‘principles,’ and on September 27th, with five additional ‘principles.’ In the Lansing-Solf armistice correspondence, Germany agreed to accept a peace based on the ‘Fourteen Points’ and on the later ‘principles,’ particularly those enunciated on September 27th. The principles were vague and abstract and contemplated a peace of conciliation as a first step toward a new world concert which would end wars. The ‘Fourteen Points’ were also full of ambiguities. By the end of 1918, some of them had ceased to be applicable. Others had nothing to do with the German settlement. Austro-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria had invited negotiations without any reference to Mr. Wilson’s peace aims. Moreover, the

United States was not at war with either Bulgaria or Turkey. The major Entente powers made a reservation as to Point Two, relating to the freedom of the seas—a principle on which Mr. Wilson had laid special stress in all his prior discussions of peace readjustments. They also insisted that Germany must acknowledge an obligation to make compensation "for all damage done to the civilian population of the Allied states or their property by the aggression of Germany by land, by sea, and from the air."—J. H. Rose, *Development of the European nations, 1870-1921*, pp. 413-414.—"One of the earliest problems had been to decide what nations were entitled to a seat at the peace table. The old Russian Empire had collapsed and no stable government existed which the Allies would recognize as having the right to speak in the name of the Russian people as a whole. On the other hand, it was agreed that Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, and the Arab Kingdom of the Hedjaz were entitled to be present as separate states. The newly proclaimed Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes had not as yet been recognized by the principal Allies, who continued to regard Serbia and Montenegro as separate states, and the remainder of the South Slav areas as Austro-Hungarian territories, the status of which was to be finally settled by the Peace Conference. On the other hand, the British Dominions and India were represented separately, instead of being included in a panel of delegates for the empire as a whole."—A. P. Scott, *Introduction to the peace treaties*, p. 64.—"Not less than a thousand delegates foregathered in the French capital; the British Delegation alone occupied five hotels. The vastness of the machinery was not perhaps incommensurate with the range of the war or the scope of the treaties, but it did not make for the expeditious settlement which was on every ground much to be desired. The Conference itself when in plenary session consisted of seventy delegates; of these, fourteen represented the British Empire [including Australia, Canada, India, New Zealand, Newfoundland and South Africa (see ENGLAND: 1919: British representation at the Peace Conference)]; France, Italy, United States, and Japan claimed five each; Belgium, Jugo-Slavia [Serbia], and Brazil, three apiece; China, Czecho-Slovakia, Greece, Portugal, Roumania, Poland, Siam, and the Hedjaz, two each; Bolivia, Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, Hayti, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Uruguay, one each. [Delegations in Paris having no representatives at the conference were from Aland Islands, Albania, Armenia, Austria, Dalmatia, Denmark, Kurdistan, Montenegro, Persia, Syria and Russia. There was also a delegation of Zionists.] The treaty itself was signed by sixty-eight of these, China alone abstaining. . . . The settlement falls naturally into three parts: (1) the remaking of the political map of Europe; (2) the territorial readjustments in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific; and (3) the regulation of future international relations by means of the Covenant of the League of Nations. The territorial resettlement in Europe depended upon five pivots; the readjustment of the eastern frontiers of France; the liberation of the peoples formerly annexed by Prussia, mainly Poles and Danes; the disintegration of the composite Empire of the Habsburgs; the redemption of unredeemed Italy; and the final liquidation of the Turkish estate in Europe. . . . The whole of the cement for the vast edifice erected with so much labour by the diplomats at Paris is provided by the Covenant of the League of Nations. [See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Making of the league at the Paris conference.] The text of that Covenant is prefixed to all the principal Treaties

concluded between the Allied and Associated Powers and their late enemies. The drafting and elaboration of its provisions occupied much of the time and thought of some of the leading statesmen of the world at the Peace Conference. Whether the procedure adopted was the best; whether it was wise to incorporate the Covenant in the text of the Treaties of Peace; whether it would not have been better first to formulate the terms to be imposed upon Germany and her allies, and then to have proceeded to elaborate the Covenant, are questions on which there is room for legitimate difference of opinion. But, as things are, the whole structure rests to a large extent upon the observance of the Covenant."—J. A. R. Marriott, *Europe and beyond*, pp. 301-302, 319.—"It was generally agreed that the enemy powers were not to be summoned until the treaty was ready for them to sign. From the outset France, England, the United States, Italy, and Japan assumed the direction of affairs. As Clemenceau frankly pointed out, they had borne the greatest burdens of the war, their armies and navies had largely won the victories, their stakes in the world-settlement were greatest, and on them would fall the principal responsibility for seeing that the terms of the treaty were carried out. Clemenceau was chosen permanent chairman. It was only after a formal protest that the representatives of the press had been admitted, even to the formal sessions, and throughout the Conference there was much criticism of the secrecy maintained. 'Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at' had been one of the Fourteen Points. By this . . . President [Wilson] had intended to denounce secret treaties and understandings between statesmen, which might commit governments to undertakings of which the public was ignorant. By no reasonable interpretation could it be taken as a pledge never to thrash out difficult and delicate points in private. Many, however, felt that secrecy was being greatly overdone, and that negotiations were not being conducted 'in the public view.'"—A. P. Scott, *Introduction to the peace treaties*, p. 65.—"It was early apparent that the Conference could not profitably meet and do business as a whole. . . . Some guiding or steering executive committee was obviously required, and it was early found in the delegates of the five chief powers. . . . [But even these five] had thirty-four delegates and it was plain that this also was too large a body for doing ordinary business. So there was early organized a Committee or Council of Ten, each state having two members, ordinarily the chief delegate and the foreign secretary; and this became the active agency of the Conference. It had a secretariat; and expert advisers, civil or military, attended as they were needed. . . . Each special interest, each minor nationality, had a chance to come forward and state its case, usually at considerable length. . . . More and more people were called in. . . . For its last two sessions the Council moved into the large room reserved for the plenary sessions of the Conference. One of these meetings was reported at length in the Paris papers, and it was alleged that undue publicity as well as undue prolixity, was responsible for the sudden change on March 24. After that date the Council of Ten ceased to meet. . . . At times thereafter the foreign ministers met as a Council of Five. But the real power rested with a new body, the Council of the four principal delegates of England, France, Italy and the United States—Messrs. Lloyd George, Clemenceau, Orlando, and Wilson. [See COUNCIL OF FOUR.] . . . Outsiders were called in as needed, but ordinarily the Four met by themselves, with a confidential interpreter, Captain Mantoux, very able and very

trustworthy. There was no stenographer, not even a secretary, though secretaries were usually outside the door to execute orders."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*, p. 24-27.—"The Conference was dominated by personalities whom the events of the war had made the directing minds of organizations far greater than any that had ever previously existed. They were none of them men who could be fettered by a system; they used and 'scrapped' their materials ruthlessly, and thus continually changed the Conference machine to suit the needs of the moment and of the situation. It is impossible to describe the Conference as a static body. It should rather be regarded as a living organism whose cells were constantly changing, and at times it assumed confessedly strange and distorted forms at the imperious will of masters, who in their turn were in the grip of the great forces of public opinion."—H. W. V. Temperley, ed., *History of the peace conference of Paris*, v. 1, pp. 236-237.

Sources of information.—Commission system.

—"Information the Conference had in huge quantities, literally by the ton. It came in every day in scores of foreign newspapers, in masses of pamphlets, in piles of diplomatic reports and despatches. Every special interest was on hand, eager to present its case orally to the Conference or its commissions, to enlighten personally the commissioners or their subordinates, to hand in endless volumes of more or less trustworthy ethnographical maps and statistics, of pictures and description, of propagandist matter of every conceivable sort. The collecting and sifting of such information for the Conference had begun years before. The French, systematic as always, had appointed governmental commissions, economic, military, geographic, and had also a special university committee with Professor Lavisse as chairman, which prepared two admirable volumes with detailed maps, on the European problems of the Conference. The British had printed two considerable series of Handbooks. . . . The United States had put little into print, but more than a year before the armistice, by direction of the President, Colonel Edward M. House had organized a comprehensive investigation, known as the 'Inquiry.' . . . Carloads of maps, statistics, manuscript reports, and fundamental books of reference accompanied the American Commission to Paris. The specialists who went along or were later brought together were organized into a group of economic advisers—Messrs. Baruch, Davis, Lamont, McCormick, Taussig, Young, and their staffs; two technical advisers in international law—Messrs. David Hunter Miller and James Brown Scott—with their assistants; and a section of territorial and political intelligence. . . . By March the expert work of the Conference had been largely organized into commissions, not systematically and at the outset, as the French had proposed in January, but haltingly and irregularly, as necessity compelled. . . . Ordinarily a commission consisted of two members from each of the five great powers, with a secretary from each and special advisers as required. . . . Some of the best work of the Conference was done in these commissions, and it is to be regretted that the system was not organized earlier and used more widely. Some matters were never referred to commissions, delicate matters like Fiume and Dalmatia and the Rhine frontier being reserved for the exclusive consideration of the Four. Problems of an intermediate sort were sent to special committees, extemporized and set to work at double speed. Such were the Saar valley and Alsace-Lorraine, referred to a committee of three, Messrs. Tardieu, Headlam-Morley, and Haskins.

. . . As time went on, the commissions tended to throw their reports into the form of specific articles or sections of a treaty. . . . Unanimous reports were likely to go through rapidly. A session of the Council of Four might take an important report clause by clause, with explanations from the committee and suggestions from members of the Council, but without fundamental modifications. On the other hand important changes in one chapter of the treaty were made at the last moment by the Four without any consultation of the commission concerned."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*, pp. 22-30.—The members of the various commissions were either experts in the subject to be considered, or diplomats of high rank. President Wilson was chairman of that on the League of Nations. The following commissions were appointed by the conference:

Armistice, Committee Charged to Impose on Germany Methods of Execution of.

Belgian Territorial Claims, Commission for the Study of.

Czecho-Slovak Affairs, Commission on.

Economic Drafting Commission.

Financial Drafting Commission.

German Materials of War and Disarmament, Committee on.

Equipment to be surrendered by Germany, Committee to Decide on.

Greek Territorial Claims, Commission for the Study of.

Inter-Allied Military and Naval Committee: Supreme War Council.

International Legislation on Labor, Commission for.

League of Nations, Commission on the Formation of a.

Mission to Poland, Commission on the.

Reports from Poland, Committee to Deal with.

Ports, Waterways, and Railways, Commission for the International Control of.

Sub-Committee No. 1—Questions relative to transit.

Sub-Committee No. 2.—Regulation of waterways, ports and railways.

Prinkipo, Commission on.

Reparation for Damages, Commission on.

Sub-Committee No. 1.

Sub-Committee No. 2—Study of financial capacity of enemy states and methods of payment and reparation.

Sub-Committee No. 3—Measures of control and guaranty.

Responsibilities for the War, Commission on.

Sub-Committee No. 1—Criminal acts.

Sub-Committee No. 2—Responsibilities for the war.

Sub-Committee No. 3—Responsibilities for the violations of the laws of war.

Rumanian Territorial Claims, Commission for the Study of.

Supreme Economic Council.

Teschen, Commission for the Control of.

—*Documents regarding the peace conference* (American Association of International Conciliation, June, 1919, no. 139, pp. 798-799).—"The essential factors were studied with a care not to be found in any of the great congresses of history. . . . For the convenience of controversy, the story was widely circulated of the most formidable Treaty in history hurriedly improvised and thrown together by four fallible and ill-informed men, closeted in a dark room, imposing upon the world their whim as law. The time has come to meet

this fable with the facts. The Treaty was studied, prepared and discussed for six long months by fifty-eight technical commissions on which sat the foremost specialists of each country which held 1,646 meetings. The conclusions of these commissions, verified by twenty-six local investigations, were discussed from January 10 to June 28 by three bodies: the Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs which held thirty-nine meetings; the Council of Ten which held seventy-two meetings and the Council of Four which held one hundred and forty-five meetings. These three councils also gave hearings to the chairmen of the technical commissions, and all the representatives of Allied or neutral countries interested. Finally when at the beginning of May, the texts were settled upon, the cabinets of the various Powers were called into consultation."—A. Tardieu, *Truth about the treaty*, pp. 97-98.

Course of discussion: Language.—German treaty.—League of Nations.—Criticism of President Wilson.—Dispute over Saar valley and left bank of Rhine.—Disposition of Fiume and Shantung.—New frontiers of Europe.—Poland.—Reparations.—Austria.—Russia.—Balkan problem.—At the first plenary meeting of the conference "Mr. Wilson asked permission to present the following aspects of the matter (concerning the language of the treaty): 'French has been the language of European diplomacy, but we have now reached the beginning of a new era, and enter upon world diplomacy. It is hardly decisive to follow European precedence which gives the French language this position. The language of the other side of the globe is English, and this is a congress of the world. Moreover, the greater part of the people represented in this congress use the English language.' He sincerely doubted whether any American when looking at this document in French would be satisfied that it was an exact expression of the decision of the Conference. . . . The upshot of the matter was that English and French were both made official and the Treaty was printed with English on one page and French on the next. It was one of many evidences of the shifting of power from the old to the new. Indeed, English was the dominant language at the Conference. A large proportion of the foreign delegates, like the Chinese, Japanese, South Americans, and others, spoke it as their second language, and of the Council of the five heads of the great Powers only Orlando of Italy spoke no English, while only two, Clemenceau and Orlando, spoke French. Clemenceau and Sonnino (Foreign Minister of Italy) spoke English fluently, and Baron Makino of Japan spoke it well."—R. S. Baker, *Woodrow Wilson and world settlement*, v. 1, pp. 76, 204, 208.—"It was resolved . . . to concentrate into one huge document all the matters that required to be regulated with each of the enemy states respectively, and to set to work first upon the German volume. As a result, no personal conference took place with the enemy delegates at all and, to quote from the most authoritative British account of the proceedings 'the complexity of conditions and the pressure of time compelled the treaty to be drawn up in sections and prevented the cumulative and converging effect of the provisions from being realized at the time.'"—A. E. Zimmern, *Europe in convalescence*, p. 109.—"Behind the scenes during the early weeks two interesting and important struggles were going on, as to the disposition of the German colonies and Turkey, and as to the League of Nations. A strong tendency developed in favor of dividing up the spoils, making a preliminary treaty

which should penalize and disarm Germany and allow the world to return to normal as quickly as possible, leaving the question of a league of nations for the future. President Wilson, however, had long been convinced that the League of Nations should be established as an integral part of the new international order, and that it should have general oversight of the former German colonies and Turkey. Premier Hughes of Australia was at first in favor of a policy of annexation of the German colonies, as was even General Smuts of South Africa; Japan also was disposed to insist on the terms of the earlier treaties. At the second plenary session (January 25) the conference voted that a league of nations as 'an integral part of the general treaty of peace' was 'essential,' and appointed a committee to draft a constitution. . . . By the end of the month, owing largely to the persistence of President Wilson, the general idea of mandatories for the German colonies and Turkey was accepted, with modifications, which secured the assent of Australia, South Africa, and Japan. The League of Nations Commission met February 3, and continued to hold meetings daily. Very decided differences of opinion arose. The Japanese contended for a 'racial equality' clause; the French insisted that the League must possess adequate military power to cope with Germany in particular. Only by making the armistice terms more drastic, and by promising a special defensive treaty by which Britain and the United States would aid France in case of a German attack, was it possible to secure unanimous agreement. At the plenary session of February 14 the draft of the League Covenant was read. The next day President Wilson sailed for the United States. On February 19 Premier Clemenceau was shot, but fortunately was able to be back at work in a short time. For a while the chief interest centered in economic matters—the amount of reparation Germany should make, and the manner in which it should be assessed and collected. Territorial questions were discussed, and a special committee appointed to co-ordinate the reports of the territorial commissions. The disposition of the surrendered German fleet was debated. On March 1 Marshal Foch presented a report on the military terms of the Treaty. In the meantime President Wilson was endeavoring to rouse public opinion in the United States in favor of the League Covenant, and the debate on the subject in the Senate was becoming extremely bitter. As soon as possible after the close of the session of Congress, the President returned to Paris. He found a renewed disposition on the part of some of the Supreme Council to make a preliminary peace with Germany at once, leaving the League of Nations to be settled later. This the President refused to permit, and in view of the complexity of the settlement, and the necessity for some organization for carrying out its terms, the Allied leaders became more and more sincerely convinced that the President was right, and that the League must be an integral and interwoven element in the treaty. . . . By this time President Wilson's original popularity had somewhat cooled. The opposition in the United States encouraged those in Europe who had from the start disliked the President and his ideas. He was made the target of open attacks on the part of the press. He was blamed for postponing peace and delivering the world to bolshevism, war, and starvation, while he chased rainbows. To some observers it seemed as if the President had relied too much on the statement of general principles without having worked out a detailed and practicable solution of

the specific problems which were bound to come up. To be sure, this gave him the advantage of approaching particular questions with an open mind, but too often it put him in the ungracious position of a critic and obstructionist of some plan carefully worked out by one or other of the powers. While some of the 'practical' men were denouncing President Wilson as a self-willed visionary utterly incapable of dealing with real conditions, others of the liberal and radical wing were beginning to say, partly in sorrow, partly in anger, that he had surrendered to the reactionary crowd and was helping in the old secret fashion to make an old-fashioned imperialistic peace, thinly disguised with a few fine phrases. . . . During the latter part of March, with this feeling of restlessness growing, the leaders of the Conference were struggling with the problems of the amount of reparation to be demanded from Germany, with the question of the Saar Valley and of the left bank of the Rhine. The American delegation favored fixing a definite sum for which Germany was to be held responsible. They objected to the annexation of the Saar Basin to France, and had no sympathy with the project of detaching the Rhine provinces from Germany. Increasing secrecy marked all the proceedings of the Council, now narrowed to the four leaders. Differences within the Council were intense. By April 3 the President's physical strength gave way and he was forced to remain in bed; but he was determined not to yield his positions, and on April 7 he ordered the 'George Washington' to sail at once for France. This was quite correctly interpreted as an intimation that he was about to withdraw from the Conference. Almost immediately compromise solutions were proposed, which the President felt he could honorably accept. On April 11 the Labor Commission submitted a report, and April 28 the revised Covenant of the League of Nations was adopted by the Plenary Conference. By this time the treaty was regarded as so nearly finished that the German delegation was told to come to Versailles. Before they arrived, however, there arose two further crises which threatened again to disrupt the whole Conference. First the Italian leaders, who had urged without success that their claims along the Adriatic should be settled before the German treaty was signed, threatened to withdraw from the conference. The central issue was the disposition of the city of Fiume and parts of the Dalmatian coast. [See ADRIATIC QUESTION; FIUME: 1919: Claims of Italians and Jugo-Slavs; ITALY: 1918-1919.] President Wilson had been opposed to all claims beyond 'the clearly recognizable limits of nationality.' He had been willing to consent, though with some reluctance, to give Italy defensible frontiers at the expense of the Germans in the Tyrol, perhaps not realizing at first the extent to which this did violence to nationalistic principles. On April 23 the President took the unusual step in open diplomacy of issuing a public statement of his reasons for opposing Italy's claims to Fiume and Dalmatia. [See FIUME: 1919: Attitude of President Wilson, etc.] The Italian leaders resented this appeal to Italian liberal sentiment, and they promptly left the conference to lay their case before their people. Strengthened by the demonstrations of confidence, they accepted the invitation of the leaders to return to Paris May 7. Meanwhile it had been necessary to placate the Belgian representatives, who felt they were not to receive enough of the indemnity or of new territory in Africa. [See BELGIUM: 1919: At the Peace Conference.] The last great crisis was with the

Japanese over Shantung. The final decision was largely in favor of Japan, and the Chinese delegation decided not to sign the Treaty."—A. P. Scott, *Introduction to the peace treaties*, pp. 68-74.—"The new frontiers of Germany constituted one of the fundamental and one of the most troublesome problems of the peace conference of Paris. About them waged the conflict of ideas between a peace of justice and a peace of violence, and in them are illustrated the chief difficulties which arose in giving effect to the peace of justice which the conference sought to establish. They meant the release of submerged nationalities like the Danes of Schleswig, and the undoing of ancient wrongs like the partition of Poland, or recent acts of force like the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine in 1871. They involved the question of the best kind of national boundaries and the meaning and limits of self-determination."—C. H. Haskins, *New boundaries of Germany* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris*, pp. 37).—"Belgium . . . obtained some rectification of frontier, . . . [and] also attains, in accord with her own ambitions, 'complete independence and full sovereignty'; she is no longer to be either neutralised or protected, and the treaties of 1839 are entirely abrogated. As regards Luxemburg, Germany is compelled to denounce her various treaties with the Grand Duchy, to recognise that it ceases to be a part of the German Zollverein, to renounce all rights of exploitation of the railways, and to adhere to the abrogation of its neutrality. Schleswig-Holstein presented a problem hardly less difficult than that of Alsace-Lorraine. In no respect, however, did the Paris Conference show more scrupulous regard for the rights even of a defeated enemy or stricter adherence to its own avowed principles. In filching these duchies, in 1863, from the crown of Denmark, Bismarck had shown himself as unscrupulous as he was shrewd. Still, Holstein is German, and Prussia is allowed, therefore, to retain it, together with southern Schleswig; the fate of central and northern Schleswig was to be determined by plebiscite. The inhabitants of the northern zone have plumped for Denmark; those of the central zone, including Flensburg, for Prussia. . . . Roumania is doubled in size by acquisition of Bessarabia (from Russia), of Transylvania, a large part of the Bukovina, and half the Banat. [See RUMANIA: 1919: Creation of Greater Rumania.] Bulgaria, with whom a Peace treaty was signed at Neuilly (27th November, 1919), has had to pay the penalty of its adherence to the Central Empires. Strumnitza, with other territory on the west, has gone to Jugo-Slavia, and Bulgarian Macedonia to Greece. The rest of the Balkan settlement is embodied in a treaty signed with Turkey at Sèvres (10th August, 1920)."—J. A. R. Marriott, *Europe and beyond*, pp. 304, 308.—"Among the political problems that came before the Peace Conference, the problem of the reconstruction of Poland was one of the first to be taken up and one of the last to be finished. Indeed, it is not altogether finished even yet (1921). It was also one of the gravest and thorniest questions with which the Conference had to deal. It was difficult because the eastern frontiers of Poland could not be settled without reference to the Russian Soviet Government, whose existence the Peace Conference could not pretend to ignore but never felt able to recognize; and because the western frontiers of Poland could not be fixed without taking a good deal of territory from Germany; and taking territory from Germany is very serious business. . . . As now constituted, the new state has an area of about 148,000 square miles,

i.e., it is much larger than the United Kingdom or Italy, and about three-fourths as large as France. Its population, which cannot be fixed with any certainty because of the chaos caused by the war, is variously estimated at between twenty-seven and thirty-two millions. At all events, Poland now ranks as the sixth state of Europe, both in size and in population; and it may be considered by far the most important of the new states which the war has produced in eastern Europe."—R. H. Lord, *Poland* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris*, pp. 67, 86).—Paderewski's "knowledge of American and English character made him a most powerful exponent of Polish affairs at the Peace Conference of Paris. The steady effect of his work was of vast benefit to his people. He was threatened by Bolshevism outside of Poland, by doubters within; he was confronted by almost general want, the lack of money and troops, the absence of rolling stock, a threatening horde of Germans on the west, and the Ukrainian army in Galicia on the southeast. These difficulties were increased by the extraordinary nature of the Polish program. Almost every Polish leader wanted to see the greatest possible Poland created, no matter at what expense to the neighboring states. Many wished to see even East Prussia included. It was taken for granted that Danzig would become a Polish port. All of Eastern Galicia was assumed to be naturally Polish territory, though inhabited chiefly by Ruthenians. No leader could have won on such a program before a great congress of European leaders striving to adjust rival claims. The best that Poland could do was far short of her hopes, and the leader of the hour was destined to enjoy only a short period of authority."—I. Bowman, *New world*, p. 331.—"Poland was deprived of Danzig, converted into a free city under the League of Nations, and no boundary was fixed in Upper Silesia between Poland and Germany, or, on the east, between Poland and Russia. Out of these omissions came the Russo-Polish war and the bitter quarrels over the Upper Silesian plebiscite area."—J. H. Rose, *Development of the European nations, 1870-1921*, p. 417.—As to the indemnities Germany was called on to pay, "apart from the initial instalment of five billion dollars to be covered (although it was not) by existing property of various sorts—and a few provisions for future deliveries in kind, such as the coal clauses—no methods of payment were laid down. A grandiose financial scheme indeed there was, outlined in Annex II of the Reparation Clauses—a scheme for bond issues, under control of the Commission, to the amount of twenty-five billion dollars. . . . The Americans . . . wanted a fixed sum, definitely stated, and within the capacity of the Germans to pay [but the other nations refused to agree to this]."—R. S. Baker, *Woodrow Wilson and world settlement*, v. 2, pp. 402-403.—"When the Peace Conference opened, the empire of Austria-Hungary was a thing of the past. [See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1917-1918; HUNGARY: 1918-1919 (December-March).] One journalistic critic complains that the conference angrily broke up Austria into jigsaw bits; but the accusation betrays a wealth of ignorance and shows how much easier it is to be critical than correct. The United States and Great Britain would have been glad to create a federation of Danubian nationalities, which, without the vices that had led to the fall of the Hapsburgs, might have accomplished the economic integration and preserved the political order so essential to the tranquillity and prosperity of south eastern Europe. . . . The nationalities would have none of it. They had freed themselves, they were

instinct with the sense of their own capacity, bursting with nationalistic ambitions, suspicious of any federation as likely to revive the tyranny under which they had so long suffered. The conference lacked the right, as well as the power, to impose union upon them. By virtue of the principle of self-determination it was for the nationalities to determine their own destiny, and if they preferred disunion no one could deny them. . . . The peace conference was, accordingly, placed in the position of executor of the Hapsburg estate. The heirs were generally recognised—Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, Roumania, Jugo-Slavia, the new lesser Austria, lesser Hungary, and Italy. The duty of the conference was to determine the character of the division. Even this had already been fixed in its broad lines, so that much of the task of the peacemakers consisted simply in the determination of detailed frontiers."—C. Seymour, *End of an empire* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris*, pp. 90-91).—The conference has been harshly criticised as having dismembered Russia against her wishes, but all the parts of Russia separated from that empire definitely asked for freedom in accordance with President Wilson's point dealing with self-determination. The following gives the extremist point of view: "The dismemberment of Russia was accomplished by the Peace Conference in the following manner: First: In derogation of Russia's sovereignty, and without Russia's consent, Finland was recognized as an independent state. Second: Estonia was recognized as an independent state which deprived Russia of Reval. This port, together with Helsingfors in Finland, are justly considered the keys to the Gulf of Finland. Third: An independent state, Latvia, was carved out of Russia's territory, depriving the latter of Riga and the Gulf of Riga. These three measures resulted in shutting off the Russian Empire from the Baltic, leaving to Russia but one port in the Gulf of Finland, namely, Petrograd, which is not ice-free. Fourth: Lithuania was recognized as independent, depriving Russia of her strongholds in the Northwest, and also of the strategic advantage of holding the Kovno-Nieman defense system. Fifth: Bessarabia was ceded to Rumania, taking away from Russia one of her richest wheat regions in the South, together with the valuable strip of territory along the Black Sea coast. Sixth: Russia was deprived of the Caucasus, which was deliberately dismembered into a number of little savage republics. As a result of this Russia has lost her oil fields and one of her richest mining regions. Seventh: At the expense of Russia, it was planned to create a Greater Poland, carving out of Russia's body such regions as have practically no Polish inhabitants at all."—B. L. Brasol, *World at cross roads*, pp. 243, 245-246.—"In attempting to understand the Balkan problem, there are several fundamental considerations which must be kept in mind. In itself the Balkan Peninsula is not an enormously rich prize, although the possibilities of economic development are considerable. Its wider significance lies in the fact that with Asia Minor it forms a great natural bridge between Europe and Asia. For centuries its valleys have been the highways for commerce, conquest, and migration between Central and Western Europe and the Near East. During these centuries of invasion and migration and shifting political control the population has become tremendously mixed in language, religion, race, and national consciousness. . . . President Wilson had declared that the relations of the Balkan states to each other should be determined by friendly counsel along historically established lines of allegiance

and nationality, with international guarantees of the political, economic, and territorial integrity of each state. Unfortunately few were in a mood for friendly counsel, and there were no lines of allegiance and nationality that were generally recognized. . . . [The Conference decided that] in the matter of national territory Bulgaria should lose comparatively little. Toward Rumania the boundary was to be that of 1914. This leaves to Rumania the 2,900 square miles of the Dobrudja seized for strategic purposes in the Second Balkan War, 1913. During the Great War Bulgaria had occupied all of the Dobrudja to the Danube. The whole of the district is claimed by the Bulgars on historical and nationalistic grounds. . . . A. P. Scott, *Introduction to the peace treaties*, pp. 224-225, 229-230.

Arraignment of the Kaiser.—"In order to satisfy public opinion, something had to be said about the Kaiser. It was agreed that international law provided no precedents for trying him. Therefore it was declared that 'the Allied and Associated Powers publicly arraign William II of Hohenzollern, formerly German Emperor, for a supreme offense against international morality and the sanctity of treaties. A special tribunal will be constituted to try the accused, thereby assuring him the guarantees essential to the right of defense.' The United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan will each appoint a judge. 'In its decision the tribunal will be guided by the highest motives of international policy, with a view to vindicating the solemn obligations of international undertakings and the validity of international morality. It will be its duty to fix the punishment which it considers should be imposed. The Allied and Associated Powers will address a request to the government of the Netherlands for the surrender to them of the ex-Emperor in order that he may be put on trial.' . . . As a matter of fact, the prospect of the actual trial of the Kaiser was somewhat of an embarrassment. The request was duly made on the Netherlands for his surrender, and promptly refused as unwarranted by international law."—A. P. Scott, *Introduction to the peace treaties*, pp. 154, 155.

Sea outlets for land-locked states.—"Like Switzerland and Hungary, Czecho-Slovakia is a landlocked state. It borders the Danube for less than a hundred miles, and this river, as we have seen, flows past so many other states that it is not a Czech stream as the Seine is French or as the Volga is Russian. [See DANUBE: 1856-1910.] To improve the facilities for water transportation, the Moldau and other tributaries of the Elbe have been canalized, although a great commerce cannot be developed on the Elbe until a deeper channel is provided in Saxony and Bohemia. With these and other improvements, the cheap export of goods would be favored. Further assistance is given by provisions in the treaty of Versailles for the export of Czech goods over German rivers (chiefly the Elbe) and from German ports, where it is stipulated Czecho-Slovakia shall have the privilege of making installations and shall enjoy rights of a special character. The importance of this is seen in the fact that before 1914 three times as much Austro-Hungarian commerce flowed through Hamburg as through Trieste, though special customs arrangements were responsible for part of this result. If the Allies can enforce the international agreements they have signed respecting freedom of transit from one state across the territory of a neighboring state, the interior nations will not suffer because they do not themselves own ports and railways to them. . . . To create a trade balance,

Austria must manufacture and export, and if she is to become a strong nation, she will have to do this more efficiently than in the past. There are already in operation the canals, waterways, and short hauls for the products of her factories. On the other hand, her sea outlets are no longer open to unrestricted use and development; they are in the hands of other powers. Only the Danube is left as a water connection with the commercial highways of the sea. It is difficult to see how Austria can create a commercial fleet under these conditions. It is natural that, confronted by these difficulties, the Austrian leaders should have turned more and more to the possibilities of a union with Germany. In March 1919, the National Assembly framed a constitution which declared that German-Austria was part of the German Republic. It went on to say that the union was dependent upon arrangements yet to be made. But the Allied and Associated Powers required Austria to remain a separate country, at least until some future time. Again on 1 October 1920 the project was revived by the Austrian National Assembly, which directed the government to carry out within six weeks a plebiscite on the union of Austria with Germany, but it was never held. Such action would have the special support of the Pan-Germans. France would always oppose the project because of her fear of increasing the strength of her traditional enemy. For the same reason the project will be opposed by the small central European states just created, who are naturally suspicious of any augmentation of German power. With Austria joined to her, Germany would have a population of 65,000,000, as compared with the 64,000,000 she had before the war."—I. Bowman, *New world*, pp. 331-332, 244-245, 214.

Question of Syria and Mesopotamia.—France desired to have control of Syria, and Britain of Mesopotamia, but President Wilson stood firm against this unless there were proof that the peoples of these countries wanted their suzerainty. "He again set forth clearly the American position and programme. First, the right of self-determination of these people. Here are his words: The point of view of the United States of America was . . . indifferent to the claims both of Great Britain and France over peoples unless those peoples wanted them. One of the fundamental principles to which the United States of America adhered was the consent of the governed. This was ingrained in the thought of the United States of America. Hence, the . . . United States (wanted to know) whether France would be agreeable to the Syrians. The same applied as to whether Great Britain would be agreeable to the inhabitants of Mesopotamia. It might not [the president said] be his business, but if the question was made his business, owing to the fact that it was brought before the Conference, the only way to deal with it was to discover the desires of the population of these regions. Second, he wanted a settlement on a basis, not of secret diplomacy, but of facts. The present controversy . . . broadened into a case affecting the peace of the whole world. . . . He was told that, if France insisted on occupying Damascus and Aleppo, there would be instant war."—R. S. Baker, *Woodrow Wilson and world settlement*, v. 1, p. 76.

Question of Turkey.—As ever in European conferences, no one could agree what to do with Turkey. For this reason President Wilson decided that the commission to the Near East should also find out the desires of the peoples of Turkey. "On May 21 Wilson had reached the end of his patience, and despite his intense desire to keep allied action unanimous and based upon full coöperation,

he informed the Council that he had instructed his commissioners to leave at once for Turkey. Whatever the others did, he was determined to have the investigation made—for his own information and, if necessary, for public use. Lloyd George offered to appoint his members of the Commission at once, but when Clemenceau held back, Lloyd George declared he also must stand out. So the Americans set out alone; and by a kind of tacit agreement the whole discussion of Turkey, especially with reference to Italy, dropped into abeyance. The American Commission left Paris May 25 and 29 and did not return until August 27, after the treaties had been signed and Wilson had sailed for home. Their valuable report was thereafter buried in the American State Department."—R. S. Baker, *Woodrow Wilson and world settlement*, v. 2, p. 203.

Dismantling of Heligoland provided by treaty. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III: Section XIII; HELIGOLAND: 1920.

Question of Egyptian independence. See EGYPT: 1918-1919.

Question of interned German vessels.—During the early years of the war, German ships took refuge in neutral ports and these were seized as the various neutrals declared war on Germany. The peace conference debated whether nations should keep all their seizures. "Mr. Lloyd George pointed out that the United States of America, Brazil and Portugal had all received ships considerably in excess of their losses in the war. France had lost in the war perhaps a million tons of shipping and would only receive about 40,000 tons with a proportion of the remainder. Great Britain had lost nearly 8 million tons, and would not receive more than one to one and a half million tons. . . . He was not fighting for British trade, but what he wished to insist on was that if 30 per cent. of Germany's shipping must be allowed to her, the arrangement must be made on the dead level, and every nation must contribute its share. . . . The British people, however, would not understand, if all the loss fell on France and Great Britain. He pointed out that the United States had acquired a net gain of three or four hundred thousand tons of shipping (and this was some of the best shipping that Germany had possessed) owing to the fact that this shipping had taken refuge in its ports for fear of capture by the British navy. . . . President Wilson pointed out that this shipping was the only reparation that the United States would receive after all their efforts in the war. Mr. Lloyd George said that for the next few years, tonnage was worth a great deal more than money. Those who were able first to establish themselves in overseas trades, would gain enormous advantages. . . . It would have been easier for him to justify to the British Parliament a claim by the United States for pensions than for these ships."—R. S. Baker, *Woodrow Wilson and world settlement*, v. 2, pp. 394-395.

Guarantees of protection for small and new states.—The conference leaders realising the amount of racial hatred which new and small states would encounter, incorporated in the terms of the treaty clauses guaranteeing the recognition and protection of these states.—"Each state includes something of a nationalistic minority, which will look for support to its kinsmen, who form the majority in the neighboring state. Czecho-Slovakia and Rumania, we have seen, include large minorities of aliens; Ruthenians are brought under the political control of Poland; Germans and Jugo-Slavs are annexed in large numbers by Italy. Jugo-Slavia includes comparatively few outsiders, but the differences between Croats,

Slovenes, and Serbs do not promise a tranquil future. In the United States we think little of the dangers apt to proceed from a racial mélange, but in this part of Europe, if a man speaks a different language from that of his neighbor, he becomes almost necessarily his enemy. With this in mind the Conference, much to the disgust of the states, drew up guarantees to be furnished to all minority groups, assuring them the protection and the justice which in this country are taken as a matter of course. How seriously these guarantees will be observed is a problem of the future. We may also expect that difficulties will develop from economic quarrels. Three of the states formed from the Hapsburg empire are absolutely landlocked. Of these, lesser Austria is perhaps in the worst plight. Cut off from territorial access to the sea, with its capital city of 2,000,000 inhabitants placed on the eastern frontier; and poor in natural resources, the new Austria lacks many of the conditions conducive to economic prosperity. It would have been natural, in view of the purely German character of its population, to have permitted union with Germany. This was, on the whole, approved by the American delegates, as it was requested by the Austrians themselves. The French, however, set their face firmly against any acquisition of territory by the secular enemy across the Rhine."—C. Scymour, *End of an empire: Remnants of Austria-Hungary* (E. M. House and C. Scymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris*, pp. 107-108).

Colonies and mandates.—The German colonies were put under the protection of the League of Nations and mandates were given to various countries for them. "In a spirit of altruism, and in order to insure that victors in war should not profit by their victory (thereby removing one of the inducements to warfare), the mandatory system was launched by the framers of the League of Nations Covenant."—G. Aston, *British Middle-east mandates* (*Outlook*, July 12, 1922).—The planning of these mandates was the work of General Smuts, whose fine, well-balanced personality, made him one of the greatest assets at the conference. It was felt that as a former enemy of Great Britain his methods of how to rule conquered territories would be invaluable. "In his well-known memorandum on the League of Nations General Smuts formulated a proposal . . . that a system of mandates should be devised under which the state administering a territory should be responsible to the League of Nations and should conduct a stewardship along general lines recognized by the League to be just and proper. . . . The mandate system provides for three types of mandates. The class A mandates are to apply to the territories formerly Turkish, which are to be set up as provisionally independent nations, subject to administrative advice and assistance from a mandatory Power until such time as they can stand alone. Such mandates are to apply to Palestine, Syria, and Mesopotamia. The class B mandates are to apply to Central African territories, administered under conditions which will guarantee freedom of conscience and religion to the native inhabitants, will prohibit such abuses as the slave-trades, the arms traffic, and the liquor traffic, will prevent the arming of natives for other purposes than police, and will maintain an open door and equal opportunity for the commerce of all members of the League. A third type of mandate, class C, deals with such sparsely settled territories as Southwest Africa and certain of the Pacific Islands, which are to be administered, subject to the same safeguards for the natives, under the laws of the mandatory as

integral portions of its territory."—M. O. Hudson, *Protection of minorities and natives in transferred territories* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris*, pp. 225-226).

Labor clauses.—"The direct opening for the insertion of a labor clause in the treaty was provided in the original draft of the Covenant of the League of Nations. Article 20 provided as follows: 'The high contracting parties will endeavour to secure and maintain fair and humane conditions of labor for men, women and children, both in their own countries and in all countries to which their industrial and commercial relations extend; and to that end agree to establish as part of the organisation of the League of Nations a permanent bureau of labor.' To give effect to Article 20 the supreme council representing the Allied and Associated Powers at Paris created the commission on international labor legislation. . . . The commission held thirty-five sessions. . . . The report of the commission, submitted to the peace commissioners, was in two parts. The first part was a draft convention creating a permanent organisation for international labor legislation. The second part contained the labor clauses, known as Labor's Bill of Rights consisting of nine essential clauses expressing fundamentals for insertion in the treaty of peace. The draft convention provided for the establishment of a permanent labor organisation, adherence to this organisation to be obligatory upon all of the high contracting parties. Acceptance of the principles enunciated in Labor's Bill of Rights was to be a part of the approval of the treaty as a whole."—S. Gompers, *Labor clauses of the treaty* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris*, pp. 319-321).

Reception of treaties.—"The five Paris treaties were signed in this order: With Germany, at Versailles, June 28, 1919; with Austria, at St. Germain, September 10, 1919; with Bulgaria, at Neuilly, November 27, 1919; with Hungary at Trianon, June 4, 1920; with Turkey at Sèvres [see SÈVRES, TREATY OF (1920)], August 10, 1920."—J. H. Rose, *Development of the European nations, 1870-1921*, p. 419.—"On the seventh of May [1919] . . . the completed draft of the Treaty [of Versailles] was handed to the German representatives. Their attitude on receiving the terms did not make a very favorable impression. The powers refused the Germans' repeated request for oral discussion but they granted fourteen days in which to submit written objections of counter-proposals. An extensive summary of the terms of the Treaty was made public, but the text was withheld. The decision, though technically justified on the ground that modifications were still possible, caused renewed criticism of the methods by which the 'open covenants of peace' were being 'openly arrived at.' In the United States particularly opponents of the administration were scathing in their denunciations. Although the German delegates had been prepared in advance for the main terms of the Treaty, the severity of the document as a whole was felt with stunning force. As soon as possible, the German representatives sent notes to the Council protesting against particular provisions. The Allies replied to the separate notes, making a few modifications, but not in very substantial points. On May 17 Count von Bronckdorf-Rantzau, the leader, returned to Germany for a brief conference with his government. On May 20 a week's extension of time was granted. On the twenty-ninth the Germans submitted their counter-proposals, together with a long letter explaining their point of view, and summarizing their former objections to the various provisions of the Treaty.

. . . The Allies replied June 16 in a letter and a detailed discussion of the counter-proposals. Germany's guilt in forcing the war and the atrocities committed during its course were recalled; and Germany was reminded that justice demanded the utmost possible reparation, from which they could not escape by an eleventh-hour change to a republic. . . . While for the most part the Allies insisted on the territorial clauses as drawn, they agreed to a plebiscite in upper Silesia, and modified the arrangements as to Schleswig. They denied that it was their intention to strangle Germany economically. They pointed out that Germany would save \$400,000,000 a year in reduced armaments, and would have the productive efforts of the 600,000 men no longer kept under arms. When Germany proved her fitness to join the League, the Allies would admit her. The Germans were given five days to sign the Treaty as modified. There was much talk in Germany of refusing to sign, and the Allies made every preparation to extend their area of military occupation and to tighten the blockade. The Scheidemann government resigned rather than accept the humiliation of agreeing to the Allied terms. After much difficulty an emergency government under Gustav Bauer received a vote of confidence from the National Assembly. Bauer then agreed to sign the Treaty as under duress, and with reservations and protests, and with the understanding that it should be revised by the League of Nations after two years. The Allies refused to accept any reservations, or to extend the time limit. With bitterness of spirit, protesting that they yielded only to superior force, and denouncing the 'unheard-of injustice of the peace conditions,' the Germans at last yielded [June 23rd]. On June 28, five years to a day after the death of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, and in the Hall at Versailles where the German Empire had been proclaimed, the little-known German delegates, who had consented to serve, put their signatures to the Treaty which was designed to end forever the German menace. China refused to sign, and General Smuts signed with a separate statement that he considered the document in many respects unsatisfactory."—A. P. Scott, *Introduction to the peace treaties*, pp. 74-75, 77-79.—See also VERSAILLES, TREATY OF.—The Treaty of St. Germain with Austria was presented on June 2. "The Austrian representatives at St. Germain argued with a logic, which to many Americans seemed incontrovertible, that Austria was in reality a new state, sprung from the revolution of November, 1918, and that it should not be punished by being forced to assume responsibility for a war debt and reparations account incurred by the Hapsburg government with which it had no connection. . . . Austria, they insisted, was as much a new state as Czechoslovakia."—C. Seymour, *End of an empire* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris*, p. 109).—See also ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF.—"The efforts of the Bulgarians to obtain a modification of the terms were largely in vain, and November 27, 1919, the Treaty was signed at Neuilly, near Paris. [See NEUILLY, TREATY OF.] Rumania finally consented to sign, but the South Slavs still delayed. Bulgaria feels very bitter at the size of the reparation demanded, at the loss of territory, and at the failure to secure any of the 'unredeemed brethren' in Macedonia and the Dobrudja. On the other hand it should be noted that Bulgaria is allowed to retain something like half of the territory gained from Turkey in 1913."—A. P. Scott, *Introduction to the peace treaties*, p. 235.—The Bulgarian and Turkish treaties were

scrapped by the Lausanne conference. See **NEAR EAST, OR LAUSANNE, CONFERENCE** (1922-1923).—Most of the Allied peoples were disappointed with certain clauses and aspects of the Treaty of Versailles, but all the Allied governments ratified it January 10, 1920, with the exception of the United States. There are three great matters which have come into being from the Paris conference: "(1) The forming of an organization for the preventing of war. (2) The sincere effort to give racial entities self-determination. (3) The declaration of a policy of trusteeship in regard to mandates."—E. M. House, *Versailles peace in retrospect* (E. M. House and C. Seymour, ed., *What really happened at Paris*, p. 425).

ALSO IN: R. S. Baker, *What Wilson did at Paris*.—B. M. Baruch, *Making of the reparation and economic sections of the treaty*.—E. J. Dillon, *Inside story of the peace conference*.—W. E. Dodd, *Woodrow Wilson*.—H. Hansen, *Adventures of the Fourteen Points*.—H. W. Harris, *Peace in the making*.—S. Huddleston, *Peace-making at Paris*.—J. M. Keynes, *Economic consequences of the peace*.—R. Lansing, *Peace negotiations: A personal narrative*.—W. Slosson, *Constitution of the peace conference* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1920, p. 360).—R. Lansing, *Big Four and others of the peace conference*.—C. Seymour, *Tardieu versus Lansing* (*Yale Review*, July, 1921).

PARIS, Congress of (1856). See **ITALY: 1856-1859**; **RUSSIA: 1854-1856**; **PARIS, DECLARATION OF.**

PARIS, Declaration of (1856).—The Declaration of Paris was an attempt in 1856, at the close of the Crimean War, to define maritime law relating to neutral ships in time of war. "The Declaration was framed by the representatives of Austria, France, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, Sardinia and Turkey. At the outbreak of the war in 1914 the only maritime powers which had not formally accepted the Declaration were the United States, Spain, Mexico, Venezuela, Bolivia and Uruguay. . . . In practice the United States acted in accord with its rules during the Civil war, and during the Spanish-American war of 1898 both belligerents observed its principles. At the Second Hague Conference of 1907 the delegates of Spain and Mexico, in voting on convention No. VII, declared that their governments accepted the Declaration in its entirety."—J. W. Garner, *International law and the World War*, v. 1, pp. 12-13.—See also **INTERNATIONAL LAW: 1856-1909**; **FREEDOM OF THE SEAS: Question still open**.—The following is the text of the declaration: "The Plenipotentiaries who signed the Treaty of Paris of the 30th of March, 1856 (No. 264), assembled in Conference,—

"Considering: That Maritime Law, in time of War, has long been the subject of deplorable disputes; that the uncertainty of the law and of the duties in such a matter, gives rise to differences of opinion between Neutrals and Belligerents which may occasion serious difficulties, and even conflicts; that it is consequently advantageous to establish a uniform doctrine on so important a point; that the Plenipotentiaries assembled in Congress at Paris cannot better respond to the intentions by which their Governments are animated, than by seeking to introduce into international relations fixed principles in this respect;

"The above-mentioned Plenipotentiaries, being duly authorised, resolved to concert among themselves as to the means of attaining this object; and, having come to an agreement, have adopted the following solemn Declaration: (1) *Privateering* is, and remains abolished; (2) *The Neutral Flag* covers Enemy's Goods, with the exception of Contraband of War; (3) *Neutral Goods*, with the ex-

ception of Contraband of War, are not liable to capture under Enemy's Flag; (4) *Blockades*, in order to be binding, must be effective, that is to say, maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to the coast of the enemy.

"The Governments of the Undersigned Plenipotentiaries engage to bring the present Declaration to the knowledge of the States which have not taken part in the Congress of Paris, and to invite them to accede to it. Convinced that the maxims which they now proclaim cannot but be received with gratitude by the whole world, the undersigned Plenipotentiaries doubt not that the efforts of their Governments to obtain the general adoption thereof, will be crowned with full success. The present Declaration is not and shall not be binding, except between those Powers who have acceded, or shall accede, to it. Done at Paris, the 16th of April, 1856."—E. Hertlet, *Declaration between Great Britain, Austria, etc.* (*Map of Europe by treaty*, v. 2, pp. 1282-1283).

ALSO IN: C. H. Stockton, *Outlines of international law*, pp. 47-49, 471-472.

PARIS, Parlement of. See **PARLEMENT OF PARIS.**

PARIS, Synod of (825). See **IDOLATRY AND IMAGE WORSHIP: Practice and theory in Roman church.**

PARIS, Treaty of: 1635. See **GERMANY: 1634-1639.**

1763. See **SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties which ended the war**; **BRITISH EMPIRE: Treaties promoting expansion: 1763**; **CUBA: 1762-1763**; **FISHERIES: 1763**; **LOUISIANA: 1762-1766**; **U.S.A.: 1763: Treaty of Paris.**

1783. See **U.S.A.: 1783 (September)**; **SPAIN: 1779-1783.**

1814. See **FRANCE: 1814 (April-June)**; **VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.**

1815. See **FRANCE: 1815 (June-August)**; (**July-November**); **VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.**

1856. See **DANUBE: 1850-1916**; **RUMANIA: 1856-1875.**

1898. See **U.S.A.: 1898 (July-December).**

PARIS, University of. See **EDUCATION: Medieval: 11th-12th centuries**; **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: Nature of medieval universities: 1201-1679; 1231-1339.**

PARIS TRIBUNAL. See **VENEZUELA: 1896-1899.**

PARISH SCHOOLS. See **EDUCATION: Medieval: 4th-15th centuries**; **Modern: 17th century: Scotland.**

PARISHADS, institutions of learning in ancient India. See **EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 15th-5th centuries: India.**

PARISII, Gallic tribe who occupied the ancient site of Paris. See **PARIS: Beginning**; **BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.**

PARIS-ROUEN AUTOMOBILE RACE (1894). See **AUTOMOBILES: 1894-1896.**

PARKER, Alton Brooks (1852-), American jurist. Justice of the supreme court of New York, 1886-1889; chief justice of the New York court of appeals, 1898-1904; Democratic candidate for president, 1904; temporary chairman of Democratic convention, 1912. See **U.S.A.: 1904 (May-November)**; 1912: Woodrow Wilson and the election.

PARKER, Horatio William (1863-1919), American composer. Studied with Emery and Chadwick, Boston, and subsequently with Rheinberger and Abel in Munich; produced the oratorio "Hora Novissima," 1893; became dean of music, Yale University, 1894; won a prize for his operas "Mona" produced, 1912, and "Fairylend," 1915;

wrote the oratorio "Morven and the Grail," 1915.—See also *MUSIC: Modern: 1774-1908*.

PARKER, Sir Hyde (1739-1807), British admiral. Served in the American Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779: War carried into the south.

PARKER, John Milliken (1863-), American political leader. Candidate of the Progressive party for the vice presidency of the United States, 1916. See U.S.A.: 1916 (February-November).

PARKER, Matthew (1504-1575), archbishop of Canterbury, 1559-1575. See *LIBRARIES: Modern: England, etc.*; Bodleian library.

PARKER, Theodore (1810-1860), American clergyman and abolitionist. See U.S.A.: 1850 (March).

PARKES, Sir Henry (1815-1896), Australian statesman. Premier of Australia, 1872-1891. See *NEW SOUTH WALES: 1848-1918*.

PARKHURST, Charles Henry (1842-), American clergyman and social reformer. Became president of the Society for the Prevention of Crime, 1891; exposed corruption of the New York police department and the Tammany administration, 1894. See *NEW YORK CITY: 1894-1895*.

PARKMAN, Francis (1823-1893), American historian. See *HISTORY: 30; 32*.

PARLAMENTO, Florence. See *FLORENCE: 1250-1293; BALIA OF FLORENCE*.

PARLEMENT OF PARIS.—The Parlement of Paris was a judicial body meeting in Paris when called by the king to register his edicts. It was never a legislative body. Other parlements on the model of that of Paris were instituted in the provincial towns of France. "The Parlements were in no sense representative. They were nominees of the Crown; and as high courts of justice, they proved firm friends to prerogative. [See *COURTS: France: Lack of uniformity*.] . . . Having no commission from the king, nor from the people, . . . their pretensions were naturally resisted."—T. E. May, *Democracy in Europe*, p. 94.—"When the Carolingian Monarchy had given place, first to Anarchy and then to Feudalism, the malleus, and the Champs de Mai, and (except in some southern cities) the municipal curiæ also disappeared. But in their stead there came into existence the feudal courts. Each tenant in capite of the crown held within his fief a Parlement of his own free vassals. . . . There was administered the seigneur's 'justice,' whether haute, moyenne, or basse. There were discussed all questions immediately affecting the seigneurie or the tenants of it. There especially were adopted all general regulations which the exigencies of the lordship were supposed to dictate, and especially all such as related to the raising *tailles* or other imposts. What was thus done on a small scale in a minor fief, was also done, though on a larger scale, in each of the feudal provinces, and on a scale yet more extensive in the court or Parlement holden by the king as a seigneur of the royal domain. . . . [When Philip Augustus went to the Holy Land, he provided for the decision of complaints against officers of the crown by directing the queen-mother and the archbishop of Rheims, who acted as regents, to hold an annual assembly of the greater barons.] This practice had become habitual by the time of Louis I. For the confirmation and improvement of it, that monarch ordered that, before the day of any such assemblage, citations should be issued, commanding the attendance, not, as before, of the greater barons exclusively, but of twenty-four members of the royal council or Parlement. Of those twenty-four, three only were to be great barons, three were to be bishops, and the remaining eighteen were to be knights. But as these members of the royal council

did not appear to St. Louis to possess all the qualifications requisite for the right discharge of the judicial office, he directed that thirty-seven other persons should be associated to them. Of those associates, seventeen were to be clerks in holy orders, and twenty *légistes*, that is, men bred to the study of the law. The function assigned to the *légistes* was that of drawing up in proper form the decrees and other written acts of the collective body. To this body, when thus constituted, was given the distinctive title of the Parlement of Paris."

—J. Stephen, *Lectures on the history of France*, lecture 8.—See also *BASOCHIE*.

1461-1483.—Offices become hereditary.—**Bed of justice.**—"From the time of Louis XI [1461-1483] they (the members of Parlement) always bought their official posts. More and more frequently they bequeathed them to their sons, thus forming magisterial dynasties, a legal nobility."—A. Tilley, *Modern France*, p. 12.—During the reigns of weak kings, the Parlement tried to obtain the power of discussing the edicts; under strong kings they signed without discussion. "Sometimes Parlement advanced very high pretensions. Its members were, they said, the real though unelected representatives of the Nation—the States General in Miniature. At other times they traced back their origin to the King's "Court," recalled its independent character in feudal times, and declared themselves equal in authority to the king. The view taken by the kings . . . was very different. They regarded the registration as a mere useful form. If the Parlement hesitated about registering, they first issued orders for immediate registration; if there was further resistance they went down themselves, held a session that was called a 'bed of justice' [see *BED OF JUSTICE*] from the throne on which the king sat, and enforced registration."—A. J. Grant, *French monarchy*, v. 1, p. 10.

1516.—Ordered by Francis I to register his concordat with the pope. See *FRANCE: 1515-1518*.

1527-1641.—Pretensions limited by Francis I, Henry of Navarre, and Richelieu.—In 1527 Francis I forbade Parlement to meddle with the administration. "Henry IV [1589-1610], knew well how to manage this company of magistrates, and manage them he did, firmly and sensibly. When they refused to register the Edict of Nantes, he summoned to the Louvre deputies from all the Chambers. 'What I have done,' he said, 'is for the good of peace. I speak to you not in royal robe, or with sword and cape, but as a father of his family conversing freely with his children. I ask you to register the edict I have granted the Protestants. God has chosen to give me this kingdom, which is mine by birth and conquest. You, gentlemen of Parliament, would not be in your seats but for me. If obedience was due to my predecessors, it is much more due to me.' When a father addresses his children in such terms, he is generally obeyed. The edict was speedily registered. With Richelieu and the minority of Louis XIII, came again stormy times. In 1615 the Parliament without the royal order, dared to summon princes, dukes, peers and high officials to deliberate upon the needs of the state, and the relief of the people. 'We,' it said, 'hold the place in council of the princes and barons, who, from time immemorial were near the person of the king.' This assumption Richelieu constantly fought against. He would not allow the pretension of magistrates to meddle in affairs of State. There was constant altercation between the king and Richelieu on the one side and Parliament on the other, whether about point of jurisdiction or the registration of edicts respecting finances. On one of these occasions the entire

Parliament was ordered to the Louvre, and there with bare heads and on bended knees was compelled to supplicate the king's forgiveness. This humiliating experience was not sufficient to restrain their assertions of right and authority and the struggles continued for ten years longer, when in 1641 the king issued an edict prohibiting the Parliament from any interference in affairs of State and administration, the preamble of which is as formal a declaration of absolute power as any ever promulgated by Louis XIV. The Cardinal had at last gained the victory. The attempts of Parliament at independence during the wars of the Fronde, only demonstrated how futile was its authority, and how completely was it the tool of the uppermost faction."—J. M. Robinson *Study of the Parliament of Paris*, pp. 38-39.

1643-1714.—Will of Louis XIII revoked.—Ignored by Louis XIV.—Bull Unigenitus registered.—In 1643, on the death of Louis XIII, Parliament set aside his will at the request of the queen, Ann of Austria. In 1648 it failed in its attempt to abolish intendants. In this quarrel Paris took the part of the Parlement but Louis XIV punished it by ignoring it until the end of his long reign. "The two great questions with which the Parliaments are identified during the 18th century, are the controversies concerning the papal bull 'Unigenitus' and the expulsion of the Jesuits. The long quarrel between the Jansenists and the Jesuits was fanned into fresh flame by the final publication of the Pope's bull, which quoted one hundred and one propositions from the work of Père Quesnel and condemned them as heretical. The bull Unigenitus appeared Sept. 8, 1713, and was registered by the express wish of Louis XIV, Feb. 14, 1714. The dying king, troubled and alarmed by discussions he deemed hurtful to true religion, desired to see the kingdom at peace before his death; but for fifty years the bull Unigenitus was a fruitful cause of dispute and resistance between Parliament and the Church, while the court party veered from one side to another as selfish interest dictated."—J. M. Robinson, *Study of the Parliament of Paris*, p. 41.

1756.—Forbidden by Louis XIV to decree administration of sacraments.—Suppression of chambers of inquiry. See FRANCE: 1756-1759.

1763-1770.—Power revived.—"After the disastrous Peace of Paris, 1763, the Parlement had increased its pretensions. It was aided by the blow which the Seven Years War had inflicted upon the royal power, by the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1764—a great triumph for Parlement—by the loss of influence by the papacy, and by the opinion of Voltaire and other sceptical writers. Not that Voltaire supported the Parlement; on the contrary he hated that body as being opposed to toleration and reform. It burnt the books of free thinkers, it had an annual procession in honor of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, it fought against the issue of loans upon interest, it resisted the practice of inoculation. Its judicial posts could be purchased. But as being the outspoken opponent of despotism and the Jesuits, it acquired a popularity which continued till the outbreak of the Revolution."—A. Hassall, *France, Medieval and modern*, p. 186.—This popularity led Parlement to contend that edicts registered against its will were invalid. In 1770 it flatly refused to register an edict of Louis XV, preferring to resign instead.

1770-1791.—Resignation changed to exile by Louis XV.—Recalled by Louis XVI.—Given "permanent vacation" by States-General.—"On December 10 [1770] the whole of the members resigned: 'it remained only for them to perish along with the laws.' The king [Louis XV] ordered them

to return, but in vain; the course of Justice was suspended. . . . On the night of January 19, 1771, musketeers awoke all the members of Parlement and demanded a plain answer of Yes or No to the question whether they were willing to re-enter the service of the king. Most answered resolutely No; those who had answered Yes, some thirty five, withdrew their consent next day. All were sent by lettres de cachet to different places of exile."—A. J. Grant, *French monarchy*, v. 2, p. 250.—"By the advice of Chancellor Maupeou, the king took the extreme step of suppressing altogether the ancient Parliaments of the realm, both in the capital and the provinces. To take their place six new tribunals were instituted Feb. 23, 1771, under the name of conseils-supérieurs, in the towns of Arras, Blois, Châlons-sur-Marne, Clermont, Lyons, and Poitiers, the central court of justice being still maintained at Paris. This great organic change was not accomplished without obstinate resistance on the part of the Parliaments and expostulations even from the princes of the blood; but the great mass of the people looked on indifferently. The privileges and immunities of the Parliaments had lost them their hold upon the third estate, and their later contentions with the crown were regarded as so many selfish struggles for their own aggrandizement. To recommend the new courts to public favor, Maupeou announced that justice would now be administered free of expense, and the sale of offices was forbidden. When the new king ascended the throne he reëstablished the Parliaments; but they had learned no wisdom from their exile. After fourteen years, Louis XVI found himself in the same situation as the king, his grandsire, facing refractory counselors. They continued to make angry remonstrances about registering money loans, and the king was obliged to use the despotic measure of a Bed of Justice. The Parliament doubtless thought it was conciliating public opinion, which was averse to new taxes, but the needs of the Treasury were urgent and its demands continued. [See FRANCE: 1774-1788.] Finally the Parliament of Paris declared that according to the ancient constitution of France, the establishment of new imposts belonged only to the States-General. It little anticipated that this cry meant its own destruction. The States-General, transformed into the Constituent Assembly, had scarcely existed four months when the great tribunals ceased to be. Nov. 3, 1789, Alexander Lameth moved the abolition of the Parliaments. 'They are now in vacation,' objected some one. 'So much the better,' shouted Mirabeau, 'Let them remain there; they will pass from sleep to death, and there will be no return.' The decree, voted with cries of joy by the majority, declared that the Parliaments should be in perpetual vacation. Temporary courts were at once organized, and in September, 1791, new judicial organizations were framed. Thus the Parliaments of France passed out of history."—J. M. Robinson, *Study of the Parliament of Paris*, pp. 44-45.—See also FRANCE: 1787-1789.

PARLIAMENT: Australian. See AUSTRALIA: 1901 (January); (May); 1909 (May-June); AUSTRALIA, CONSTITUTION OF.

Austrian. See AUSTRIA: 1860; 1893-1900; 1906-1909.

Austro-Hungarian. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1867; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, CONSTITUTION OF.

Belgian. See BELGIUM, CONSTITUTION OF: Title III.

Canadian. See CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1867; 1886.

Czecho-Slovakian. See CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: 1918-1920: Provisional constitution.

English: Early stages of its evolution, House of Lords and House of Commons.—Witenagemot.—Great Council.—Curia Regis.—The origin of the English Parliament lies partly in the free assemblies of Germanic peoples, partly in the Witenagemot of the Anglo-Saxons, and partly in the Great Council and Curia Regis of William I. The House of Lords has its origin in the great Council. (For the specific origin of the House of Commons see below: 1215-1343.) The Witenagemot was not a representative gathering in the modern sense. "Associated with the king in the general government was an assembly of the chief men of the state, lay and clerical. The Anglo-Saxons called this assembly the Witenagemot, the court of the wise men, and the name undoubtedly indicates the principle of its composition. Its membership was not official nor designated in any way that we should call constitutional in the modern sense. No officer nor individual possessed a right to attend. It was not a representative assembly, nor were the members elected. As nearly as we can tell the king determined what persons should attend any given meeting, but it seems probable that his choice was not always free. . . . That the witen consciously represented the nation in any action which it took is highly improbable. . . . [Under William I the place of the Witenagemot was taken by the Great Council and the Curia Regis. The Great Council consisted of the king and his tenants in chief. At its meetings all matters relating to his rule in England and Normandy were discussed, oaths of allegiance to him were given, and offenders of rank were punished. This Great Council is the origin of the present House of Lords. The Curia Regis was a smaller and more permanent council.] It is necessary to understand as clearly as possible the difficult fact that to the men who were acting in it, the great and the small council were identical in everything except size. The small council was the active body in the intervals between the meetings of the great council, but it was not a committee of the great council. . . . In fact the steady and permanent institution by which, day by day, the business of the Anglo-Norman state was operated and supervised was the small council. . . . The constitutional history of the reign of William I falls naturally into two divisions; the changes which the Conqueror brought about, and the institutions which remained practically unchanged. . . . In the field of the general government of the State, two changes out-weigh all others in importance; the substitution of a stronger royal power for the Saxon, and the introduction of political feudalism. In the construction and machinery of the Norman state no normal and constitutional way was provided by which a will opposed to the king's could act or even express itself. Feudal law did provide a way . . . but hardly one which we should call constitutional. It implied rebellion and civil war as its means of operation and the first step towards modern constitutional government in Magna Carta a hundred and fifty years after the Conquest was to invent a method of giving effect to a will opposed to the king's without civil war. Meanwhile the state was the king quite as truly as in the France of Louis XIV. . . . If the king was strong and ruled firmly the state was in good order. If he was weak or vacillating it fell to pieces. . . . Even the great council, the national assembly existed to do his business, not the nation's; it had no right of initiative except by petition; its decisions were his decisions and invalid if he did not make them his."—G. B. Adams, *Constitutional history of England*, pp. 14-15, 69, 51, 53, 54.

1215-1343.—Influence of Magna Carta on the

growth of Parliament.—Simon de Montfort.—Model Parliament.—"If we regard it as belonging to the year 1215 and disregard what it has come to mean to later times, Magna Carta was in substance a feudal document. . . . Modern scholars have failed to find in it any of the great principles or institutions of English liberty on which we especially pride ourselves: Parliament, consent to taxation, the jury trial, Habeas Corpus; and they have therefore said that the influence of Magna Carta in the growth of the English constitution and of English liberty has been greatly overstated. The conclusion does not follow from the premises. None of the principles named is in the charter, and yet it was by a very true instinct that the English nation recognized for centuries that the Great Charter was the palladium of their liberties, and in a very right sense it was actually the beginning of the English constitution considered as limited monarchy. . . . Scholars have not yet come to an agreement among themselves as to the source from which the idea or the practice of representation was derived, nor can we say that they were looked upon at the close of the thirteenth century with anything like our modern clearness of understanding. They were understood, however, clearly enough to be consciously applied in the step that was taken, and from that beginning they have grown through uninterrupted experience into our present-day conception of representative government. . . . The old great Council remained unchanged. For a long time it still acted now and then alone as Parliament, and for a longer time yet traces of its independent powers and functions survived. The new elements were grouped around it, not organically absorbed into it changing its nature. It still exists in fact, almost unchanged, in the present House of Lords. Before very long these new elements drew off by themselves into a separate 'House,' the House of Commons, leaving the old great Council by itself as the other house of the new Parliament. The surviving great Council, however, changed in one respect. It was no longer in the strict sense a feudal body. Its members were descendants of the feudal barons; the hereditary feature remained; their service was based in form upon the old service, but no one any longer thought of it as a return for land and all ideas about it that were really feudal died out, were dying out in England in general at that time, except in deductions that were merely legal or ceremonial. The new elements were first introduced into the old Council not in conformity to any theory that was then held, nor with any intention of permanent policy. The step was first taken to serve an immediate practical end and implied no pledge nor even desire on anyone's part that the experiment should be repeated. Deputies from the English counties were summoned to a meeting of the Council, in this case the small Council, in 1254, to report the feeling of the counties about a tax which the government desired to lay. In the process by which this introduction was made, a precedent was exactly followed which had long been in use when the Council acting as a court desired a report from a county court upon their action in some case which had been before them."—G. B. Adams, *Outline sketch of English constitutional history*, pp. 45, 59-60.—"In January, 1265, Simon gathered his second Parliament. It was here that the great constitutional advance was made with which his name is especially connected; for to this assembly were called not only two knights from each shire, but also, practically for the first time, two citizens or burgesses from twenty-one cities or boroughs mentioned individually by name. It is for this reason that *Simon de Montfort has been*

styled the creator of the House of Commons. He is, however, scarcely entitled to the name."—D. J. Medley, *Student's manual of English constitutional history*, p. 144.—"The house of commons was not, in fact, created either by Simon de Montfort or by Edward I. Representatives of shires, cities, and boroughs attended the king's court at Westminster (as early as 1213) for judicial and financial purposes before either Simon or Edward issued their famous writs. They came, indeed, sporadically and not as a body of men; but their organization into a 'house' of commons required a great deal more than the simultaneous summons to shires and boroughs issued by Simon and Edward. It grew up during the fourteenth century, and its growth is slow and obscure. . . . In 1343 there is fuller evidence of the activity of the commons: not only is their advice asked, and articles drafted by the lords submitted for their consent, but they add provisions of their own, and the ensuing statutes are said to have been 'ordained' by *la commune* as well as by the king and the peers. . . . Commons is a form of 'communes' or 'communities' and as early as the 14th century, the official handbook to parliament lays it down that the king can hold a parliament with the 'community' of his realm although no bishop, earl or baron attends; but that without the 'community' no parliament can be held, though bishops, earls and barons, and all their peers are present with the king."—A. F. Pollard, *Evolution of Parliament*, pp. 113, 243, 12.—See also WITEN-AGEMOT; ENGLAND: 1216-1272; KNIGHTS OF THE SHIRE.

1244.—Earliest use of the name.—In 1244, "as had happened just one hundred years previously in France, the name 'parliamentum' occurs for the first time [in England] (Chron. Dunst., 1244; Matth. Paris, 1246), and curiously enough, Henry III. himself, in a writ addressed to the Sheriff of Northampton, designates with this term the assembly which originated the Magna Charta: 'Parliamentum Runemede, quod fuit inter Dom. Joh., Regem patrem nostrum et barones suos Anglie' (Rot. Claus., 28 Hen. III). The name 'parliament' now occurs more frequently, but does not supplant the more indefinite terms 'concilium,' 'colloquium,' etc."—R. Gneist, *History of the English constitution*, v. 1, ch. 19, and foot-note, 2a.—"The name given to these sessions of Council [the national councils of the 12th century] was often expressed by the Latin 'colloquium': and it is by no means unlikely that the name of Parliament, which is used as early as 1175 by Jordan Fantosme, may have been in common use. But of this we have no distinct instance in the Latin Chroniclers for some years further, although when the term comes into use it is applied retrospectively."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 13, sect. 159.

1258.—The Mad Parliament.—An English Parliament, or Great Council, assembled at Oxford 1258, so-called by the party of King Henry III from whom it extorted an important reorganization of the government, with much curtailment of the royal power.—Based on W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 2, ch. 14, sect. 176.—See also ENGLAND: 1216-1272.

1264.—Simon de Montfort's Parliament. See ENGLAND: 1216-1272.

1275-1295.—Development under Edward I. See ENGLAND: 1275-1295.

1376.—The Good Parliament.—The English parliament of 1376 was called the Good Parliament; although most of the good work it undertook to do was undone by its successor.—Based on W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 2, ch. 16.

1388.—The Wonderful Parliament.—In 1387, King Richard II was compelled by a great armed demonstration, headed by five powerful nobles, to discard his obnoxious favorites and advisers, and to summon a Parliament for dealing with the offenses alleged against them. "The doings of this Parliament [which came together in February, 1388] are without a parallel in English history,—so much so that the name 'Wonderful Parliament' came afterwards to be applied to it. With equal truth it was also called 'the Merciless Parliament.'" It was occupied for four months in the impeachment and trial of ministers, judges, officers of the courts, and other persons, bringing a large number to the block.—J. Gairdner, *Houses of Lancaster and York*, ch. 2, sect. 5.

ALSO IN: C. H. Pearson, *English history in the fourteenth century*, ch. 11.

1404.—The Unlearned Parliament.—"This assembly [1404, reign of Edward IV] acquired its ominous name from the fact that in the writ of summons the king, acting upon the ordinance issued by Edward III in 1372, directed that no lawyers should be returned as members. He had complained more than once that the members of the House of Commons spent more time on private suits than on public business."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 3, ch. 18, sect. 634.

1413-1422.—First acquisition of Privilege. See ENGLAND: 1413-1422.

1425.—The Parliament of Bats.—The English Parliament of 1425-1426 was so-called because of the quarrels in it between the parties of Duke Humfrey, of Gloucester, and of his uncle, Bishop Beaufort.

1471-1485.—Depression under the Yorkist kings. See ENGLAND: 1471-1485.

1558-1603.—Under Queen Elizabeth. See ENGLAND: 1558-1603.

1614.—The Addled Parliament.—In 1614, James I called a Parliament which certain obsequious members promised to manage for him and make docile to his royal will and pleasure. This fact leaked out, and the angry Parliament was dissolved in haste before it had done any business. "The humour of the time christened this futile Parliament 'The Addled Parliament.'"—J. F. Bright, *History of England*, period 2, p. 509.

1625.—Gain of power during reign of James I. See ENGLAND: 1625.

1625-1628.—Opposition to Charles I. See ENGLAND: 1625-1628.

1629.—Question of tonnage and poundage. See ENGLAND: 1629.

1640.—The Short Parliament. See ENGLAND: 1640.

1640.—The Long Parliament. See ENGLAND: 1640-1641.

1641.—Grand remonstrance against Charles I. See GRAND REMONSTRANCE; ENGLAND: 1641 (November).

1641-1664.—Triennial Acts.—In 1641 an act was passed which provided for the election of a Parliament in three years after any dissolution, if none should have been regularly summoned. In 1664 this act was repealed, but with a proviso that no Parliament should exist longer than three years.—G. B. Smith, *History of English Parliament*, v. 1, ch. 2.

1642.—Favored by southern and eastern sections of England in its struggle against Charles I. See ENGLAND: 1642 (August-September).

1643-1646.—Struggle with Divines. See WESTMINSTER ASSEMBLY.

1648.—The Rump. See ENGLAND: 1648 (November-December).

1649.—Temporary abolition of the House of Peers. See ENGLAND: 1649 (February).

1651-1653.—Attempt of Cromwell to break Rump Parliament. See ENGLAND: 1651-1653.

1653.—Instrument of government of Oliver Cromwell. See INSTRUMENT OF GOVERNMENT.

1653.—The Barebones, or Little Parliament. See ENGLAND: 1653 (April-December).

1656-1658.—Cromwell's Protectorate Parliament.—Humble Petition and Advice. See ENGLAND: 1654-1658.

1659.—The Rump restored. See ENGLAND: 1658-1660.

1660-1740.—Rise and development of the cabinet as an organ of parliamentary government. See CABINET: English.

1693.—Triennial Bill.—In 1693, a bill which passed both Houses, despite the opposition of King William, provided that the Parliament then sitting should cease to exist on the next Lady Day, and that no future Parliament should last longer than three years. The king refused his assent to the enactment; but when a similar bill was passed the next year he suffered it to become a law.—Based on H. Hallam, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 3, ch. 15.

1703.—Aylesbury election case. See ENGLAND: 1703.

1707.—Becomes Parliament of Great Britain.—Representation of Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 1707.

1714-1721.—Growing power under Walpole. See ENGLAND: 1714-1721.

1716.—Septennial Act. See ENGLAND: 1716.

1768-1774.—Struggle with John Wilkes and Middlesex elections. See ENGLAND: 1768-1774.

1771.—Last struggle against the press.—Freedom of reporting secured. See ENGLAND: 1771.

1797.—Defeat of first reform measure. See ENGLAND: 1797.

1816-1820.—Agitation for reform. See ENGLAND: 1816-1820.

1830.—State of unreformed representation. See ENGLAND: 1830.

1832.—First reform of representation. See ENGLAND: 1830-1832.

1854.—Act to prevent corrupt practices at elections. See CORRUPT AND ILLEGAL PRACTICES AT ELECTIONS: Great Britain.

1867.—Second Reform Bill. See ENGLAND: 1865-1868.

1882-1888.—Closure rule and "guillotine."—"The Government were obliged to resort to expedients, which, then and thereafter, imposed grave restrictions on the liberty of debate in the House of Commons. Mr. Gladstone's closure rule of 1882 had proved a failure. It had been directed against a small minority, and had placed on the Chair the initiative in bringing it into operation. Only when it appeared to the Speaker or Chairman to be the 'evident sense of the House' that the question should be put was he so to inform the House, and even then the closure was not in ordinary cases to be applied unless supported by at least 200 members. As a consequence of these restrictions the closure rule of 1882 was only twice applied during the five years of its existence, and in 1887, before proceeding with the Prevention of Crimes Bill, the Conservative Government resolved materially to strengthen it. The Irish party was twice as numerous as in the Parliament of 1880, and was now reinforced by the whole of the regular Opposition. Accordingly a new closure rule, passed after a debate extending over fourteen sittings, transferred the initiative from the Chair to the House by dispensing with the necessity of a declaration from the

Chair of the sense of the House before the closure could be moved. In the following year the number of members voting for the closure before it could be carried was reduced from 200 to 100. . . . [Later came] the process, afterwards nicknamed the 'guillotine,' and destined to be used with increasing frequency in later years. When used as an exceptional measure of necessity its application was irrational in practice, because the amount of time given to discussion of clauses in bills varied with the order in which they were printed, without reference to their importance; and essential matters, such as the power given by the bill of 1887 to the Irish Executive to proclaim an association as unlawful, were undiscussed; but when the system was methodised and the compartments into which bills were divided for the purposes of closure were carefully selected with the object of securing that no important point should escape the attention of the House, it became much less open to objections."—F. Holland, T. E. May, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 3, pp. 178-9.

1883.—Act to prevent corrupt and illegal practices at elections. See ENGLAND: 1883.

1884-1885.—Third Reform Bill (text and comment). See ENGLAND: 1884-1885.

1906.—Legislative powers of House of Lords restricted. See ENGLAND: 1906 (April-December).

1907-1908.—Proposals to reform constitution of House of Lords. See ENGLAND: 1907-1908.

1909.—Question of supremacy of two houses raised over Finance Bill. See ENGLAND: 1909 (April-December); BUDGET.

1910.—Question of veto power of House of Lords. See ENGLAND: 1910.

1911.—Parliament Act.—"Since 1885 in everything except a few points, less important practically than theoretically, England has been a democracy. It is indeed fair to say that, so far as the immediate influence of public opinion upon government policy is concerned, England has been for a generation more democratic than the United States. The cabinet system of government, the ministry responsible to the House of Commons, losing office when it loses its majority, provides a way by which almost automatically, without waiting for a future election day, a change of national judgment is carried out in a change of government policy, provided always that opinion changes in the House of Commons with the change of opinion outside. It has done so certainly in the past and may be expected to do so in the future. As a further step in the line of development which we are now following, the progress of the constitution towards democracy, the enactment of the Parliament Bill of 1911 should not be overlooked."—G. B. Adams, *Outline sketch of English constitutional history*, p. 194.—"In the Middle Ages the Commons only appeared in Parliament with the Speaker at their head and save for his orations they were dumb. To-day when men talk of Parliament, in nine cases out of ten they are thinking of the House of Commons and to say that the House of Commons yields nine tenths of the sovereignty of Parliament is an under rather than an overstatement of the truth."—A. F. Pollard, *Evolution of Parliament*, p. 316.—"The Parliament Act asserts the exclusive power of the House of Commons. [See ENGLAND: 1911 (August 18).] . . . First is the indignant protest of the House of Commons on December 2, 1909, against the action of the Lords in reserving the finance bill for a vote by the people in a general election, as 'a breach of the Constitution.' In this, passing by the important admissions of Lord Balfour of Burleigh in 1909, of Mr. Balfour in 1908, 1907, and 1906, and of Lord Salisbury in 1895, the House

of Commons followed the precedent of their own resolutions of July 6, 1860. Then they had voted that their control over taxation and supply was exclusive as to 'matter, manner, measure, and time.' Earlier in 1671 and 1678 the Commons had passed the well-known resolutions against the power of the House of Lords to alter aids and supplies which 'are the sole gift of the Commons.' The preamble of a supply bill had been fixed in 1628 stating the intention of the 'Commons' to 'give and grant' the 'duties' provided by the bill. It is true that the House of Lords had never given up the merely legal power to amend or reject a finance bill. It is true that by their standing order of 1702 they had protested against 'tacking' that is 'annexing' to a finance bill matter 'which is foreign to and different from the matter of the said Bills of Aid or Supply' as 'unparliamentary,' and tending 'to the destruction of the constitution.' And it is true that with regard to many separate bills involving directly or indirectly a financial charge there is prior to 1860 a long record of amendment, delay or rejection on the part of the House of Lords, in spite of the general principle already laid down by the House of Commons. But analysis of the character of these actions by the Lords, appreciation of the political as well as of the constitutional circumstances involved, and lastly the realization that for the bulk of those precedents men must turn to a period when the executive was not exclusively or even primarily dependent on or responsible to the House of Commons—all of these considerations do not materially or constitutionally weaken the strength of the convention which has decreed to the Commons the control over finance. The Parliament Act in this respect provides in statutory form for restoration of the Constitution to a position beyond the reach of a hostile majority in the House of Lords."—A. L. P. Dennis, *Parliament Act of 1911* (*American Political Science Review*, May, 1912, p. 209-211).—The provision enabling the Commons to pass any bill over the veto of the Lords is a different matter. The Commons alone, if sufficiently unanimous can entirely determine the course of legislation. "In a democratic community the ideal constitution provides for great stability in fundamental laws and great facility for change in everyday administration and legislation. In the past the British constitution has possessed these qualities. Sovereign power was concentrated in the hands of Parliament, which could therefore act with great speed and decision when so minded. But security was provided against revolutionary change by an independent second chamber, constituted partly on the hereditary principle and partly by nomination of the government of the day, and unalterably conservative in character. This security has now been destroyed, and it is certain that it will never be restored in its old form. The alternative most usually put forward is the restoration of the veto power to a reformed second chamber. Experience, however, all over the world shows that it is extraordinarily difficult to find any method of constituting a satisfactory second chamber with coördinate powers to those of the Lower House. . . . It either becomes the creature of one party, in which case its decisions are not really independent, or it becomes simply another reflection of the popular will, competing for power with the lower house, but not really representing an independent point of view. The truth of the matter would seem to be that in a modern democracy it is the electorate itself which must perform the most important duty of the second chamber, and be alike the security against revolutionary change by temporary party majorities and the authority which

must secure the peaceful acceptance by minorities of important measures of constitutional reform."—*Parliament Act* (*Round Table*, Dec., 1916, pp. 20-21).—The Parliament Act "did away in law with the power formerly possessed by the House of Lords of absolute veto of popular measures which they had already lost in theory. There was no doubt natural reluctance to have the powerlessness of the peers so bluntly stated in statute terms, but the law really did not more than remove all possibility of a serious collision between the two houses which came so near to occurring more than once in the nineteenth century. In one particular the Parliament Bill is a distinct departure from the ordinary English practice. It is the embodiment of a constitutional principle in a statute; that is, the principle is legalized in definite words which state exactly what shall and what shall not be, an approach on a single point towards a written constitution. In this respect it is in line with the Bill of Rights of 1689 and with some provisions of the Act of Settlement in 1701, rather than with the general trend of English history, which has left the constitution to be expressed in unwritten custom and convention. But a written constitution is not out of harmony with English history, as is shown by the acts mentioned and by other legislation in earlier history which has become obsolete. The reason why the English constitution is unwritten is not because there is any especial political virtue about that form of constitution which was foreseen and chosen. The unwritten constitution was as little intended as a Parliament of two houses. It was an accident of the situation and was due to the fact that the work which England was doing in constitution making was new to human experience. The constitutional future could not be foreseen nor planned in detail, nor the needs of government provided for in advance, because this road had never been traveled before. The constitution was slowly made, not according to any theoretical ideal, but by finding a practical solution for every problem as it arose. The result in each case was rather a way of doing things than a formal provision, though it might be and often was afterwards put into statute form as a single detail."—G. B. Adams, *Outline sketch of English constitutional history*, pp. 194-195.

1911-1921.—Loss of power to cabinet and electorate.—From the time of the 1911 Parliament Act, "scrutiny reveals the fact that, so far as the actual exercise of its powers is concerned, Parliament has lost, and is losing, on the one side to the cabinet, and on the other to the electorate. For the moment there is something shocking in this discovery; we had been accustomed to think of Parliament as the great organ of popular government, and a diminution of the powers which it wields suggests a back-set for democracy. But reassurance comes when we reflect that loss of power to the cabinet is not necessarily inconsistent with popular government, since the cabinet is made up largely of elected members of Parliament, and is responsible to the House of Commons; while, of course, a loss to the electorate means throwing power back directly into the hands of the people."—F. A. Ogg and C. A. Beard, *National governments and the World War*, p. 250.

1916.—Relations between cabinet and House of Commons.—As the World War progressed the House of Commons was found too unwieldy a body for discussion of war plans, and the cabinet was called more frequently. Even then it was difficult to get members together quickly enough and by 1916 only a few important cabinet ministers were summoned to discuss matters with the prime min-

ister. This inner cabinet had all the facts of the war given to them and they made decisions which were rarely questioned by Parliament. In fact Parliament's work dwindled into that of passing the decisions and desires of this body into law. In this way "business of the highest importance was transacted with the utmost celerity. Acts of Parliament of enormous scope were often passed in a single day, which in ordinary times would have been wrangled over for months. . . . Another novel experience was the two Houses in secret session for the consideration of War measures. The first of these sessions was held on April 25, 1916, when the Government laid before Commons and Lords in their respective Chambers the proposals for the compulsory recruiting of men for the armies in the field. . . . Parliament was found capable of adapting itself, in all respects, to the national needs in that roughest and most perilous passage which this country has encountered in its voyage through time."—M. MacDonald, *Pageant of Parliament*, v. 2, pp. 191, 194, 196.

1918.—**Franchise Act.**—**Elections.**—**Triumph of coalitionists.** See ENGLAND: 1918: Representation of the People Act; 1918 (December).

1919-1922.—**Recovery of power.**—Since the armistice in 1918, Parliament has recovered all the rights and privileges she allowed to pass into abeyance during the World War.

1922.—**House of Lords' refusal to admit women.** See ENGLAND: 1922 (May-June).

See also BICAMERAL SYSTEM; BLACK ROD; BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial federation: Authority of imperial parliament; CABINET: English; Cabinet system of government; CHILTERN HUNDREDS; COMMON LAW; GANGWAY; PRIVY COUNCIL; RECALL; SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 500-1295; TAXATION: Parliamentary taxation in England.

ALSO IN: W. Bagehot, *English constitution*.—A. Dean, *British constitution*.—A. V. Dicey, *Law of the constitution*.—G. L. Dickerson, *Development of Parliament during the nineteenth century*.—H. Graham, *Mother of parliaments*.—C. Ilbert, *Legislative methods and forms*.—G. H. Jennings, *Anecdotal history of the British Parliament*.—S. Low, *Governance of England*.—A. L. Lowell, *Government of England*.—G. W. Prothero, *Life of Simon de Montfort*.—A. Reid, *House of Lords question*.—B. C. Skottowe, *Short history of Parliament*.—D. Symes, *Representative government in England*.—E. Fischel, *English constitution*.—F. W. Maillard, *Constitutional history of England*.—W. R. Anson, *Law and custom of the constitution*.—W. S. McKechnie, *New democracy and the constitution*.—E. Barker, *Origin and future of Parliament* (*Edinburgh Review*, July, 1921).—H. Belloc, *House of Commons and monarchy*.—M. MacDonald, *Pageant of Parliament*.—A. Mackintosh, *From Gladstone to Lloyd George*.—C. Wittke, *History of English parliamentary privilege*.

German. See DIET.

Irish. See IRELAND: 1541-1555; 1778-1782; 1912-1914; 1918; 1919; 1921; 1921 (May-June).

Polish. See POLAND: 1569; POLAND, CONSTITUTION OF.

Russian. See DUMA.

Scottish. See SCOTLAND: 1326-1603; 1660-1666.

South African. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: Constitution.

Spanish. See CORTES.

See also CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.

PARLIAMENT, New Houses of. See WESTMINSTER PALACE.

PARLIAMENT ACT England. See PARLIAMENT: English: 1911.

PARLIAMENT OF CANADA ACT (1875). See CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1875.

PARLIAMENT OF ITALIAN FREE CITIES. See ITALY: 1055-1152.

PARMA, Alexander Farnese, Duke of. See FARNESE, ALEXANDER.

PARMA, capital of the province of the same name, in northern Italy, in the valley of the Po. In 1921 it had a population of 58,255.

1077-1115.—In dominions of the Countess Matilda. See PAPACY: 1077-1102.

1339-1349.—Bought by Visconti of Milan. See MILAN: 1277-1447.

1513.—Conquest by Pope Julius II. See ITALY: 1510-1513; PAPACY: 1471-1515.

1515.—Reannexed to Milanese and acquired by France. See FRANCE: 1515-1518.

1521.—Retaken by the pope. See FRANCE: 1520-1523.

1545-1592.—Alienation from the Holy See and erection, with Placentia, into a duchy, for the House of Farnese.—"Paul III was the last of those ambitious popes who rendered the interests of the holy see subordinate to the aggrandizement of their families. The designs of Paul, himself the representative of the noble Roman house of Farnese, were ultimately successful; since, although partially defeated during his life, they led to the establishment of his descendants on the throne of Parma and Placentia for nearly 200 years. . . . He gained the consent of the sacred college to alienate those states from the holy see in 1545, that he might erect them into a duchy for his natural son, Pietro Luigi Farnese; and the Emperor Charles V. had already, some years before, to secure the support of the papacy against France, bestowed the hand of his natural daughter, Margaret, widow of Alessandro de' Medici, upon Ottavio, son of Pietro Luigi, and grandson of Paul III. Notwithstanding this measure, Charles V. was not subsequently, however, the more disposed to confirm to the house of Farnese the investiture of their new possessions, which he claimed as part of the Milanese duchy; and he soon evinced no friendly disposition towards his own son-in-law, Ottavio. Pietro Luigi, the first duke of Parma, proved himself, by his extortions, his cruelties, and his debaucheries, scarcely less detestable than any of the ancient tyrants of Lombardy. He thus provoked a conspiracy and insurrection of the nobles of Placentia, where he resided; and he was assassinated by them at that place in 1547, after a reign of only two years. The city was immediately seized in the imperial name by Gonzaga, governor of Milan. . . . To deter the emperor from appropriating Parma also to himself [Paul III] could devise no other expedient than altogether to retract his grant from his family, and to reoccupy that city for the holy see, whose rights he conceived that the emperor would not venture to invade." But after the death of Paul III, the Farnese party, commanding a majority in the conclave, "by raising Julius III. to the tiara [1550], obtained the restitution of Parma to Ottavio from the gratitude of the new pope. The prosperity of the ducal house of Farnese was not yet securely established. The emperor still retained Placentia, and Julius III. soon forgot the services of that family. In 1551, the pope leagued with Charles V. to deprive the duke Ottavio of the fief which he had restored to him. Farnese was thus reduced . . . to place himself under the protection of the French; and this measure, and the indecisive war which followed, became his salvation. He still preserved his throne when Charles V. terminated his reign; and one of the first acts of Philip II., when Italy was menaced by the invasion of the duke de

Guise [1556], was to win him over from the French alliance, and to secure his gratitude, by yielding Placentia again to him. But a Spanish garrison was still left in the citadel of that place; and it was only the brilliant military career of Alessandro Farnese, the celebrated prince of Parma, son of duke Ottavio, which finally consummated the greatness of his family. Entering the service of Philip II., Alessandro gradually won the respect and favour of that gloomy monarch; and at length, in 1585, as a reward for his achievements, the Spanish troops were withdrawn from his father's territories. The duke Ottavio closed his life in the following year; but Alessandro never took possession of his throne. He died at the head of the Spanish armies in the Low Countries in 1592; and his son Ranuccio quietly commenced his reign over the duchy of Parma and Placentia under the double protection of the holy see and the monarchy of Spain."—G. Procter, *History of Italy*, ch. 9.

1556.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Map of central Europe: 1556.

1635.—Alliance with France against Spain. See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

1635-1637.—Desolation of the duchy by Spaniards.—French alliance renounced. See ITALY: 1635-1659.

1725.—Reversion of the duchy pledged to the Infanta of Spain. See SPAIN: 1713-1725.

1731.—Possession given to Don Carlos, the Infanta of Spain. See SPAIN: 1726-1731; ITALY: 1715-1735.

1734.—Battle between French and Austrians. See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

1735.—Restored to Austria. See FRANCE: 1733-1735; ITALY: 1715-1735.

1745-1748.—Changes of masters.—In the War of the Austrian Succession, Parma was taken by Spain in 1745; recovered by Austria in the following year (see ITALY: 1745; 1746-1747); but surrendered by Maria Theresa to the Infanta of Spain in 1748. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2.

1767.—Expulsion of Jesuits.—Papal excommunication of the duke. See JESUITS: 1761-1769.

1802.—Duchy declared a dependency of France. See FRANCE: 1802 (June-October).

1814.—Duchy conferred on Marie Louise, the ex-empress of Napoleon. See FRANCE: 1814 (March-April); VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1815.—One of eight Italian states after Congress of Vienna. See ITALY: 1814-1815.

1815-1846.—Partial control by Austria.—Revolt. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1846.

1831.—Revolt and expulsion of Marie Louise.—Her restoration by Austria. See ITALY: 1830-1832.

1848-1849.—Abortive revolution. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

1859-1861.—End of the duchy.—Absorption in new kingdom of Italy. See ITALY: 1856-1859; 1859-1861; AUSTRIA: 1856-1859.

1860.—Extent of dominions at time of union with Italy. See ITALY: Map showing unification of Italy.

PARNASSIENS, school of French poets, so named because they contributed to a lyric anthology known as "Le Parnasse Contemporain." See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1885.

PARNASSUS, mountain ridge in Greece, eighty-three miles northwest of Athens, near the ancient Delphi. It was celebrated as the haunt of Apollo, the muses and nymphs, and hence as the seat of music and poetry. See DORIANS AND IONIANS; THESSALY.

PARNELL, Charles Stewart (1846-1891), Irish statesman and Nationalist leader. Elected to

Parliament, 1875; became leader of Nationalist party, 1880; arrested on the charge of obstructing enforcement of new Land Act, 1881; imprisoned, 1881-1882; re-elected to Parliament, 1885; career and party wrecked by scandal, 1890. See IRELAND: 1873-1879; 1881-1882, to 1885-1891.

PAROLE SYSTEM. See PRISON REFORM: United States: Indeterminate sentence and parole system of New York; Correctional institutions; Results of prison reform movement.

PARRIS, Samuel (1653-1720), American clergyman. Noted for his prosecution of the alleged witchcraft cases in Salem, 1692-1693. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1692.

PARRY, Sir Charles Hubert Hastings (1848-1918), English composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1842-1921: Modern English composers.

PARRY, Sir William Edward (1790-1855), English naval officer and Arctic explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1819-1848; Chronological summary: 1819-1820; 1821-1823; 1824-1825; 1827.

PARSEES, or **Parsis**.—"On the western coast of India, from the Gulf of Cambay to Bombay, we find from one hundred to one hundred and fifty thousand families whose ancestors migrated thither from Iran. The tradition among them is, that at the time when the Arabs, after conquering Iran and becoming sovereigns there, persecuted and eradicated the old religion [of the Avesta], faithful adherents of the creed fled to the mountains of Kerman. Driven from these by the Arabs (in Kerman and Yezd a few hundred families are still found who maintain the ancient faith), they retired to the island of Hormuz (a small island close by the southern coast, at the entrance to the Persian Gulf). From hence they migrated to Din (on the coast of Guzerat), and then passed over to the opposite shore. In the neighbourhood of Bombay and in the south of India inscriptions have been found which prove that these settlers reached the coast in the tenth century of our era. At the present time their descendants form a considerable part of the population of Surat, Bombay, and Ahmabad; they call themselves, after their ancient home, Parsees, and speak the later Middle Persian."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, v. 5, bk. 7, ch. 2.—"The present Zoroastrians, or Parsees, are but the remnant of a once powerful people. During the many vicissitudes of war and national decay their ancient political power has become dissipated, and through contact with peoples of other religions their original religious teaching has lost its purity, and a lifeless formalism has taken the place of its once vital spiritual force. As for the sacred literature of the Zoroastrians, it, like themselves, is now but fragmentary; the elements necessary to give it complete comprehensive form are lost.—C. M. Remey, *Bahai movement*, p. 49.—The Parsees of India are divided into two sects, the Shenshahis and the Kadmis, whose difference is one of chronological reckoning rather than of faith. There are only two distinct classes among the Parsees—the *priests* and the *people*. Priestly office is hereditary, but, though no one may become a priest who was not born to the position, a priest's son may become a layman. The Parsees are peculiar among eastern peoples in their prohibition of polygamy except in unusual cases.—See also INDIA: People; ZOROASTRIANS.

PARSI LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY: 14.

PARSIS. See PARSEES.

PARSONS' CAUSE, celebrated case decided by the court of Hanover county, Virginia. See VIRGINIA: 1763.

PARTHENII.—This name was given among the Spartans to a class of young men, sons of Spartan

women who had married outside the exclusive circle of the Spartiatae. The latter refused, even when Sparta was most pressingly in need of soldiers, to admit these "sons of maidens," as they stigmatized them, to the military body. The Parthenii, becoming numerous, were finally driven to emigrate, and found a home at Tarentum, Italy. —Based on E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 2, ch. 1.—See also TARENTUM.

PARTHENON: B. C. 445-431.—Building of the Parthenon.—Festivals.—"Pericles had occasion to erect on the highest point of the Acropolis, in place of the ancient Hecatompedon, a new festive edifice and treasure-house, which, by blending intimately together the fulfilment of political and religious ends, was to serve to represent the piety and artistic culture, the wealth and the festive splendour—in fine, all the glories which Athens had achieved by her valour and her wisdom. [See ATHENS: B. C. 461-431: General aspect of Periclean Athens.] . . . The architect from whose design, sanctioned by Pericles and Phidias, the new Hecatompedon was erected, was Ictinus, who was seconded by Callicrates, the experienced architect of the double line of walls. It was not intended to build an edifice which should attract attention by the colossal nature of its proportions or the novelty of its style. The traditions of the earlier building were followed, and its dimensions were not exceeded by more than 50 feet. In a breadth of 100 feet the edifice extended in the form of a temple, 226 feet from east to west; and the height, from the lowest stair to the apex of the pediment, amounted only to 65 feet. . . . The Hecatompedon, or Parthenon (for it went by this name also as the house of Athene Parthenos), was very closely connected with the festival of the Panathenæa, whose splendour and dignity had gradually risen by degrees together with those of the state. . . . The festival commenced with the performances in the Odeum, where the masters of song and recitation, and the cither and flute-players, exhibited their skill, the choral songs being produced in the theatre. Hereupon followed the gymnastic games, which, besides the usual contests in the stadium, foot-race, wrestling-matches, &c., also included the torch-race, which was held in the Ceramicus outside the Dipylum, when no moon shone in the heavens; and which formed one of the chief attractions of the whole festival."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 3, ch. 3.—See also ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS; also ATHENS: Map of ancient Athens.

B. C. 431-A. D. 1456.—Previous to its destruction.—The Parthenon seems to have remained substantially without alteration or serious damage, until in the fifth century, it was transformed with a Christian church dedicated to St. Sophia. In 1456 Athens came into the hands of the Turks, and a minaret was added to the Parthenon for the purpose of making it into a mosque.

1687.—Destructive explosion during siege of Athens by the Venetians. See ATHENS: 1687-1688; TURKEY: 1684-1696.

1801.—Removal of marbles by Lord Elgin.—In 1801 Lord Elgin obtained permission to remove the débris that had collected over the ruin of the original building and to make casts and drawings. He also transported many remnants of the original sculpture which he discovered on the grounds or in Turkish houses to England. The Elgin marbles were bought by the British government and are now in the British Museum.

See also ARCHITECTURE: Classic: Greek, Doric and Ionic styles; TEMPLES: Ancient examples.

ALSO IN: J. Stuart and W. Revett, *Antiquities of Athens*.—F. C. Penrose, *Principles of Athenian*

architecture.—A. S. Murray, *Sculptures of the Parthenon*.

PARTHENOPEAN REPUBLIC, created by the French out of the kingdom of Naples, January, 1799, and lasted until June of the same year. See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April); 1799 (August-December).

PARTHENOPE, ancient name of Naples. See NEAPOLIS AND PALEPOLIS.

PARTHIA AND THE PARTHIAN EMPIRE.—"The mountain chain, which running southward of the Caspian, skirts the great plateau of Iran, or Persia, on the north, broadens out after it passes the south-eastern corner of the sea, into a valuable and productive mountain-region. Four or five distinct ranges here run parallel to one another, having between them latitudinal valleys, with glens transverse to their courses. The sides of the valleys are often well wooded; the flat ground at the foot of the hills is fertile; water abounds; and the streams gradually collect into rivers of a considerable size. The fertile territory in this quarter is further increased by the extension of cultivation to a considerable distance from the base of the most southern of the ranges, in the direction of the Great Iranian desert. . . . It was undoubtedly in the region which has been thus briefly described that the ancient home of the Parthians lay. . . . Parthia Proper, however, was at no time coextensive with the region described. A portion of that region formed the district called Hyrcania; and it is not altogether easy to determine what were the limits between the two. The evidence goes, on the whole, to show that while Hyrcania lay towards the west and north, the Parthian country was that towards the south and east, the valleys of the Etrek and Gurghan constituting the main portions of the former, while the tracts east and south of those valleys, as far as the sixty-first degree of E. longitude, constituted the latter. If the limits of Parthia Proper be thus defined, it will have nearly corresponded to the modern Persian province of Khorasan. . . . The Turanian character of the Parthians, though not absolutely proved, appears to be in the highest degree probable. If it be accepted, we must regard them as in race closely allied to the vast hordes which from a remote antiquity have roamed over the steppe region of Upper Asia, from time to time bursting upon the south and harassing or subjugating the comparatively unwarlike inhabitants of the warmer countries. We must view them as the congeners of the Huns, Bulgarians and Comans of the ancient world; of the Kalmucks, Ougurs, Usbegs, Eleuts, &c., of the present day. . . . The Parthians probably maintained their independence from the time of their settlement in the district called after their name until the sudden arrival in their country of the great Persian conqueror, Cyrus, [about 554 B. C.]. . . . When the Persian empire was organised by Darius Hystaspis into satrapies, Parthia was at first united in the same government with Chorasmia, Sogdiana and Aria. Subsequently, however, when satrapies were made more numerous, it was detached from these extensive countries, and made to form a distinct government, with the mere addition of the comparatively small district of Hyrcania." The conquests of Alexander included Parthia within their range, and, under the new political arrangements which followed Alexander's death, that country became for a time part of the wide empire of the Seleucidæ, founded by Seleucus Nicator,—the kingdom of Syria as it was called. But about 250 B. C. a successful revolt occurred in Parthia, led by one Arsaces, who founded an independent kingdom and a dynasty called the

Arsacid. (See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 281-224; B. C. 224-187.) Under succeeding kings, especially under the sixth of the line, Mithradates I. (not to be confused with the Mithradatic dynasty in Pontus), the kingdom of Parthia was swollen by conquest to a great empire, covering almost the whole territory of the earlier Persian empire, excepting in Asia Minor and Syria. (See BACTRIA.) On the rise of the Roman power, the Parthians successfully disputed with it the domination of the east in several wars (see ROME: Republic: B. C. 57-52), none of which were advantageous to the Romans, until the time of Trajan.—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy: Parthia*.—Trajan, 115-117 (see ROME: Empire: 96-138) “undertook an expedition against the nations of the East. . . . The success of Trajan, however transient, was rapid and specious. The degenerate Parthians, broken by intestine discord, fled before his arms. He descended the river Tigris in triumph, from the mountains of Armenia to the Persian gulf. He enjoyed the honour of being the first, as he was the last, of the Roman generals who ever navigated that remote sea. His fleets ravaged the coasts of Arabia. . . . Every day the astonished senate received the intelligence of new names and new nations that acknowledged his sway. . . . But the death of Trajan soon clouded the splendid prospect. . . . The resignation of all the eastern conquests of Trajan was the first measure of his [successor Hadrian’s] reign. He [Hadrian] restored to the Parthians the election of an independent sovereign, withdrew the Roman garrisons from the provinces of Armenia, Mesopotamia and Assyria; and, in compliance with the precept of Augustus, once more established the Euphrates as the frontier of the empire.”—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 1.—In the reign of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus at Rome, the Parthian king Vologeses III. (or Arsaces XXVII.) provoked the Roman power anew by invading Armenia and Syria. In the war which followed, the Parthians were driven from Syria and Armenia; Mesopotamia was occupied; Seleucia, Ctesiphon and Babylon taken; and the royal palace at Ctesiphon burned (165 A.D.). Parthia then sued for peace, and obtained it by ceding Mesopotamia, and allowing Armenia to return to the position of a Roman dependency. Half a century later the final conflict of Rome and Parthia occurred. “The battle of Nisibis [217], which terminated the long contest between Rome and Parthia, was the fiercest and best contested which was ever fought between the rival powers. It lasted for the space of three days. . . . Macrinus [the Roman emperor, who commanded] took to flight among the first; and his hasty retreat discouraged his troops, who soon afterwards acknowledged themselves beaten and retired within the lines of their camp. Both armies had suffered severely. Herodian describes the heaps of dead as piled to such a height that the manœuvres of the troops were impeded by them, and at last the two contending hosts could scarcely see one another. Both armies, therefore, desired peace.” But the peace was purchased by Rome at a heavy price. After this, the Parthian monarchy was rapidly undermined by internal dissensions and corruptions, and in 226 it was overthrown by a revolt of the Persians (see PERSIA: B. C. 150-A. D. 226), who claimed and secured again, after five centuries and a half of subjugation, their ancient leadership among the races of the East. The new Persian Empire, or Sassanian monarchy, was founded by Artaxerxes I on the ruins of the Parthian throne.—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy: Parthia*, ch. 3-21.

See also CTESIPHON; MEGISTANES; PHILOLOGY: 14; ROME: Empire: 138-180; 284-305.
 ALSO IN: G. Rawlinson, *Story of Parthia*.
PARTHIAN HORSE, PARTHIAN ARROWS.—“Fleet and active coursers, with scarcely any caparison but a headstall and a single rein, were mounted by riders clad only in a tunic and trousers, and armed with nothing but a strong bow and a quiver full of arrows. A training begun in early boyhood made the rider almost one with his steed; and he could use his weapons with equal ease and effect whether his horse was stationary or at full gallop, and whether he was advancing towards or hurriedly retreating from his enemy. . . . It was his ordinary plan to keep constantly in motion when in the presence of an enemy, to gallop backwards and forwards, or round and round his square or column, . . . at a moderate interval plying it with his keen and barbed shafts.”—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy: Parthia*, ch. 11.
PARTIES AND FACTIONS: Political and Politico-Religious.—The following is a list of some of the principal parties and factions:
Abhorrrers. See PETITIONERS and ABHORRRERS.
Abolitionists. See SLAVERY: 1828-1832, to 1869-1893; U. S. A.: 1807; 1829-1832, to 1865; ILLINOIS: 1831-1837; VIRGINIA: 1776-1815.
Adorni. See GENOA: 1458-1464.
Adullamites. See ENGLAND: 1865-1868; LIBERAL PARTY: 1866-1900.
Afrikaner Bund, or Bondsmen. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1877-1879; 1881-1888; 1898; 1900 (December).
Aggravados. See SPAIN: 1814-1827.
Agrarian Protectionists. See GERMANY: 1895-1898.
Agrarian Socialists. See AUSTRIA: 1906-1909; FINLAND: 1920.
Albany Regency. See NEW YORK: 1823.
American. See KNOW NOTHING, OR AMERICAN, PARTY.
Ammoniti. See FLORENCE: 1358.
Anarchists. See ANARCHISM.
Anfu. See CHINA: 1920: Leading parties, etc.; Failure of victorious generals.
Anilleros. See SPAIN: 1814-1827.
Anti-Corn-Law League. See TARIFF: 1836-1841; 1845-1846.
Anti-Federalists. See ANTI-FEDERALISTS.
Anti-Imperialists. See U. S. A.: 1900 (May-November).
Anti-Masonic. See ANTI-MASONIC PARTY; NEW YORK: 1826-1832.
Anti-Renters. See LIVINGSTON MANOR.
Anti-Revolutionnaire. See NETHERLANDS: 1853-1867; 1887-1890.
Anti-Semites. See ANTI-SEMITISM.
Anti-Slavery. See SLAVERY: 1688-1780; 1776-1808; 1828-1832; 1840-1847.
Armagnacs. See FRANCE: 1380-1415; 1415-1419.
Arrabiati. See FLORENCE: 1490-1498; 1498-1500.
Assideans. See CIASIDIM.
Azul. See PARAGUAY: 1902-1915.
Barnburners. See BARNBURNERS.
Beggars. See NETHERLANDS: 1562-1566; 1566.
Bianchi. See FLORENCE: 1295-1300; 1301-1313.
Bigi, or Greys. See BIGI.
Black Hundreds. See RUSSIA: 1903 (April); 1906-1911; 1916: Opposition of Duma to cabinet.
Blacks, or Black Guelfs. See FLORENCE: 1295-1300; 1301-1313.
Blancos, or Whites. See URUGUAY: 1821-1905.
Bluelight Federalists. See BLUELIGHT FEDERALISTS.

Blues. See CIRCUS: Factions of the Roman.
 Blues (Conservatives). See COLOMBIA: 1898-1902; VENEZUELA: 1829-1886.
 Bolsheviki. See BOLSHÉVYKI.
 Bolters. See BOLTERS.
 Bond. See above: Afrikander Bund.
 Border Ruffians. See KANSAS: 1854-1859.
 Boys in Blue. See BOYS IN BLUE.
 Bucktails. See BUCKTAILS.
 Bundschuh. See GERMANY: 1402-1514.
 Burgundians. See FRANCE: 1380-1415; 1415-1419.
 Burschenschaft. See BURSCHIENSCHAFT.
 Butternuts. See BUTTERNUTS.
 Cabochiens. See FRANCE: 1380-1415.
 Cadets, or Constitutional Democrats. See below: Constitutional Democrats.
 Calixtines, or Utraquists. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434, to 1516-1576.
 Camisards. See CAMISARDS.
 Caps and Hats. See SWEDEN: 1720-1792.
 Carbonari. See CARBONARI.
 Carbonarios. See PORTUGAL: 1911-1914.
 Carlists. See CARLISTS.
 Carpet-Baggers. See CARPET-BAGGERS.
 Catholics. See CATHOLIC PARTY.
 Cavaliers. See CAVALIERS.
 Center. See RIGHT, LEFT, AND CENTER.
 Center (Catholic). See GERMANY: 1873-1887; 1900-1909.
 Centro-Catolico. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.
 Charcoals. See CLAYBANKS AND CHARCOALS.
 Chartists. See CHARTISTS.
 Chasidim. See CHASIDIM.
 Chih-li. See CHINA: 1920: Leading parties;
 Failure of victorious generals, etc.
 Chosu. See JAPAN: 1918-1921.
 Chouans. See CHOUANS.
 Christian Socialists. See AUSTRIA: 1906-1909; 1920; SOCIALISM: 1844-1848.
 Christinos. See CHRISTINOS.
 Claybanks and Charcoals. See CLAYBANKS AND CHARCOALS.
 Clear Grits. See CANADA: 1840.
 Clericals. See CLERICAL PARTY.
 Clichyans. See CLICHY CLUB.
 Clintonians. See NEW YORK: 1817-1819.
 Coalitionists. See ENGLAND: 1918 (December).
 Cods. See HOOKS AND KABELJAUWS.
 Colorados, or Reds. See COLORADOS.
 Comuneros. See SPAIN: 1814-1827.
 Communists. See COMMUNIST MOVEMENT.
 Conservatives. See CONSERVATIVE PARTY.
 Conservative-Unionists. See ENGLAND: 1905-1906; 1909 (April-December); 1910.
 Constitutional Democrats, or Cadets. See RUSSIA: 1904-1905: Growth of political parties; 1905-1906; 1918-1920.
 Constitutional Unionists. See U.S.A.: 1860 (April-November).
 Constitutionalists. See CHINA: 1920 (December); MEXICO: 1914-1915.
 Continentals. See U.S.A.: 1904 (May-November).
 Conventionalists. See MEXICO: 1914-1915.
 Convulsionists. See CONVULSIONISTS.
 Copperheads. See COPPERHEADS.
 Cordeliers. See CORDELIERS, CLUB OF.
 Country. See ENGLAND: 1672-1673.
 Covenanters. See COVENANTERS.
 Cretois. See CRETE, PARTY OF THE.
 Decamisados. See SPAIN: 1814-1827.
 Decembrists. See RUSSIA: 1825.
 Democratic Republicans. See U.S.A.: 1789-1792.

Democrats. See DEMOCRATIC PARTY, UNITED STATES.
 Dissenters. See DISSENTERS.
 Doughfaces. See DOUGHFACES.
 Douglas Democrats. See U.S.A.: 1860 (April-November).
 Equal Rights. See LOCOFOCOS; NEW YORK: 1835-1837.
 Escocés. See ESCOCÉS.
 Essex Junto. See ESSEX JUNTO.
 Evolutionists. See PORTUGAL: 1911-1914.
 Fabians. See SOCIALISM: 1882-1916; 1883-1884.
 "Fanatics." See BRAZIL: 1897.
 Farmer Labor. See LABOR PARTIES: 1918-1920.
 Farmers' Alliance. See NATIONAL FARMERS' ALLIANCE.
 Fascisti: Italy. See FASCISTI.
 Mexico. See MEXICO: 1922-1923.
 Federalists. See FEDERALISTS.
 Feds. See BOYS IN BLUE, etc.
 Fenians. See FENIAN SOCIETY.
 Feuillants. See FEUILLANTS.
 Fifth Monarchy Men. See FIFTH MONARCHY MEN.
 Free Silver Democrats. See U.S.A.: 1896 (June-November); 1900 (May-November); OREGON: 1876-1898.
 Free Soilers. See U.S.A.: 1848: Free soil convention at Buffalo; 1855-1856.
 Free Traders. See TARIFF: 18th century; 1808-1824; 1830-1848; 1836-1841; 1842; 1846-1861; 1860; AUSTRALIA: 1905-1906.
 Fregosi. See GENOA: 1458-1464.
 Frondists. See FRONDE.
 Fusionists. See U.S.A.: 1900 (May-November).
 Gachupines. See GACHUPINES.
 Girondists. See GIRONDINS.
 Gomerists. See NETHERLANDS: 1603-1619.
 Grangers. See U.S.A.: 1866-1877.
 Graybacks. See BOYS IN BLUE, etc.
 Greenbacks. See GREENBACK PARTY.
 Greenback Labor. See GREENBACK PARTY.
 Greens. See GREENS.
 Greys. See BIGI.
 Guadalupe. See GACHUPINES.
 Guelfs and Ghibellines. See GUELFES.
 Gueux, or Beggars. See GUEUX.
 Half-Breeds. See STALWARTS.
 Hard-Shell Democrats. See U.S.A.: 1845-1846.
 Hats and Caps. See SWEDEN: 1720-1792.
 Het Volk. See ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920.
 Home Rulers, or Nationalists. See below: Nationalist parties, Irish.
 Hooks and Kabeljauws, or Hooks and Cods. See HOOKS AND KABELJAUWS.
 Huguenots. See FRANCE: 1559-1561, to 1598-1599; 1620-1622, to 1627-1628; 1661-1680; 1681-1608; 1702-1710.
 Hunkers. See HUNKERS.
 Iconoclasts. See ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.
 Immediatistas. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.
 Importants. See FRANCE: 1642-1643.
 Independence: Austria-Hungary. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1903-1905.
 Egypt. See EGYPT: 1918-1919.
 Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1897-1910; 1918 (November).
 United States. See U.S.A.: 1908 (April-November).
 Independent Republicans. See U.S.A.: 1884: Twenty-fifth presidential election.
 Independent Socialists. See GERMANY: 1918 (November).

Independents, or Separatists. See INDEPENDENTS, OR SEPARATISTS.
 Independistas. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.
 Insurgents. See U.S.A.: 1910 (March-June); (August-November).
 Integralists. See PAPACY: 1911-1914.
 Integrists. See SPAIN: 1921: Political outlook for Spain.
 Intransigentes. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.
 Intransigentists. See INTRANSIGENTISTS.
 Irredentists. See IRREDENTISTS.
 Jacobins. See ENGLAND: 1793-1796; FRANCE: 1790, to 1794-1795 (July-April); IRELAND: 1793-1798.
 Jacobites. See JACOBITES.
 Jacquerie. See JACQUERIE.
 Jingoos. See JINGOES.
 Jiyu-To (Liberals). See JAPAN: 1868-1894; 1894-1912.
 Kabeljauws, or Hooks and Cods. See HOOKS AND KABELJAUWS.
 Kaishin-To (Progressive). See JAPAN: 1894-1912.
 Kensei-To (Constitutional). See JAPAN: 1894-1912.
 Kharejites. See KHAREJITES.
 Knights of the Golden Circle. See KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE.
 Knights of Labor. See KNIGHTS OF LABOR.
 Knights of the White Camelia. See WHITE CAMELIA, KNIGHTS OF.
 Know Nothing, or American. See KNOW NOTHING PARTY.
 Kossuth, or Independence. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1903-1905.
 Koumingtang. See CHINA: 1913.
 Ku Klux Klan. See KU KLUX KLAN.
 Labor. See LABOR PARTIES.
 Land Leaguers. See IRELAND: 1873-1879; 1880.
 Left. See RIGHT, LEFT, AND CENTER.
 Legitimists. See LEGITIMISTS.
 Leliaerds. See LELIAERDS.
 Levellers. See LEVELLERS.
 Liberals. See LIBERAL PARTY.
 Liberal Republicans. See U.S.A.: 1872.
 Liberal Unionists. See ENGLAND: 1885-1886; 1900 (September-October).
 Libertines. See LIBERTINES OF GENEVA.
 Liberty. See SLAVERY: 1840-1847; MAINE: 1840-1841.
 Liberty Boys. See LIBERTY BOYS.
 Lincoln, or Silver, Republicans. See U.S.A.: 1900 (May-November).
 Little England. See LITTLE ENGLAND PARTY.
 Locofocos. See LOCOFOCOS; NEW YORK: 1835-1837.
 Lollards. See LOLLARDS.
 Loyalists. See NEW YORK: 1775; TORIES: Of the American Revolution.
 Malignants. See MALIGNANTS.
 Marians. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 88-78.
 Martling Men. See MARTLING MEN.
 Maximalists. See BOLSHIEVIKI: Origin of name.
 Mediate Conservatives. See SPAIN: 1910-1914.
 Melchites. See MELCHITES.
 Mensheviks. See MENSHEVIKI.
 Middle-of-the-Road Populists. See MIDDLE-OF-THE-ROAD POPULISTS.
 Miguelistas. See MIGUELISTAS.
 Ministerial. See URUGUAY: 1917.
 Moderates. See CUBA: 1906-1909; DENMARK: 1901.
 Mountain. See FRANCE: 1791 (October); 1792 (September-November), to 1794-1795 (July-April); GIRONDINS.

Muggletonians. See RANTERS.
 Mugwumps. See above: Independent Republicans.
 Muscadins. See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (July-April).
 National Democrats: Poland. See POLAND: 1877-1905.
 United States. See DEMOCRATIC PARTY, UNITED STATES.
 National Liberal Federation. See ENGLAND: 1901 (February).
 National Liberty. See U.S.A.: 1904 (May-November).
 National Silver. See U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: National silver party.
 Nationalists: Egypt. See EGYPT: 1875-1882; 1907-1911; 1921: Lord Milner's report made public.
 India. See INDIA: 1905-1910, to 1907-1921; 1921-1922.
 Ireland. See IRELAND: 1873-1879; 1885-1891; 1895; 1917-1918; ULSTER: 1892.
 Italy. See ITALY: 1910-1911.
 Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.
 South Africa. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1920-1921.
 Turkey. See TURKEY: 1921 (January-February).
 Venezuela. See VENEZUELA: 1913.
 Neri. See FLORENCE: 1295-1300; 1301-1313.
 Nihilists. See NIHILISM.
 Non-Partisan League. See NON-PARTISAN LEAGUE.
 Oakboys. See IRELAND: 1760-1798.
 Octobrists. See RUSSIA: 1905-1906.
 Optimates and Populares. See OPTIMATES.
 Old Hunkers. See HUNKERS.
 Orangemen. See IRELAND: 1795-1796.
 Oranje Unie. See ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920.
 Orleanists. See LEGITIMISTS.
 Ormée. See BORDEAUX: 1652-1653.
 Orphans. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434.
 Ottimati. See FLORENCE: 1498-1500.
 Palleschi. See FLORENCE: 1498-1500.
 Partistas. See PORTUGAL: 1824-1889.
 Paterini. See PATARENES.
 Patrons of Husbandry. See U.S.A.: 1866-1877.
 Peep O'Day Boys. See IRELAND: 1760-1798.
 Pegenerados. See PORTUGAL: 1906-1909.
 Pelucones. See PELUCONES.
 People's, or Populist. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1870-1892; U.S.A.: 1892: Twenty-seventh presidential election; 1896: Party platforms and nominations: People's or Populist party; 1900 (May-November); 1904 (May-November); 1908 (April-November).
 Petitioners. See PETITIONERS AND ABHORRERS.
 Petits Maîtres. See FRANCE: 1650-1651.
 Piagnoni. See FLORENCE: 1490-1498.
 Plain. See FRANCE: 1792 (November-December); GIRONDINS.
 Plebs. See PLEBIANS.
 Politiques. See FRANCE: 1573-1576.
 Popolani. See FLORENCE: 1498-1500.
 Popular. See ITALY: 1919: Internal affairs; PAPACY: 1919.
 Populist, or People's. See above: People's party.
 Progressistas. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907; PORTUGAL: 1906-1909.
 Progressives: Japan. See JAPAN: 1894-1912.
 United States. See U.S.A.: 1911-1912 (Jan-

- uary-June); 1912: Formation of progressive party; 1912-1916.
- Prohibitionists. See U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: Prohibition; 1900 (May-November); LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1869-1893.
- Protectionists. See TARIFF: 1828; 1870-1901; AUSTRALIA: 1903-1904, and after.
- Puritans. See PURITANS.
- Quids. See U.S.A.: 1808: Sixth presidential election.
- Radical. See MISSOURI: 1862-1865; 1865-1874.
- Radical Liberals. See NORWAY: 1907-1909.
- Radicals and Radical Socialists. See FRANCE: 1906-1909.
- Radoslavists. See BULGARIA: 1908-1914.
- Ralliés. See RALLIÉS.
- Ranters. See RANTERS.
- Readjustors. See VIRGINIA: 1871-1892.
- Regeneradors. See PORTUGAL: 1906-1909.
- Republicans: France. See FRANCE: 1790-1791: First movement toward European coalition, 1801-1803; 1830-1840; 1840-1851, to 1851-1852; 1870 (September); 1871-1876; 1875-1889; 1900.
- Spain. See SPAIN: 1900-1909: Parties and conflicts; 1921: Political outlook for Spain.
- United States. See REPUBLICAN PARTY, UNITED STATES.
- Ribbonmen. See IRELAND: 1820-1870.
- Right.—Right Center. See RIGHT, LEFT, AND CENTER.
- Roundheads. See ENGLAND: 1641 (October); ROUNDHEADS.
- Russophils. See BULGARIA: 1908-1914.
- Sand Lot. See CALIFORNIA: 1877-1880.
- Sansculottes. See FRANCE: 1791 (October).
- Satsuma. See JAPAN: 1918-1921.
- Secesh. See BOYS IN BLUE, etc.
- Secularists. See BELGIUM: 1899-1900.
- Seiyu-kai (Association of Friends of the Constitution). See JAPAN: 1894-1912; JAPAN, CONSTITUTION OF.
- Septembristas. See PORTUGAL: 1824-1889.
- Serviles. See SPAIN: 1814-1827.
- Siah Chai, or "Vegetarians." See CHINA: 1895 (August).
- Silver. See NEVADA: 1890-1902.
- Silver Republicans. See U.S.A.: 1900 (May-November).
- Sinn Fein. See IRELAND: 1905-1916; 1917; 1917-1918.
- Slavophils. See SLAVS: 1830-1914.
- Social Democrats: Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1920: New ministry.
- Denmark. See DENMARK: 1906.
- Germany. See GERMANY: 1887-1893; 1897 (July); 1907-1914; 1918 (November).
- Japan. See JAPAN: 1894-1912.
- Russia. See RUSSIA: 1905-1906; EUROPE: Modern: Russia in the 19th century.
- United States. See U.S.A.: 1900 (May-November).
- See also Socialism: 1862-1864; 1869-1912; 1912-1918; 1918-1919: German revolution.
- Social Revolutionists. See RUSSIA: 1905-1906; 1918-1920; EUROPE: Modern: Russia in the 19th century.
- Socialist Labor. See INTERNATIONAL: 1872-1886; SOCIALISM: 1874-1901; 1901-1913; U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: Socialist Labor; 1900 (May-November); 1904 (May-November); 1908 (April-November).
- Socialists. See SOCIALISM.
- Soft-shell Democrats. See U.S.A.: 1845-1846.
- Sons of Liberty. See LIBERTY BOYS.
- South African Liberal Labor. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1920-1921.
- Spartacists. See GERMANY: 1918 (November); 1919 (January).
- Stalwarts. See STALWARTS.
- Stambolovists. See BULGARIA: 1908-1914.
- Steel Boys. See IRELAND: 1760-1798.
- Sunni. See SUNNITES.
- Syndicalists: France. See FRANCE: 1906-1909: Era of socialist and syndicalist experiment; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1867-1912.
- Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1911-1914.
- Spain. See SPAIN: 1921: Political outlook in Spain.
- Taborites. See TABORITES.
- Tammany. See NEW YORK: 1863-1871; TAMMANY SOCIETY.
- Thermidorians. See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (July-April).
- Tories. See CONSERVATIVE PARTY; ENGLAND: 1680; RAPPAEES; TORIES: Of the American Revolution.
- "Third Party." See above: Anti-Imperialists.
- Tugendbund. See GERMANY: 1808 (April-December).
- Ultramontanists. See ULTRAMONTANE.
- Unionists: England. See above: Liberal Unionists.
- Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1911-1914.
- South Africa. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1920-1921.
- United Christians. See U.S.A.: 1904 (May-November).
- United Irish League. See IRELAND: 1896-1902.
- United Irishmen. See IRELAND: 1793-1798.
- United Slavs. See RUSSIA: 1825.
- Utraquists. See above: Calixtines.
- Vandernootists. See VANDERNOOTISTS.
- "Vegetarians." See CHINA: 1895 (August).
- Vonckists. See VONCKISTS.
- Whigs: American. See U.S.A.: 1834; 1841; 1854-1855.
- English. See WHIGS.
- Scotch. See SCOTLAND: 1707-1708.
- Whips. See WHIPS, PARTY.
- Whiteboys. See IRELAND: 1760-1798.
- White Hoods. See FLANDERS: 1379-1381; WHITE HOODS OF FRANCE.
- Whites. See FLORENCE: 1295-1300; 1301-1313.
- Wide Awakes. See WIDE AWAKES.
- Yellows (Liberals). See COLOMBIA: 1898-1902; VENEZUELA: 1829-1886.
- Yorkinos. See MEXICO: 1822-1828.
- Young Ireland. See IRELAND: 1841-1848.
- Young Italy. See ITALY: 1831-1848.
- Young Turks. See TURKEY: 1903-1907; 1908; 1909; 1909 (May-December).
- Zayistas. See CUBA: 1906 (August-October).
- Zealots. See ZEALOTS; JEWS: A.D. 66-70.
- PARTITION, Treaties of: Poland. See POLAND: 1763-1790; 1793-1796; RUSSIA: 1768-1796.
- "PARTY AND PASTER BALLOT." See AUSTRALIAN BALLOT: 1882-1916.
- PARTY GOVERNMENT, United States. See ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: United States: Party government.
- PARU, Great, name of an imaginary emperor of El Dorado. See EL DORADO.
- PASARGADÆ, first capital of Persia. It was built on the site of the final victory of Cyrus the Great over the Median king Astyages, and named for the tribe from which Cyrus and the race of the Achæmenids were derived. The ruins which remain

include the tomb of Cyrus.—See also PERSIA: Ancient people and country.

PASCAGOULAS, North American Indian tribe. See MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY.

PASCAL, Blaise (1623-1662), French philosopher, mathematician and writer. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1608-1715; INSURANCE: Life: Early forms; PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.

PASCATAQUA PATENT, grant of land on both sides of the Pascataqua river in Maine. See NEW ENGLAND: 1621-1631.

PASCHAL I, pope, 817-824.

Paschal II, pope, 1099-1118.

Paschal, anti-pope, 684-687.

Paschal III, anti-pope, 1164-1168.

PASCHAL TABLES, chronicle based upon the Paschal canons (rules for the Easter festival), containing a summary of events, in chronological order, from Adam to 629 A. D. See ANNALS: Medieval.

PASCOLI, Giovanni (1855-1912), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1830-1912.

PASCUA, Latin name for revenue collected from pasture lands. See VECTIGAL.

PASHA, or Pacha, Turkish title. See BEY.

PASHITCH, or Pashich, Nicola (1846-), Serbian statesman. Became leader of the Radical party, 1881; ambassador to Russia, 1893-1894; premier of Serbia, 1891-1892, 1904-1905, 1906-1908; again became premier, 1912, and was political head of the Serbian government during the World War; Serbian representative at the Paris peace conference, 1919. See JUGO-SLAVIA: 1920-1921; 1922; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1917: V. Balkan theater: c.

PASHTUN, or Pakhtun, ancient tribe of Afghanistan. See ARACHOTI.

PASKEVITCH, Ivan Fedorovitch, Count of Erivan, Prince of Warsaw (1782-1856), Russian field marshal. Fought in Napoleonic wars, 1805-1813; gained victory over Persians, 1826-1828; became commander of Russian forces in Poland and suppressed revolt, 1831; led invasion into Hungary, 1849. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849; POLAND: 1830-1832.

PASQUIER, Étienne (1529-1615), French jurist and author. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1552-1610.

PASSAIC RIVER, New Jersey, flows into Newark bay below Newark. It is about 100 miles long. It was the site of the settlement of Newark in 1667. See NEW JERSEY: 1661-1667.

PASSAMAQUODDIES, North American Indian tribe.

PASSAROWITZ, Treaty of (1718). See BOSNIA: 1528-1875; HUNGARY: 1699-1718; TURKEY: 1714-1718.

PASSAU, town in the republic of Bavaria, Germany, at the junction of the Inn and Ilz rivers with the Danube, near the Austrian frontier, ninety miles northeast of Munich. It was taken by the Bavarians and French in 1703. See GERMANY: 1703.

Treaty of (1552). See GERMANY: 1546-1552.

PASSCHENDAELE RIDGE, small elevation about six miles northeast of Ypres, Belgium. It was held by the Germans from 1914 to 1917. Captured by Canadian troops in 1917, abandoned by the Allies in the German spring offensive of 1918; it was recaptured in September, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: u, 8; 1917; II. Western front: d, 5; d, 20; d, 23; d, 24; 1918; II. Western front: d, 13; e, 2; q, 2.

PASSÉ, South American Indian tribe. See GUCK, OR COCO, GROUP.

PASSIONIST ORDER, name generally applied to the order whose full name is the Congregation of Discalced Clerks of the Holy Cross and Passion of Our Lord Jesus Christ, founded by St. Paul of the Cross, 1725. See MONASTICISM: 16th-19th centuries.

PASSPORTS.—The issuing of passports is a convenient system adopted by states to secure for their citizens a right of transit through foreign countries, which permission might in international legal theory be withheld. Technically the *foreign* country grants the citizen the passport, and accepts his certificate of citizenship as a title to the right, accorded by all civilized states, of unobjectionable foreigners to pass through. In those countries which even in time of peace exercise strict supervision over aliens entering and residing, the local or national visé on the certificate corresponds to the technical passport. In practice, the certificate itself has received the name passport and actually serves that purpose, being often, if not unregulated by foreign officials, at least only inspected, the visé, where it is affixed, serving merely as evidence of inspection. The passport is the accepted international certificate or evidence of citizenship, although its evidentiary value is *prima facie* only. In the practice of the United States, it is issued by the Secretary of State or under his authority by a diplomatic or consular officer. It certifies that the person therein described is a citizen of the United States and requests for him while abroad permission to come and go as well as lawful aid and protection.—E. M. Borchard, *Diplomatic protection of citizens abroad*, p. 493.—Passports were common during the Middle Ages. In 1521, we read of the duke of Albany asking for one for his secretary. Evelyn in his Diary (1666) says, "I was commanded to go with him to the Holland Ambassador, where he went to stay for his passport." Previous to 1914, Great Britain required no passport for either entering or leaving, and there was none required between Canada and the United States; but in most European countries they were necessary in order to leave, if not always to enter. In the United States, in order to deal with the flood of immigration, an immigrant, even though provided with a passport properly viséed by a United States consul, cannot enter the country, except by permission of the immigration authorities. (See STATE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES, 1790-1909.) The charge for passports issued by the United States is now ten dollars. According to the act of 1856 there was no charge for passports. In 1874 a charge of five dollars was made. In 1888 this was reduced to one dollar. The present charge began in 1920. In October, 1920, an international conference regarding passports was held, attended by the representatives of twenty-eight countries, at which recommendations were made to simplify existing conditions. In 1922 a great deal of friction was caused by the act of September 22, which prevented an alien wife of an American citizen from automatically becoming a citizen through her marriage. See NATURALIZATION: United States: Laws relating to women.

PASSY, Frédéric (1822-1912), French economist and author. One of the founders of the International Peace League, 1868; awarded, with Dunant, the Nobel peace prize, 1901. See NOBEL PRIZES: Peace: 1901; PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

PASTEUR, Louis (1822-1895), French biological chemist and pathologist. Famous for his researches in bacteriology and fermentation; began the practice of inoculation for hydrophobia in 1885. See CHEMISTRY: General: Modern: Lavoisier, etc ;

MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Antitoxin; Development of bacteriology; Study of fermentation.

PASTOR ÆTERNUS, Text of. See PAPACY: 1860-1870.

PASTORS, Crusade of the. See CRUSADES: 1252.

PASTRENGO, Battle of (1799). See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April).

PASTRY WAR, Mexico (1839). See MEXICO: 1828-1844.

PATAGONIA, southernmost portion of South America, including all of Argentina south of the Rio Negro, together with the adjacent parts of Chile. See LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.

PATAGONIANS AND FUEGIANS.—"The Patagonians call themselves Chonek or Tzoueca, or Inaken (men, people), and by their Pampean neighbors are referred to as Tehuel-Che, southerners. They do not, however, belong to the Aucanian stock, nor do they resemble the Pampeans physically. They are celebrated for their stature, many of them reaching from six to six feet four inches in height, and built in proportion. In color they are a reddish brown, and have aquiline noses and good foreheads. They care little for a sedentary life, and roam the coast as far north as the Rio Negro. . . . On the inhospitable shores of Tierra del Fuego there dwell three nations of diverse stock, but on about the same plane of culture. One of these is the Yahgans, or Yapoos, on the Beagle Canal; the second is the Onas or Aonik, to the north and east of these; and the third the Aliculfus, to the north and west. . . . The opinion has been advanced by Dr. Deniker of Paris, that the Fuegians represent the oldest type or variety of the American race. He believes that at one time this type occupied the whole of South America south of the Amazon, and that the Tapuyas of Brazil and the Fuegians are its surviving members. This interesting theory demands still further evidence before it can be accepted."—D. G. Brinton, *American race*, pp. 327-332.

PATARA, Oracle of. See ORACLES.

PATARENES, PATERINI.—About the middle of the eleventh century, there appeared at Milan a young priest named Ariald who caused a great commotion by attacking the corruptions of clergy and people and preaching repentance and reform. The whole of Milan became "separated into two hotly contending parties. This controversy divided families; it was the one object which commanded universal participation. The popular party, devoted to Ariald and Landulph [a deacon who supported Ariald], was nicknamed 'Pataria,' which in the dialect of Milan signified a popular faction; and as a heretical tendency might easily grow out of, or attach itself to, this spirit of separatism so zealously opposed to the corruption of the clergy, it came about that, in the following centuries, the name Patarenes was applied in Italy as a general appellation to denote sects contending against the dominant church and clergy—sects which, for the most part, met with great favour from the people."—A. Neander, *General history of the Christian religion and church* (Bohn's ed.), v. 6, p. 67.—"The name Patarini is derived from the quarter of the rag-gatherers, Pataria."—W. Moeller, *History of the Christian church in the Middle Ages*, p. 253, footnote.—During the fierce controversy of the eleventh century over the question of celibacy for the clergy (see PAPACY: 1056-1122), the party in Milan which supported Pope Gregory VII (Hildebrand) in his inflexible warfare against the marriage of priests were called by their opponents Patarines.—Based on H. H. Milman, *His-*

tory of Latin Christianity, bk. 6, ch. 3.—See also ALBIGENSES; CATHARI; PAULICIANS.

PATAVIUM, ancient name of Padua. See VENETI OF CISALPINE GAUL.

PATAY, Battle of (1429). See FRANCE: 1429-1431.

PATCHINAKS, UZES, COMANS.—The Patchinaks, or Patzinaks, Uzes and Comans were successive swarms of Turkish nomads which came into southeastern Europe during the tenth, eleventh and twelfth centuries, following and driving each other into the long and often devastated Danubian provinces of the Byzantine empire, and across the Balkans. The Comans are said to have been Turcomans, with the first part of their true name dropped off.—Based on E. Pears, *Fall of Constantinople*, ch. 3.—See also RUSSIA: 865-941.

PATENT RIGHT. See EQUITY LAW: 1875.

PATENTS OF INVENTION: Great Britain: 1907.—Patents and Designs Act.—A requirement of the manufacture of patented articles in the United Kingdom, introduced in an act of the British Parliament passed and approved in August, 1907, which came into force August 29, 1908, seriously changed the operation of patents issued to foreigners. It is contained in the following sections:

"27.—(1) At any time not less than four years after the date of a patent and not less than one year after the passing of this Act, any person may apply to the comptroller for the revocation of the patent on the ground that the patented article or process is manufactured or carried on exclusively or mainly outside the United Kingdom. [In 1918 an act was passed stating that the articles patented must be made in Great Britain.]

"(2) The comptroller shall consider the application, and, if after enquiry he is satisfied that the allegations contained therein are correct, then, subject to the provisions of this section, and unless the patentee proves that the patented article or process is manufactured or carried on to an adequate extent in the United Kingdom, or gives satisfactory reasons why the article or process is not so manufactured or carried on, the comptroller may make an order revoking the patent either—(a) forthwith; or (b) after such reasonable interval as may be specified in the order, unless in the meantime it is shown to his satisfaction that the patented article or process is manufactured or carried on within the United Kingdom to an adequate extent: Provided that no such order shall be made which is at variance with any treaty, convention, arrangement, or engagement with any foreign country or British possession.

"(3) If within the time limited in the order the patented article or process is not manufactured or carried on within the United Kingdom to an adequate extent, but the patentee gives satisfactory reasons why it is not so manufactured or carried on, the comptroller may extend the period mentioned in the previous order for such a period not exceeding twelve months as may be specified in the subsequent order.

"(4) Any decision of the comptroller under this section shall be subject to appeal to the court, and on any such appeal the law officer or such other counsel as he may appoint shall be entitled to appear and be heard."

PATER PATRIÆ.—"The first individual, belonging to an epoch strictly historical, who received this title was Cicero, to whom it was voted by the Senate after the suppression of the Catilinarian conspiracy."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquity*, ch. 5.

PATERINI. See PATARENES.

PATERNALISM.—A government which, in addition to the primary functions of maintaining order and security, undertakes definitely to promote the social well-being of its people, is termed paternalistic. In the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, such procedure was considered an unjustifiable and dangerous encroachment on individual rights. But as the idea of "natural law" (or the *laissez faire* theory of government [see DEMOCRACY: Tendencies of the 19th century]) came to be discredited by the iniquities of its actual application, the sphere of government was extended. France had indeed retained something of this view from the time of Napoleon. After 1870 the imperial German government developed it to a very high degree. England and America have followed more slowly under the pressure of necessity. Insurance, pensions, the preservation of health, the regulation or even operation of various industries, are some of the duties frequently assumed by governments, on the ground that if left to individual enterprise they would be performed with less efficiency and economy, or not performed at all.

PATERNO, town in the province of Catania, Sicily, eleven miles northwest of Catania, on the site of ancient Hybla. See HYBLA.

PATERSON, William (1658-1719), British financier, founder of the Bank of England. Head of an expedition formed to settle the Isthmus of Darien, called New Caledonia, 1698. See BANK OF ENGLAND; MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 17th-18th centuries; Banking in Great Britain; PANAMA CANAL: Projects for building canal previous to 1800; SCOTLAND: 1695-1699.

PATERSON, William (1745-1806), American political leader and jurist. See U.S.A.: 1787.

PATESIS, king-priests of ancient Assyria and Babylonia. See ASSYRIA: The land; BABYLONIA: Early (Chaldean) monarchy.

PATHOLOGY: Early history. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 2nd century: Galen, etc.

Humoral.—Closing period. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Closing period of humoral pathology.

Research and discoveries. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Revolutionary experiments and discoveries; 20th century: Progress in bacteriology.

PATNA, native state in India, under British control; also the name of a division, district, and capital in the same state. The population of the city was 119,976 in 1921. See INDIA: Map.

1763.—Massacre at. See INDIA: 1757-1772.

PATRÆ, or **Patras**, seaport on the western coast of Greece, seventy miles northwest of Corinth. In 1920 it had a population of 52,174. See ACHÆAN LEAGUE.

PATRES CONSCRIPTI, Rome. See CONSCRIPT FATHERS.

PATRIARCH OF ANTIOCH. See PAPACY: Supremacy of the Roman See: Grounds of the denial.

PATRIARCH OF THE WEST.—"It was not long after the dissolution of the Jewish state [consequent on the revolt suppressed by Titus] that it revived again in appearance, under the form of two separate communities mostly dependent upon each other: one under a sovereignty purely spiritual, the other partly temporal and partly spiritual,—but each comprehending all the Jewish families in the two great divisions of the world. At the head of the Jews on this side of the Euphrates appeared the Patriarch of the West; the chief of the Mesopotamian community assumed the striking but more temporal title of 'Resch-Glutha,' or Prince of the Captivity. The origin of both these dignities, especially of the Western patriarchate, is involved in

much obscurity."—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews*, bk. 18.—See also JEW: 200-400.

PATRIARCHAL SOCIETY. See CHURCH AND STATE: Totemism.

PATRIARCHATE: Organization. See CHRISTIANITY: 312-337; PRIMATES.

Reestablished at Alexandria. See PAPACY: 1896 (March).

Question in Russia. See RUSSIA: 1917 (August); 1917-1922.

PATRICIAN, title given by the Romans to one belonging to the nobility by right of birth or privilege.

Early title. See COMITIA CURIATA; PLEBIANS; ROME: Ancient kingdom: Early character and civilization: B. C. 472-471.

Later title.—"Introduced by Constantine at a time when its original meaning had been long forgotten, it was designed to be, and for a while remained, the name not of an office but of a rank, the highest after those of emperor and consul. As such, it was usually conferred upon provincial governors of the first class, and in time also upon barbarian potentates whose vanity the Roman court might wish to flatter. Thus Odoacer, Theodoric, the Burgundian king Sigismund, Clovis himself, had all received it from the Eastern emperor; so too in still later times it was given to Saracenic and Bulgarian princes. In the sixth and seventh centuries an invariable practice seems to have attached it to the Byzantine viceroys of Italy, and thus, as we may conjecture, a natural confusion of ideas had made men take it to be, in some sense, an official title, conveying an extensive though undefined authority, and implying in particular the duty of overseeing the Church and promoting her temporal interests. It was doubtless with such a meaning that the Romans and their bishop bestowed it upon the Frankish kings, acting quite without legal right, for it could emanate from the emperor alone, but choosing it as the title which bound its possessor to render to the church support and defence against her Lombard foes."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 4.

PATRICK, Saint, patron saint of Ireland. "St. Patrick was probably born about 389 A.D., perhaps at a small place called Bannaventa, near the Severn. His family was Christian, and his father was a man of recognised position and a Roman official. When he was sixteen years old some Irish Celts or Gaels raided his native town, and he was carried away as a slave to serve an Irish master in Connaught [some say Antrim]. At the end of six years he managed to escape, and reaching the coast of Wicklow, he joined a trading ship bound for Gaul. Making his way to the South of France on foot, he entered the Monastery of Lérins, and after he had received a religious training he returned to his old home in Britain. He here had a vision, in which a voice summoned him to Ireland, urging him to convert the people to Christianity. . . . He was consecrated bishop in 432 A.D., and setting out with a company of fellow workers, he landed in the north. . . . His enthusiasm, his courage, and a wise determination not needlessly to interfere with pagan ceremonies and customs, overcame all opposition and won over the people to the new religion. He founded churches and monasteries in many parts of Ireland, after the model of those in Europe, with Armagh as the central See; and from his time Ireland has taken her place in universal Christendom."—C. Maxwell, *Short history of Ireland*, pp. 6-8.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 5th-6th centuries: Irish church and its missions; EDUCATION: Medieval: 5th-6th centuries; IRELAND: 432; 5th-6th centuries; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: 4th-7th centuries.

ALSO IN: J. B. Bury, *Life of St. Patrick and his place in history*.

PATRIMONY OF ST. PETER, territory over which the pope formerly exercised, and still claims, temporal sovereignty. See **PAPACY**: 755-774, and after.

PATRIOT WAR. See **CANADA**: 1837-1838.

PATRIOTIC AUXILIARY SERVICE BILL. See **GERMANY**: 1916: War time measures.

PATRIPASSIANS, followers of Noëtus, a presbyter of the church of Asia Minor about 230 A. D., who believed that, in the crucifixion of Christ, the Father suffered as much as the Son. See **NOËTIANS**.

PATRISTIC CHURCH. See **CHRISTIANITY**: 100-300: Church organization.

PATRISTIC HISTORIOGRAPHY. See **HISTORY**: 18.

PATROCINIUM, feudal term meaning patronage. See **FEUDALISM**: Definition, etc.

PATROL GUARANTY LAW. See **COMMON LAW**: 1520.

PATRONS, or **Patroons**, name applied to a special class of settlers in New Netherland. The Dutch West India Company granted them many privileges in order to encourage colonization. See **NEW YORK**: 1621-1646; 1638-1647; **U. S. A.**: 1607-1752.

PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY. See **IOWA**: 1873-1874; **U. S. A.**: 1866-1877.

PATRONS OF INDUSTRY. See **U. S. A.**: 1866-1877.

PATROONS. See **PATRONS**.

PATTEN, David W., founder of the Danites, a Mormon sect. See **MORMONISM**: 1830-1846.

PATTERSON, John Henry (1843-1920), American brigadier-general. See **U. S. A.**: 1861 (April-May: Maryland).

PATTERSON, Malcolm Rice (1861-), governor of Tennessee, 1907-1911. See **TENNESSEE**: 1887-1908.

PATTERSON VS. BARK EUDORA (1903). See **SUPREME COURT**: 1917-1921.

PATUAS, tribe of India. See **INDIA**: People.

PATZINAKS. See **PATCHINAKS**.

PAUL, the Apostle, Saint, first great Christian missionary and theologian. At first a zealous prosecutor of the Christians; miraculously converted on the way to Damascus; became greatest expounder of Christianity; traveled as a missionary in Syria, Cyprus, Macedonia, Greece, and Asia Minor; imprisoned at Cæsarea; tried before Felix; sent to Rome, 61; suffered martyrdom there about 65. See **CHRISTIANITY**: A. D. 33-52; 35-64; **ATHENS**: A. D. 54(?); **BIBLE**, **ENGLISH**: Sources; **MALTA**, **ISLAND OF**: B. C. 1500-A. D. 870; **MIRACLES**: 1st century.

Paul I, pope, 757-767.

Paul II (1417-1471), pope, 1464-1471. See **BOHEMIA**: 1458-1471.

Paul III (1468-1549), pope, 1534-1549. Excommunicated Henry VIII of England, 1538; approved Order of Jesuits, 1540. See **PAPACY**: 1534-1540; 1537-1563; **EUROPE**: Renaissance and Reformation: Catholic reformation; **PARMA**: 1545-1502.

Paul IV (1476-1559), pope, 1555-1559. Allied himself with France in order to drive the Spaniards from Italy, 1556; involved in quarrel with England over Queen Elizabeth's claim to the throne; set up the inquisition and censorship. See **PAPACY**: 1537-1563; 1555-1603; **CENSORSHIP**: Censorship of press and speech; **INQUISITION**: 1487-1567; **ROME**: Modern city: 1537-1621.

Paul V (1552-1621), pope, 1605-1621. See **PAPACY**: 1605-1700; **VENICE**: 1606-1607.

Paul I (1754-1801), tsar of Russia, 1796-1801.

Joined coalition against France, 1798-1800; annexed Georgia, 1801; murdered as a result of a court conspiracy. See **RUSSIA**: 1796-1801; 1801; **FRANCE**: 1800-1801 (June-February).

PAULETTE, ordinance imposing an annual tax on the stipend of every judge, issued by Henry IV of France. See **FRANCE**: 1647-1648.

PAULHAN, Louis (1883-), French aviator. See **AVIATION**: Development of airplanes and air service: 1896-1910.

PAULICIANS.—"After a pretty long obscurity the Manichean theory revived with some modification in the Western parts of Armenia, and was propagated in the 8th and 9th centuries by a sect denominated Paulicians. Their tenets are not to be collected with absolute certainty from the mouths of their adversaries, and no apology of their own survives. There seems however to be sufficient evidence that the Paulicians, though professing to acknowledge and even to study the apostolical writings, ascribed the creation of the world to an evil deity, whom they supposed also to be the author of the Jewish law, and consequently rejected all the Old Testament. . . . Petrus Siculus enumerates six Paulician heresies: 1. They maintained the existence of two deities, the one evil, and the creator of this world; the other good, . . . the author of that which is to come. 2. They refused to worship the Virgin, and asserted that Christ brought his body from heaven. 3. They rejected the Lord's Supper. 4. And the adoration of the cross. 5. They denied the authority of the Old Testament, but admitted the New, except the epistles of St. Peter, and, perhaps, the Apocalypse. 6. They did not acknowledge the order of priests. There seems every reason to suppose that the Paulicians, notwithstanding their mistakes, were endowed with sincere and zealous piety, and studious of the Scriptures. . . . These errors exposed them to a long and cruel persecution, during which a colony of exiles was planted by one of the Greek emperors in Bulgaria. From this settlement they silently promulgated their Manichean creed over the western regions of Christendom. A large part of the commerce of those countries with Constantinople was carried on for several centuries by the channel of the Danube. This opened an immediate intercourse with the Paulicians, who may be traced up that river through Hungary and Bavaria, or sometimes taking the route of Lombardy, into Switzerland and France. In the last country, and especially in its southern and eastern provinces, they became conspicuous under a variety of names; such as Catharists, Picards, Paterins, but, above all, Albigenses. It is beyond a doubt that many of these sectaries owe their origin to the Paulicians; the appellation of Bulgarians was distinctively bestowed upon them; and, according to some writers, they acknowledged a primate or patriarch resident in that country. . . . It is generally agreed that the Manicheans from Bulgaria did not penetrate into the west of Europe before the year 1000; and they seem to have been in small numbers till about 1140. . . . I will only add, in order to obviate cavilling, that I use the word Albigenses for the Manichean sects, without pretending to assert that their doctrines prevailed more in the neighbourhood of Albi than elsewhere. The main position is that a large part of the Languedocian heretics against whom the crusade was directed had imbibed the Paulician opinions. If any one chooses rather to call them Catharists, it will not be material."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, ch. 9, pt. 2, and footnotes.—See also **CATHARI**; **ALBIGENSES**.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 54.

PAULINE CHAPEL. See VATICAN MUSEUMS.
PAULINES, members of a religious order founded in Milan in 1530. See BARNABITES.

PAULINUS (c. 726-804), patriarch of Aquileia. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 742-814.

PAULISTAS, Brazilian faction. See BRAZIL: 1531-1641.

PAULMY, Family of. See ARGENSON.

PAULUS, Lucius Æmilius. See ÆMILIUS PAULUS.

PAULUS, Lucius Æmilius (c. 229-160 B.C.), Roman general. Consul, 168 B.C.; defeated Perses at Pydna and overthrew the Macedonian kingdom; triumphed at Rome, 167 B.C. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 171-133.

PAULUS DIACONUS (c. 720-800), Lombard historian. Enjoyed the protection of the duke of Benevento and of Charlemagne, became a monk about 774, and retired to Monte Cassino, 787. His chief work is the "Historia Langobardorum," translated by William Dudley Foulke in 1906.

PAULUS HOOK, early name of the site of Jersey City. A British garrison was defeated and captured here by Americans in 1770. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779: Washington guarding the Hudson.

PAUNCEFOTE, Julian, 1st Baron (1828-1902), British diplomat. First chief justice of the British Leeward islands, 1873-1874; commissioner to Paris in Suez canal negotiations, 1885; minister to the United States, 1889-1893; ambassador to the United States, 1893-1902; privy councillor, 1894; delegate to the Hague conference, 1899; negotiator in the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, 1901. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899; PANAMA CANAL: 1889-1903.

PAUPERISM. See CHARITIES.

PAUSANIAS (fl. 5th century B.C.), Spartan general. Commanded at victory of Plataea, 479 B.C.; conducted treasonable correspondence with Xerxes; starved to death as punishment, about 470 B.C. See ATHENS: B.C. 478; GREECE: B.C. 478-477.

PAUSANIAS (fl. 2nd century A.D.), Greek traveler and geographer. See GREEK LITERATURE: Greco-Roman period: History.

PAVIA, capital of the province of the same name in northern Italy, in the valley of the River Ticino. In 1921 it had a population of 42,042.

Origin of city. See LIGURIANS.

270.—Defeat of Alemanni. See ALEMANNI: 270.

452.—Sacked by Huns. See HUNS: 452.

493-523.—Residence of Theodoric the Ostrogoth. See VERONA: 493-525.

539.—Battle between Franks and Goths. See FRANKS: 539-553.

568-571.—Siege by Lombards.—Made capital of Lombard kingdom. See LOMBARDS: 568-573.

753-754.—Siege by Charlemagne. See LOMBARDS: 754-774.

924.—Destruction by Hungarians. See ITALY: 900-924.

1004.—Burned by German troops. See ITALY: 961-1039.

11-12th centuries.—Acquisition of republican independence. See ITALY: 1056-1152.

1395.—Relation to duchy of the Visconti of Milan. See MILAN: 1277-1447.

1524-1525.—Siege and battle.—Defeat and capture of Francis I, of France. See FRANCE: 1523-1525; ITALY: 1523-1527.

1527.—Taken and plundered by the French. See ITALY: 1527-1529.

1743.—Part of duchy ceded to Sardinia. See ITALY: 1743.

1745.—Taken by the French and Spaniards. See ITALY: 1745.

1774-1790.—Theologians of Pavia.—"In 1774, the Austrian Government instituted a theological faculty in the University of Pavia. In 1783, the Emperor Joseph II transferred to Pavia, for use in the newly instituted *Collegium Germanicum et Hungaricum*, the collections belonging to the old *Collegium Germanicum* of Milan. The divines of the theological faculty of Pavia came to be classed as Jansenists. The classification appears to have been based not so much upon their teaching of the Augustinian doctrine of Grace as upon their own sharp antagonism to the theories and practices of the Jesuits. These divines contended openly that the so-called Jansenist heresy was a phantom, and they also undertook the defence of the Church of Utrecht. They were, further, opponents of the doctrines taught by the Jesuits in regard to morality; they were in sympathy with the claims of the Gallican Church, and finally, they maintained stoutly the necessity for reforms within the Catholic Church on the lines indicated by the Synod of Pistoja. In the years succeeding 1781, were placed upon the Index the titles of a number of writings by these theologians and by others who had accepted their views."—G. H. Putnam, *Censorship of the Church of Rome*, pp. 174-175.—See also PORT ROYAL and THE JANSENISTS.

1796.—Capture and pillage by the French. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

University of. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 12th-15th centuries; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 890-1343.

PAVLOV, Ivan Petrovich (1849-1916), Russian physiologist. Awarded Nobel prize for medicine, 1904. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Revolutionary experiments and discoveries; NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1904.

PAVÓN, Battle of (1861). See ARGENTINA: 1819-1874.

PAVONIA, Patroon colony settled in 1630 on the west side of the Hudson river, opposite Manhattan island. See NEW YORK: 1621-1646.

PAWNEE FAMILY (called "Caddoan").—"The Pawnee Family, though some of its branches have long been known, is perhaps in history and language one of the least understood of the important tribes of the West. In both respects it seems to constitute a distinct group. During recent years its extreme northern and southern branches have evinced a tendency to blend with surrounding stock; but the central branch, constituting the Pawnee proper, maintains still in its advanced decadence a bold line of demarcation between itself and all adjacent tribes. The members of the family are: The Pawnees, the Arikaras, the Caddos, the Huecos or Wacos, the Keechies, the Tawaconies, and the Pawnee Picts or Wichitas. The last five may be designated as the Southern or Red River branches. At the date of the Louisiana purchase the Caddos were living about 40 miles northwest of where Shreveport now stands. Five years earlier their residence was upon Clear Lake, in what is now Caddo Parish. This spot they claimed was the place of their nativity, and their residence from time immemorial. . . . They have a tradition that they are the parent stock, from which all the southern branches have sprung, and to some extent this claim has been recognized. . . . The five [southern] bands are now all gathered upon a reserve secured for them in the Indian Territory by the Government. . . . In many respects, their method of building lodges, their equestrianism, and certain social and tribal usages, they quite closely resemble the Pawnees. Their connection, however, with the Pawnee family, not till recently if ever mentioned, is mainly a matter of vague conjecture.

... The name Pawnee is most probably derived from 'pá-rik-i,' a horn; and seems to have been once used by the Pawnees themselves to designate their peculiar scalp-lock. From the fact that this was the most noticeable feature in their costume, the name came naturally to be the denominative term of the tribe. The word in this use once probably embraced the Wichitas (i. e., Pawnee Picts) and the Arikaras. ... The true Pawnee territory till as late as 1833 may be described as extending from the Niobrara south to the Arkansas. They frequently hunted considerably beyond the Arkansas; tradition says as far as the Canadian. ... On the east they claimed to the Missouri, though in eastern Nebraska, by a sort of tacit permit, the Otoes, Poncas, and Omahas along that stream occupied lands extending as far west as the Elkhorn. In Kansas, also, east of the Big Blue, they had ceased to exercise any direct control, as several remnants of tribes, the Wyandots, Delawares, Kickapoos, and Iowas, had been settled there and were living under the guardianship of the United States. ... On the west their grounds were marked by no natural boundary, but may perhaps be described by a line drawn from the mouth of Snake River on the Niobrara southwest to the North Platte, thence south to the Arkansas. ... It is not to be supposed, however, that they held altogether undisturbed possession of this territory. On the north they were incessantly harassed by various bands of the Dakotas, while upon the south the Osages, Comanches, Cheyennes, Arapahoes and Kiowas (the last three originally northern tribes) were equally relentless in their hostility. ... In 1833 the Pawnees surrendered to the United States their claim upon all the above described territory lying south of the Platte. In 1858 all their remaining territory was ceded, except a reserve 30 miles long and 15 wide upon the Loup Fork of the Platte, its eastern limit beginning at Beaver Creek. In 1874 they sold this tract and removed to a reserve secured for them by the Government in the Indian Territory, between the Arkansas and Cimarron at their junction."—J. B. Dunbar, *Pawnee Indians* (*Magazine of American History*, Apr., 1880, v. 4).—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area.

ALSO IN: G. B. Grinnell, *Pawnee hero stories*.—D. G. Brinton, *American race*, pp. 95-97.—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology*, p. 59.

PAWTUCKET INDIANS, North American tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

PAWTUXET, village of Rhode Island on Narragansett bay, at the mouth of the Pawtuxet river, six miles south of Providence. It came under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts in 1641. See RHODE ISLAND: 1641-1647.

PAX ROMANA. See ROMAN PEACE.

PAXTON BOYS: Massacre of Indians. See SUSQUEHANNAS.

Demand of political rights in 1764. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1800-1864.

PAYAGUAS, South American Indian tribe. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

PAY-AS-YOU-GO POLICY, New York City. See NEW YORK CITY: 1909-1919.

PAYENS, Hugh de, founder of the Order of Knights Templars, 1118. See MONASTICISM: 11th-13th centuries; TEMPLARS.

PAYNE, Henry Clay (1843-1904), American political leader. Postmaster-general, 1902-1904. See U. S. A.: 1901-1905.

PAYNE, John Barton (1855-), American cabinet officer. Secretary of the interior, 1920-1921. See U. S. A.: 1919-1920.

PAYNE-ALDRICH TARIFF, United States. See TARIFF: 1909; CANADA: 1910-1911.

PAYTITI, Great, fabled empire said to have been established by Incas who fled from Peru after the conquest. See EL DORADO.

PAZZI, Conspiracy of the (1478). See FLORENCE: 1469-1492.

PEA INDIANS, North American tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

PEA RIDGE, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (January-March; Missouri-Arkansas).

PEABODY FUND.—"In 1867 George Peabody of Baltimore, merchant and banker ... [began a] line of national benefactions ... by establishing the Peabody Education Fund. ... The donation was made in the interests of education in the southern states, and the trustees assumed the obligation to administer the fund in the interests of the entire South. [See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.] ... In the year 1875 the first step in the new direction was taken by establishing a normal school at Nashville, Tennessee. At that time the normal school idea was new in the south, and it was decided to use this first school as an instrument for educating all of the southern states to a sense of the necessity of maintaining schools for the training of teachers. To attain this end, the trustees voted to establish a large number of scholarships amounting to \$200 each to enable worthy students from all the southern states to attend this central training school. In this way the normal school at Nashville became a leader in the development of the normal school idea throughout the southern part of the country. ... By the year 1903 this part of the work had been completed, and it became evident to the trustees that the time had come to direct the fund toward other ends. Consequently the board voted in 1904 to discontinue the payment of scholarships in connection with the Peabody Normal College at Nashville and seriously turned its attention to deciding on possible new lines of service. After long deliberation and careful study of the entire field, the trustees decided that the greatest usefulness could be reached through endowing an educational institution which should for all time be a benefit to the entire south. Their investigations satisfied them that this end would be best attained by the endowment of the Peabody College for the higher education of teachers. They decided to do this, partly because Nashville had already become known as an educational center, and partly because it is the site of the Vanderbilt University, an institution among the first, if not the very first, of southern universities. This arrangement made easy the fullest co-operation between the existing university and the new teachers' college, and averted useless expense through the duplication of plants, courses, and instructors. The arrangement whereby the first endowment of the new institution was completed was that the trustees of the Peabody fund donated the sum of \$1,000,000, the University of Nashville [Vanderbilt University] gave the land and buildings of the Peabody College for Teachers, the county of Davidson contributed \$100,000, the city of Nashville \$200,000, and the state of Tennessee \$250,000. This initial endowment, with subsequent additions, is ... 'maintaining an institution that is destined to touch every aspect of the southern educational system from the kindergarten to the college, and will reach, directly or indirectly, every city, town, village, and rural community.'"—L. P. Ayres, *Seven great foundations*, pp. 12-17.—See also CAPITALISM: 19th century: United States.

PEACE, KING'S. See COMMON LAW: 871-1066; 1110; 1135; 1300.

PEACE MOVEMENT: Origin of concept.—Religious and philosophical development.—In primitive society war is accepted as normal. Spring was once described as the season "when kings go forth to war" quite as naturally as it is now characterized by the plowing of fields and the sowing of seed. With the growth of civilization peace became more and more desirable. There is no finer poetry of peace than that in the book of Isaiah. But the Hebrew concept of peace, and also that of Greece and Rome, was based on the assumption of the complete supremacy of one nation or race, all possible motive for war (so far as the dominant race was concerned) being thus removed. The idea of the brotherhood of all mankind, and the consequent moral iniquity of war first appears (in the western world at least) in the teachings of Christ, and it is from this source aided, perhaps, by the Stoic philosophy, that it has maintained and widened its position. The early Christians believed, of course, in complete non-resistance; but by amalgamation with the practical Roman system, and under pressure of the great invasions, Christianity became almost as militant a faith as Mohammedanism. The imperial idea, retained by the papacy as well as by the Holy Roman empire, tended toward peace between its members, but feebly. Other wars than the crusades had religious sanction. But, in general, the "church claimed to be the center of a *Repubblica Christiana*, and taught that a unity of spirit should pervade separate nationalities and secure them in the bond of peace by its divine appeal. . . . Poets like Dante still dreamt in the fourteenth century of a universal peace; with all the kingdoms of the world unified under one divine principality."—W. Collins, *League of Nations (International conciliation, Jan., 1919, p. 70)*. —With the Reformation all vestiges of this moral restraint between nations broke down. On the other hand certain of the new religious sects (notably the Anabaptists, Moravians and Mennonites) advanced anew the principle of non-resistance and the inherent immorality of war, based upon a literal interpretation of the gospels. The Society of Friends, however, was the only one to produce any constructive plan, namely, Penn's famous "Essay towards the present and future peace of Europe," by no means a non-resistant project. Other similar projects resulted from observation of the evils of international anarchy. But in actual practice the idea of peace made little or no progress against the more popular principles of Machiavelli.

Holy Alliance (1815).—Concert of Europe.—During the darkest period of the struggle against Napoleon, "the states other than France began to think of some permanent form of coöperation for restraining him; and they even began to speculate on the possibility of some permanent arrangement by which the world might be saved from a recurrence of such a vast waste of life and treasure as was involved in that struggle."—J. S. Bassett, *Lost fruits of Waterloo, p. 45*.—Thus was initiated the Holy Alliance, the first deliberate attempt at international organization for world peace.—See also **HOLY ALLIANCE; CONCERT OF EUROPE.**

Peace organizations.—"The peace movement in its present organized sense began in New York City in 1809, in a tract written by David Low Dodge, a business man, that was entitled, 'The Mediator's Kingdom Not of This World.' This pamphlet caused a lively controversy among religious leaders and was succeeded in 1812 by a more important contribution entitled, 'War Inconsistent with the Religion of Jesus Christ.' Dr. Noah Worcester, of Boston, however, published on Christmas Day, 1814, a sermon known as 'A Solemn

Review of the Custom of War,' that did more to arouse the conscience of the world to the evils of the war system than any other appeal made up to that time. . . . The organization of peace societies began almost simultaneously in America and England. The New York Peace Society, the first in the world, was formed in August and the Massachusetts Peace Society, in December, 1815. The British Peace Society, the oldest in continuous existence, was organized in June, 1816, and has always carried on its work in London. The movement grew rapidly in the United States, particularly in New England, where in the State of Connecticut alone there was at one time a peace society in every county. But nearly all the peace societies were absorbed by or affiliated with the American Peace Society, a national organization founded in New York City, May 8, 1828, which later moved its headquarters to Hartford and then to Boston. William Ladd, the founder of the American Peace Society (q. v.), though little known to-day, was one of the greatest men in the history of internationalism. . . . The most successful of the American promoters of peace after Ladd, and his logical successor, was Elihu Burritt, who also wrote and spoke on a Congress and Court of Nations, promoting in Europe the plan of Mr. Ladd's essay. . . . International Peace Congresses were held in London, 1843; Brussels, 1848; Paris, 1849; Frankfort, 1850; London, 1851; Manchester and Edinburgh, 1853. Of nearly all these, Burritt, tactful as he was indefatigable in getting the people of the nations together, was the leading spirit. The peace movement had in England at that time the staunch support of Richard Cobden, John Bright and Henry Richard. In France its most distinguished champion was Victor Hugo. . . . A revival in the peace movement came in 1889. In that year a new series of international peace congresses began, which continued with few interruptions until . . . [1914]. The chief promoters were Hodgson Pratt, of England, and Frederic Passy, of France. In 1889 the Interparliamentary Union, an association of statesmen in the different congresses and parliaments of the world, was organized by William Randal Cremer, an Englishman, and friend of the cause of labor, who was also assisted by Mr. Passy. . . . Within the years [1890-1914] . . . remarkable developments have taken place in the promotion of the peace idea in the United States. The American Peace Society, which has remained the historic peace organization in America for nearly a century, has worked steadily in State Legislatures and in Congress to secure an arbitral system between this country and other nations and to promote the Court and Congress advocated by its early leaders. . . . It has also worked for the promotion of better relations between the United States and Latin-American countries. . . . Other peace societies established in former years in this country have also been active, among them the Universal Peace Union, founded in 1866, by Alfred H. Love; the Friends' Peace Association of Philadelphia, the Peace Association of Friends in America, and the National Association for the Promotion of Arbitration, Washington. The Peace Department of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union has been constant in its labors. Lucretia Mott, Julia Ward Howe, Hannah J. Bailey, Belva Lockwood, and Lucia Ames Mead have been foremost among the women workers for peace in the United States. Of the more recently founded agencies for the promotion of peace none has had more profound influence than the Lake Mohonk Arbitration Conference organized by Albert K. Smiley in 1895. This . . . brought together every year between

three and four hundred leading educators, clergymen, lawyers and business men who . . . discussed problems of international arbitration and peace from every point of view and formulated their conclusions in a platform of resolutions. . . . The Conference has had for its guests ministers of Latin-American countries, European nations and the ambassadors of Great Britain, China and Japan. . . . The American Peace and Arbitration League was formed in 1909. . . . About the same time the American Association for International Conciliation was formed in New York City under the presidency of Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler. . . . It publishes and sends monthly to libraries literature on the progress of international relations. . . . It is related to the movement of the same name on the continent of Europe, which is under the leadership of Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, of France. The year 1910 was memorable in the peace movement in the United States. Within that year there were formed by Hamilton Holt and others, the World Federation League in New York City for the distinct promotion of world federation, and at Baltimore the American Society for Judicial Settlement of International Disputes with Hon. James Brown Scott as president, and Theodore Marburg as secretary. . . . But of more significance for the permanent success of the peace movement were the two great financial foundations laid within that remarkable year. The first of these, known as the World Peace Foundation, formerly called the International School of Peace, was established by Edwin Ginn, of Boston. . . . The second, . . . The Carnegie Peace Fund, the gift of Andrew Carnegie, of New York, amounting to \$10,000,000, was announced in Washington, December 14, 1910, at the time of the meeting of the American Society for Judicial Settlement of International Disputes. . . . [In 1903 Carnegie had given half a million dollars for the erection of a building at The Hague to be called the Temple of Peace.] The peace movement . . . [was] extended in Great Britain and Europe. The activities of the London Peace Society have been constant and effective for nearly a century. . . . Other societies like the International Arbitration League founded by Sir William Randal Cremer, in 1870, the journal of which is the *Arbitrator*, and the International Arbitration and Peace Association, the journal of which is *Concord*, have also been distinct forces in educating British public opinion in peace ideas. In Germany the movement . . . [was] led by Dr. Adolf Richter and Dr. Ludwig Quide; in Austria by Baroness Von Suttner and Alfred H. Fried, in France by Frederic Passy, Emile Arnaud, Professor Richet, and others. In Italy the leading worker . . . [was] Signor Moneta, of Milan. In Belgium, Senator La Fontaine and Auguste Beernaert . . . distinguished themselves by the services they . . . rendered in the study and promotion of arbitration. In Switzerland, Elie Duncommun and Dr. A. Gobat . . . served as heads of the International Bureau of Peace. This bureau was established in 1891 and is the means by which about five hundred peace societies throughout the world are federated. The Scandinavian countries have made progress in a practical way by the adoption of arbitration treaties and the principle of neutralization."—J. L. Tryon, *Rise of the peace movement* (Yale Law Journal Mar., 1911).—See also INTERNATIONAL: 1912.

Typical views of war.—Undenially the conviction has grown in the world that war is undesirable, from the point of view of self-interest as well as from that of morality. The latter view found its most powerful exponent in Tolstoi. "It is comprehensible that a heathen, a Greek, a Roman, even

a medieval Christian, ignorant of the Gospel and blindly believing all the prescriptions of the Church, might fight, and fighting, pride himself on his military achievements; but how can a believing Christian, or even a sceptic involuntarily permeated by the Christian ideals of human brotherhood and love, which have inspired the works of the philosophers, moralists and artists of our time, how can such take a gun or stand by a cannon, and aim at a crowd of his fellow-men desiring to kill as many of them as possible?"—L. N. Tolstoi, *Bethink yourselves*, pp. 13-14.—Tolstoi's fellow-countryman, Ivan Stanislavovich Bloch, or Jean de Bloch, developed the totally different idea, that modern warfare, by its intrinsic nature, is bound to defeat its own ends. "M. Bloch was not a peace man in the ordinary sense of the term. . . . He had arrived at the conviction, which he had embodied in his great work on the Future of War, that in the modern world war had become an impossible arbiter of international disputes. . . . In the discussion on the rules and customs of war he took no interest whatever. Neither did he concern himself in the least with what may be called the ethical arguments directed against resort to war as a means of settling disputes. His position, which he was at all times ready to maintain against all comers, was that in the modern world nations could not go to war with each other without entailing a dislocation of the social fabric which would bring about a general cataclysm. . . . Put in a sentence, M. Bloch's argument may be stated as follows:—A modern war must be a long war, and a long war must necessarily result first in starvation, and then in revolution. It is, therefore, indispensable to provide some means of settling disputes other than an appeal to a tribunal which could not give a decisive verdict before the costs of the procedure had reduced the litigants to bankruptcy and involved them in social chaos."—*Character sketch: The late M. Jean de Bloch* (Review of Reviews, Feb., 1902).—During the early twentieth century the idea of the futility of war was much discussed, and refutations were evolved of the current conviction that war was politically and psychologically necessary. Perhaps the most important individual contribution was that of R. N. A. Lane (Norman Angell). "In 1909 there appeared in England a little book entitled, 'Europe's Optical Illusion,' written by Norman Angell, a man then wholly unknown to the world. Before the year was over, Count von Metternich, German Ambassador to England, had delivered a speech which was a frank paraphrase of this book; it had been quoted at length in the French Assembly; it had attracted the attention of King Edward and of the Emperor of Germany, and it was stirring the admirals and generals of Europe. Sir Edward Grey declared that the 'illusion,' viz., the erroneous idea that economic advantage follows military victory, had first dawned on his vision through reading this book. The chiefs of four European States asked for 'a book in place of a booklet'; whereupon, a year later appeared 'The Great Illusion,' which embodied the gist of the criticisms of the earlier booklet and presented cogent and penetrating refutations of the same."—Mrs. J. M. Forbes, *Peace movement and some misconceptions*, pp. 10-11.—In this book "the author . . . sets out to prove that military and political power give a nation no commercial advantage; that it is an economic impossibility for one nation to seize or destroy the wealth of another, or for one nation to enrich itself by subjecting another. He establishes this apparent paradox by showing that wealth in the economically civilized world is founded upon credit and

commercial contract. If these are tampered with in an attempt at confiscation by a conqueror, the credit-dependent wealth not only vanishes, thus giving the conqueror nothing for his conquest, but in its collapse involves the conqueror; so that if conquest is not to injure the conqueror, he must scrupulously respect the enemy's property, in which case conquest becomes economically futile. . . . The author also shows that international finance has become so independent and so interwoven with trade and industry that the intangibility of an enemy's property extends to his trade. . . . In the second part—'The Human Nature of the Case'—the author asks, What is the basis, the scientific justification of the plea that man's natural pugnacity will indefinitely stand in the way of international agreement? . . . The author shows that human nature is not unchanging; that the warlike nations do not inherit the earth; that warfare does not make for the survival of the fittest or virile; that the struggle between nations is no part of the evolutionary law of man's advance, and that that idea resides on a profound misreading of the biological law that physical force is a constantly diminishing factor in human affairs, and that this diminution carries with it profound psychological modifications; that society is classifying itself by interests rather than by State divisions; that the modern State is losing its homogeneity; and that all these multiple factors are making rapidly for the disappearance of State rivalries."—R. N. A. Lane (Norman Angell), *Great Illusion*, pp. vii-ix.

Attitude of governments.—Although the peace movement had by this time achieved organization, publicity, and considerable support, there remained a profound disagreement as to methods. Many were willing to admit the force of the arguments against war, but dismissed all remedies as absolutely impracticable. The official world in general deferred to public opinion to such an extent as openly to advocate peace measures. But the fact that these measures never were put into force, or at most were so devised as to evade the fundamental issues, indicates lack of sincere conviction. This does not imply of course, that individual statesmen may not have been sincere. The two Hague conferences and the various arbitration treaties of the pre-war period are the most important phases of governmental action. At the Hague conferences (see HAGUE CONFERENCES), "the Powers in general, and the Governments of Great Britain, the United States, France, Spain and Italy in particular, were formally committed mutually and before their own peoples, to the search for a practical plan for an arrest of armaments by international agreement. What was done to fulfill this solemn promise? In November, 1910, the United States Government addressed to the Governments of Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Holland, Russia and Turkey, an invitation to coöperate with it in the establishment of a commission to study how the limitation of armaments might be brought about. A month later President Taft stated that no power had then accepted this invitation. . . . On March 26th, 1913, in the House of Commons, Mr. Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, made a remarkable speech on what he called 'the pitiful folly,' the 'absurd thralldom' of ever-increasing armaments, and threw out his suggestion for 'a naval holiday.' [See NAVAL HOLIDAY.] 'If for the space of a year no new warships are built by any nation, in what conceivable manner would the interests of any nation be affected or prejudiced? It is an appeal which we address to all nations, and to no nation with more sincerity than to our great neighbor over

the North Sea.'"—G. H. Perris, *Arrest of armaments* (London Review of Reviews, Feb.-Mar., 1921, pp. 107-108).—"The proposal, however, was unfavourably received by the German press generally, and politely negatived both by the official organs and by the German Minister of Marine. It was pointed out that a suspension of warship building might lead to reciprocal suspicion that the money was being used in other ways, for aircraft, for example, and submarines. Again, as Great Britain could build faster than Germany, she would be in a better position when the suspension ended."—*Annual Register*, 1913, p. 214.—Meanwhile the small nations of America had made definite progress, not towards universal peace so much as towards the more immediate object of peace among themselves. Arbitration treaties became more frequent, and somewhat broader in their scope.—See also AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF; ARGENTINA: 1902; CENTRAL AMERICA: 1904; 1908; ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1898-1899; 1907: Second peace conference at The Hague; INTERNATIONAL LAW: 1856-1909; HAGUE CONFERENCES; HAGUE TRIBUNAL.

Attitude of Socialists, Internationals and labor-organizations before the World War.—"Joint action of an international character was the aim of the policy expressed at many international Socialist Congresses; and at the Congress of 1907 this policy was expressed in a resolution as follows: 'If war threatens to break out it is the duty of the working class in the countries concerned and of their Parliamentary representatives, with the help of the International Socialist Bureau as a means of co-ordinating their action, to use every effort to prevent war by all the means which seem to them most appropriate, having regard to the sharpness of the class war and to the general political situation. Should war none the less break out, their duty is to intervene to bring it promptly to an end and with all their energies to use the political and economic crisis created by the war to rouse the populace from its slumbers and to hasten the fall of capitalist domination.' This was the policy of the pre-war Internationale on which were represented the official policy of the constituent groups in regard to war and the danger of war. In November 1912 a special Congress had been held at Basle to protest that there should be no participation of the Great Powers in the Balkan War; and another Congress, at which it was proposed to discuss methods of stopping wars, was to have been held in Vienna in August 1914. When, however, war was declared on the 28th July by Austria against Serbia, the governing body of the Internationale, met at Brussels, decided to hold the Congress in Paris on the 9th August and issued a statement to the effect that they had heard declarations from representatives of all nations threatened by a world war describing the political situation in their respective countries. The Bureau urged the workers to demonstrate against war, and it indicated that the German and French workers would bring pressure to bear on their Governments 'in order that Germany may secure in Austria a moderating action and in order that France may obtain from Russia an undertaking that she will not engage in the conflict.' The pressure of Labour organizations on the governments of the several countries was, however, never exerted and other forces moved rapidly towards war. Jean Jaurès was murdered in Paris on the 31st July; and thus not only the French but the whole Labour movement was deprived of a keen intelligence and a lofty imagination. The visit of a German socialist to Paris on the 1st August proved useless for affecting the situ-

ation, and the Internationale for all practical purposes disappeared when the different national sections for various reasons decided to support their governments."—H. W. V. Temperley, ed., *History of the peace conference of Paris*, v. 1, pp. 205-206.

Outbreak of World War.—Pacifism and the conscientious objector.—"The careless enthusiasm with which a great many people hailed the outbreak of war in 1914, swept the peace advocates into the background and was the occasion of some sarcasm at their expense. But as the struggle grew in grimness and horrors the advocates of peace on principle returned to their old position in public esteem, and have steadily gained on it."—J. S. Basset, *Lost fruits of Waterloo*, p. 39.—Amid the furious patriotism of 1914-1918, there was equally passionate arraignment of war and the system that made it inevitable: Grelling and Liebknecht in Germany, Latzko in Austria, and in France, Barbusse. Henry Ford's much ridiculed "Peace Ship" (December 4, 1915) was a futile but expressive indication of the survival in America of opposition to the principle of war. This opposition was undoubtedly an element in the long delay of America's entry into the war, and in the subsequent popularity of the slogan, "War to end war." That even in 1917 the nation was far from unanimous, is proved by the prominence of the pacifist movement and the problem of conscientious objectors. "Conscientious objectors include Christians, Jews, agnostics and atheists; economic conservatives and radicals; philosophic anarchists and orthodox socialists. . . . At one extreme of our ranks is the Tolstoian non-resistant, at the other the man whose objection is to participation in this war. . . . The extreme non-resistant . . . is persuaded that the supreme force in the world is Love and that Love can only win by its own weapons, which are never the weapons of violence. He is accused of ethical optimism, but he is too much of an ethical realist to preach to great armies the modern doctrine that they go out to kill each other with bayonets, bombs, big Berthas and poisonous gas in a spirit of love. He may believe in dying for one's country or for ideals; but not in killing for them. And his objection is by no means only to killing, but to the essential autocracy, the lies, the contempt for personality, the stark barbarism of war which knows no crime but defeat. . . . [Another] class of conscientious objectors . . . will not declare that no wars have ever been justified or that under no conceivable circumstances would they fight, but . . . feel that the ghastly horrors of this conflict will not win the liberty they seek."—N. M. Thomas, *War's heretics*, pp. 2-5.

Constructive plans.—One of the first organizations representing reaction against the war, was the Union of Democratic Control, founded in 1914 in England, and advocating especially "open diplomacy" and a larger share for the people at large in international relations. The American pacifist Brotherhood of Reconciliation has advocated similar methods.—See also LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Former projects; Plans formulated during World War; EUROPE: Modern; League of Nations; INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF; NOBEL PRIZES: Peace.

Peace, arbitration and disarmament.—"The Peace Conference of Paris did not attempt to solve it [the problem of disarmament], but in its final work there are one or two references to it couched in phrases which, to me at least, glow with the rays of a radium light. . . . I shall dwell for a moment on the essential military peace terms with Germany, inasmuch as I find my thesis in the preamble to those terms, which reads as follows: 'In

order to render possible the initiation of a general limitation of the armaments of all nations, Germany undertakes strictly to observe the military, naval, and air clauses which follow.' . . . Now to analyze it, what was allowed and forbidden to Germany? We allowed her a military and naval establishment assumed to be sufficient, together with her numerous police and gendarmerie, to maintain internal order. We forbade a military system, and the existence beyond a limited amount or manufacture of arms and munitions, both of which are necessary solely for the purposes of international war. We said that we compelled them to do that in order that the rest of the world might promptly do likewise. In other words the nations [in the Covenant of the League of Nations] have bound themselves, at least so far as a solemn form of words can do, to begin at the earliest practicable moment a general limitation of armaments, culminating in the abolition of military systems and all military materials, the sole object of which is international war."—T. H. Bliss, *Limitation of armaments* (Nation, Dec. 22, 1920, p. 727).—Disarmament proposals were pressed especially by the American delegation. France, on account of her ingrained fear of Germany, was very sceptical. Yet the pressure of necessity and of public opinion has forced some curtailment of armaments in Europe. "The signatures to the armistice were scarcely dry before France and Italy made semi-official announcement that they would undertake or prosecute no battleship construction. As for Great Britain, she put in the pruning knife with a ruthless hand, stopping all battleship construction, and scrapping no less than 156 warships, including many that were on the ways and partially built. . . . As for what we are doing as our share in a disarmament of our own proposing, we cannot do better than quote from the recent report of the Secretary of the Navy: 'With battleships in service equal to or superior to any now in commission and six huge battle cruisers and twelve battleships now under construction a number of them larger than any now in commission, the Navy is pressing forward to greater things.'"—Peace League and disarmament (Scientific American, Dec. 20, 1919, p. 602).—"Dr. E. B. Rosa, chief physicist of the United States Bureau of Standards, in a careful analysis of the appropriations for 1920, found:

Appropriations for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1920

I. Expenses due to past wars	\$3,855,482,586	67.8%
II. Army and Navy.....	1,424,138,677	25. %
III. Civil departments ...	181,087,225	3.2 %
IV. Public works	168,203,557	3. %
V. Research, educational and developmental ..	57,093,561	1. %
Total	\$5,686,005,706	100. %

Ninety-three per cent of our appropriations went for war!"—H. R. Mussey, *Disarmament* (Survey, Jan. 15, 1921).—See also WASHINGTON CONFERENCE; ENGLAND: 1922 (April-May).

Stabilising effect of international finance.—"Without money and credit, no state can go to war today. So much, at least, is clear. The relation of finance to war has never been completely understood, and the views upon the question prevailing today are, in their extreme forms, widely contradictory. Mr. Norman Angell would have us believe that sound business sense, on a profit-and-loss basis, requires the abolition of war. Extremists

on the other side defend the thesis that the malevolent power of greedy bankers, who see in war a chance for gain, stands behind the diplomats in every outbreak of hostilities. Writers of this school aver that international finance has become so powerful that statesmen are helpless to enter upon a war in the face of opposition from the financiers; whereas another group without denying either the power of international financiers or the degree of dependence of one state upon another prevailing in the field of international finance, assert that financiers and statesmen together may drift helplessly into a war which none of them desire, but which they are powerless to avoid. In spite of the contradictory character of these views, it is easy to see that international finance, by virtue merely of the enormous complexity of its interrelations, is of necessity a stabilizing influence in the relations between states; and that in general its influence—which upon occasion is tremendous—is likely to be used for the preservation of peace, because of the chaos to which war on the modern scale necessarily reduces the whole intricate system.”

—J. Bakeless, *Economic causes of modern war*, no. 6, pp. 177-178.

Peace associations active during 1922.—Meetings of the Twenty-second International Peace Conference and the International Parliamentary Conference.—During 1922 the following associations and societies (which represent some of the most important peace societies) were actively working for peace by means of conferences, meetings, and distribution of literature: (1) The Non-Partisan Association for the League of Nations: (2) World Peace Foundation: (3) Church Peace Union: (4) Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. This organization has its headquarters in Geneva where it is in touch with nearly all the European movements. The American branch is in Washington: (5) The American Association for International Conciliation publishes a monthly magazine: (6) The International Relations Club makes a point of exchanging the very best speakers and authorities to lecture in countries other than their own: (7) The Institution of International Education helps students and others to understand the history, manners, and customs of countries: (8) In Chicago the American Commission for the Outlawry of War is working: (9) In New York is the Committee of Educational Publicity in the Interest of World Peace: (10) In Paris is the Bureau international de la paix. Business men have several societies which work individually for peace through commercial intercourse and the settlement of legal questions affecting international business. First and foremost is (11) the International Chamber of Commerce with headquarters in Paris. It suggests that all exports and importers have printed on their notepaper the following clause:—"The contracting parties agree to submit to arbitration, in accordance with the arbitration rules of the International Chamber of Commerce, the settlement of all disputes in connection with the execution of this contract."—Out of the Pan-American Scientific Congress has grown (12) the American Institute of International Law: There is also (13) the American Society of International Law:—The churches are working largely through (14) the World Alliance for International Friendship through the Churches:—Pennsylvania has two societies, (15) the Pennsylvania Peace Society, and (16) the Pennsylvania Arbitration and Peace Society: The Friends who have never believed in war have (17) the Peace Association of Friends.

On July 25, 1922, twenty-one nations including

Germany met in London for the Twenty-Second International Peace Conference to discuss plans for greater friendship and commerce among nations. On August 28-30, 1922, twenty-four nations sent representatives to Vienna to the International Parliamentary Conference. The chief points discussed were, the rights of national minorities, intellectual coöperation, and disarmament.

ALSO IN: F. P. Keppel, *International Chamber of Commerce (International Conciliation, no. 171, 174 pamphlet)*.—B. Shaw, *Peace conference hints*.

PEACE OF THE DAMES, or Ladies' Peace (1520). See ITALY: 1527-1529; PAPACY: 1521-1535.

PEACE ORGANIZATIONS. See PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

PEACE PRESERVATION LAW: Japan (1887). See JAPAN: 1868-1894.

PEACH TREE CREEK, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May-September: Georgia).

PEACOCK THRONE, jeweled throne of the Great Mogul in India. See INDIA: 1662-1748.

PEAGE, or Peake. See WAMPUM.

PEALE, Charles Wilson (1741-1827), American portrait painter. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern: United States.

PEARL HARBOR, large landlocked lagoon of eleven square miles on the south shore of Oahu, Hawaii, elaborately fortified as an American naval station. Its only entrance is a narrow passage three miles long and just wide enough to admit vessels. "The United States Government has spent over \$13,000,000 in making Pearl Harbor able to offer adequate resistance to attack from land or sea. . . [It is] as formidable and as important a fortress as any in the world. . . The fortifications extend along the coast for a distance of fifteen miles, from the volcano on the east of Honolulu to Pearl Harbor, nine miles west of the city. . . At the base of the volcano is a group of . . . emplacements called Fort Ruger; at the other end, guarding the entrance to Pearl Harbor, is Fort Kamehameha. These defensive works can not . . . be seen from the ocean. . . The landward defenses, . . . consist of a series of formidable earthworks, and extend in the form of a crescent from Pearl Harbor on the West, where the naval base is located, to Honolulu. . . The naval station occupies a square mile of land, and is one of the most completely equipped in the world. It is provided with a first-class ship-repairing outfit, including the largest dry dock in the world; it has coaling-plant, fuel oil plant, and a magazine for naval ammunition."—M. Delaway, *Volcano that fought for the nation (Technical World, June, 1915)*.—See also HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: 1911.

PEARSE, Patrick Henry (1879-1916), Irish writer and leader of the Sinn Féin. President of the so-called Irish republic, 1916. See IRELAND: 1916 (April).

PEARSONS, Daniel Kimball (1820-1912), American philanthropist. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

PEARY, Robert Edwin (1856-1920), American explorer and admiral. Discovered the North Pole, 1909; delegate to the international polar commission in Rome, 1911. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1886-1909; Chronological summary: 1886; 1891-1892; 1893-1894; 1895; 1896; 1897; 1898; also Map of Arctic regions.

PEASANT COSTUME. See COSTUME: Survivals.

PEASANT REVOLTS: 287.—Bagauds of Gaul. See BAGAUDS.

1358.—Jacquerie of France. See FINANCE: 1358.

1381.—Wat Tyler's rebellion in England. See ENGLAND: 1381.

1450.—Jack Cade's rebellion in England. See ENGLAND: 1450.

1492-1514.—Bundschuh in Germany. See GERMANY: 1492-1514.

1492-1548.—Revolts in Poland. See POLAND: 1492-1548.

1524-1525.—Peasants' War in Germany. See GERMANY: 1524-1525.

1652-1653.—Peasants' War in Switzerland. See SWITZERLAND: 1652-1789.

1804-1817.—Revolts in Serbia. See SERBIA: 1804-1817.

1919.—Rise of peasants in Italy. See ITALY: 1919: Internal affairs.

PECHENGA DISTRICT, strip of territory forming Finland's Arctic corridor. It is bounded by Norway and Russia. In 1920 it was ceded by Russia to Finland. (See FINLAND: 1920 [October-December].) The town of Pechenga, on the Murman coast, provides Finland with an ice-free harbor all of the year.—See also RUSSIA: Earliest history of the Slav tribes.

PECQUET, Jean (1622-1674), French anatomist. Discovered the lymphatic circulation of the blood. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Discovery of the lymphatic circulation.

PEC-SÆTAN, band of Angles who settled on the moorlands of the Peak of Derbyshire.

PECUNIA, Roman term for money. See MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Rome.

PEDASUS, Battle of (c. 493 B.C.). See GREECE: B.C. 500-493.

PEDDAR-WAY, popular name of an old Roman road in England, which runs from Brancaster, on the Wash, via Colchester, to London.

PEDRARIAS DAVILA. See DAVILA, PEDRARIAS.

PEDRO I (Dom Antonio Pedro de Alcantara Bourbon) (1798-1834), emperor of Brazil, 1822-1831, and king of Portugal as Pedro IV, 1826, 1832-1834. See BRAZIL: 1808-1822; 1825-1865; 1824-1889; PORTUGAL: 1824-1889.

Pedro II (Dom Pedro de Alcantara) (1825-1891), emperor of Brazil, 1831-1889. See BRAZIL: 1889-1891.

Pedro I (1320-1367), king of Portugal, 1357-1367.

Pedro II (1667-1706), king of Portugal, 1683-1706. See PORTUGAL: 1656-1777.

Pedro III, king-consort of Portugal, 1777-1786.

Pedro IV, king of Portugal. See PEDRO I, emperor of Brazil.

Pedro V (1837-1861), king of Portugal, 1855-1861. See PORTUGAL: 1824-1889.

See also PETER.

PEDRO MIGUEL LOCKS. See PANAMA CANAL: 1907-1914.

PEDROITES, political party in Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1824-1889.

PEEL, Sir Robert (1788-1850), English statesman. Entered House of Commons, 1809; appointed under-secretary for war and the colonies, 1810; chief secretary for Ireland 1812-1818; home secretary, 1821-1827; 1828-1834; prime minister, 1834-1835; 1841-1846. See ENGLAND: 1820-1827; 1830: Death of George IV.

First ministry. See ENGLAND: 1834-1837.

Action on Bedchamber question. See ENGLAND: 1837-1839.

Second ministry. See ENGLAND: 1841-1842, to 1846; LIBERAL PARTY: 1841-1866; 1846.

Action on education in Ireland.—On child welfare legislation. See IRELAND: 1844; CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1802-1847.

Modification and repeal of corn laws. See TARIFF: 1842; 1845-1846.

Reform of banking. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1844.

PEELE, George (1558-c.1598), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1558-1592.

PEEP-O'-DAY BOYS, Irish Protestant secret organization, formed about 1785. See IRELAND: 1760-1708; ULSTER: 1791-1797.

PEERS, British.—"The estate of the peerage is identical with the house of lords."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 2, p. 184.

PEERS OF FRANCE, Twelve. See TWELVE PEERS OF FRANCE.

PEGGY STEWART, British ship. It was burned in Maryland by the colonists, 1774. See MARYLAND: 1763-1776.

PÉGOUD, Adolphe (1889-1915), French aviator. See AVIATION: Important flights since 1900: 1913.

PEGU, town, district and division in lower Burma. The district was annexed by England in 1852. See INDIA: 1852.

PEHLEVI, or Pahlavi, early Persian alphabet. See PHILOLOGY: 14; PERSIAN LITERATURE.

PEHUELCHES, South American Indian tribe. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

PEILE, John (1838-1910), English philologist. See ALPHABET: Theories of origin and development.

PEIRÆUS. See PIRÆUS.

PEISISTRATUS. See PISISTRATUS.

PEIXOTO, Floriano (1842-1895), Brazilian statesman. President of Brazil, 1891-1894. See BRAZIL: 1893-1894.

PEKING, capital of China, in the northeastern part of the country, about 100 miles from the Gulf of Chih-li. (See CHINA: Map.) In 1921 it had an estimated population of 924,334.

1860.—Siege by English and French. See CHINA: 1856-1860.

1900.—Siege and relief during Boxer rising. See BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR"; CHINA: 1900.

1916-1917.—Disorders in the city. See CHINA: 1916-1917.

1922.—Occupied by General Chang during civil war. See CHINA: 1922 (April-May).

PEKING, University of: Ancient. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 22nd-6th centuries: China.

Modern.—The National University at Peking was established in 1898 and was reorganized in 1917 under the direction of Tsai Yuan-pei, the eminent Chinese educator. In 1922 there were about 3,000 students and 250 instructors.

PEKING CONVENTION (1860). See ASIA: 1500-1900.

PEKING-MUKDEN RAILWAY. See RAILROADS: 1872.

PELAGIANISM.—"Pelagianism was . . . the great intellectual controversy of the church in the fifth century, as Arianism had been in the fourth. . . . Every one is aware that this controversy turned upon the question of free-will and of grace, that is to say, of the relations between the liberty of man and the Divine power, of the influence of God upon the moral activity of men. . . . About the year 405, a British monk, Pelagius (this is the name given him by the Greek and Latin writers; his real name, it appears, was Morgan), was residing at Rome. There has been infinite discussion as to his origin, his moral character, his capacity, his learning; and, under these various heads, much abuse has been lavished upon him; but this abuse would appear to be unfounded, for judging from the most authoritative testimony,

from that of St. Augustin himself, Pelagius was a man of good birth, of excellent education, of pure life. A resident, . . . at Rome, and now a man of mature age, without laying down any distinct doctrines, without having written any book on the subject, Pelagius began, about the year . . . 405, to talk much about free-will, to insist urgently upon this moral fact, to expound it. There is no indication that he attacked any person about the matter, or that he sought controversy; he appears to have acted simply upon the belief that human liberty was not held in sufficient account, had not its due share in the religious doctrines of the period. These ideas excited no trouble in Rome, scarcely any debate. Pelagius spoke freely; they listened to him quietly. His principal disciple was Celestius, like him a monk, or so it is thought at least, but younger. . . . In 411 Pelagius and Celestius are no longer at Rome; we find them in Africa, at Hippo and at Carthage. . . . Their doctrines spread. . . . The bishop of Hippo began to be alarmed; he saw in these new ideas error and peril. . . . Saint Augustin was the chief of the doctors of the church, called upon more than any other to maintain the general system of her doctrines. . . . You see, from that time, what a serious aspect the quarrel took: everything was engaged in it, philosophy, politics, and religion, the opinions of Saint Augustin and his business, his self-love and his duty. He entirely abandoned himself to it." In the end, Saint Augustin and his opinions prevailed. The doctrines of Pelagius were condemned by three successive councils of the church, by three successive emperors and by two popes—one of whom was forced to reverse his first decision. His partisans were persecuted and banished. "After the year 418, we discover in history no trace of Pelagius. The name of Celestius is sometimes met with until the year 427; it then disappears. These two men once off the scene, their school rapidly declined."—F. Guizot, *History of civilization* (tr. by Hazlitt), v. 2, lecture 5.—See also PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.

ALSO IN: P. Schaff, *History of the Christian church, period 3, ch. 9.*

PELAGIC SEALING. See **BERING SEA QUESTION**; **FISHERIES**: 1911-1912; **PRIIBLOV ISLANDS**.

PELAGOSA, island in the Adriatic sea, off the coast of Apulia, Italy. In 1915 it was occupied by the Italians, who were allowed to retain it by the Treaty of Rapallo in 1920. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915; **IX. Naval operations**: b, 4; **LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF**; **RAPALLO, TREATY OF** (1920).

PELASGIANS.—Under this name we have vague knowledge of a people whom the Greeks of historic times refer to as having preceded them in the occupancy of the Hellenic peninsula and Asia Minor, and whom they looked upon as being kindred to themselves in race. In Homeric times the Pelasgians seem to have been a people of southern Thessaly, while in the "Iliad" they are mentioned as the allies of the Trojans. Recent historians have used the word to refer to the peoples of Greece, before the Aryan invasion, to whom is attributed the pre-Mycenæan civilization. Some historians attribute the Mycenæan civilization itself to the Pelasgians, holding that they gradually absorbed their Aryan conquerors, the Achæans. "Such information as the Hellenes . . . possessed about the Pelasgi, was in truth very scanty. They did not look upon them as a mythical people of huge giants—as, for example, in the popular tales of the modern Greeks the ancestors of the latter are represented as mighty warriors, towering to the height of poplar trees. There exist no Pelasgian

myths, no Pelasgian gods, to be contrasted with the Greeks. . . . Thucydides, in whom the historic consciousness of the Hellenes finds its clearest expression, also regards the inhabitants of Hellas from the most ancient times, Pelasgi as well as Hellenes, as one nation. . . . And furthermore, according to his opinion genuine sons of these ancient Pelasgi continued through all times to dwell in different regions, and especially in Attica."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece, bk. 1, ch. 1*.—"It is inevitable that modern historians should take widely divergent views of a nation concerning which tradition is so uncertain. Some writers, among whom is Kiepert, think that the Pelasgi were a Semitic tribe, who immigrated into Greece. This theory, though it explains their presence on the coast, fails to account for their position at Dodona and in Thessaly. . . . In another view, which has received the assent of Thirlwall and Duncker, Pelasgian is nothing more than the name of the ancient inhabitants of the country, which subsequently gave way to the title Achæan, as this in its turn was supplanted by the term Hellenes. . . . We have no evidence to support the idea of a Pelasgic Age as a period of simple habits and agricultural occupations, which slowly gave way before the more martial age of the Achæans. The civilization of the 'Achæan Age' exists only in the epic poems, and the 'Pelasgic Age' is but another name for the prehistoric Greeks, of whose agriculture we know nothing."—E. Abbott, *History of Greece, pt. 1, ch. 2*.—See also **DORIANS AND IONIANS**; **ARYANS**: Meaning of term; **ITALY**: Ancient; **ÆNOTRIANS**; **PERRHÆBIANS**.

ALSO IN: M. Duncker, *History of Greece, bk. 1, ch. 2*.

PELAYO (died c. 737), king of Asturias (or Oviedo), 718-737. See **SPAIN**: 713-950.

PELEE, Mount, volcano in the island of Martinique. See **WEST INDIES**: 1902.

PELEW ISLANDS, in the Pacific ocean, east of the Philippines.

1899.—Sale to Germany by Spain. See **CAROLINE ISLANDS**: 1899-1920.

1919.—Yielded to Japan by Treaty of Versailles. See **PACIFIC OCEAN**: 1919-1921.

PELHAM, Henry (1696-1754), English statesman. Prime minister, 1743-1754. See **ENGLAND**: 1745.

PELIGNIANS, ancient people of central Italy. See **SABINES**.

PELISIPIA, name given proposed state in the northwest territories of the United States. See **NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES**: 1784.

PELLA, new Macedonian capital founded by Archelaus, the ninth of the kings of Macedonia.

474.—Surrender to Ostrogoths. See **GOTHs**: 473-488.

PELLOUTIER, Fernand (1867-1901), French labor leader. See **LABOR ORGANIZATION**: 1867-1912.

PELLOUX, Luigi (1839-), Italian general and statesman. Member of chamber of deputies, 1881-1895; minister of war, 1891-1893; chief of the general staff, 1896; senator, 1896; minister of the interior, 1898; 1899-1900. See **ITALY**: 1899-1900.

PELONES, North American Indian tribe. See **APACHE GROUP**.

PELOPIDS, PELOPONNESUS. — "Among the ancient legendary genealogies, there was none which figured with greater splendour, or which attracted to itself a higher degree of poetical interest and pathos, than that of the Pelopids:—Tantalus, Pelops, Atreus and Thyestes, Agamemnon and Menelaus and Ægisthus, Helen and Klytaem-

nestra, Orestes and Elektra and Hermione. Each of these characters is a star of the first magnitude in the Grecian hemisphere. . . . Pelops is the eponym or name-giver of the Peloponnesus: to find an eponym for every conspicuous local name was the invariable turn of Grecian retrospective fancy. The name Peloponnesus is not to be found either in the *Iliad* or the *Odyssey*, nor any other denomination which can be attached distinctly and specially to the entire peninsula. But we meet with the name in one of the most ancient post-Homeric poems of which any fragments have been preserved—the *Cyprian Verses*. . . . The attributes by which the Pelopid Agamemnon and his house are marked out and distinguished from the other heroes of the *Iliad*, are precisely those which Grecian imagination would naturally seek in an eponym—superior wealth, power, splendour and regality.”—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 1, ch. 7.—“Of the . . . family of myths . . . that of Pelops [is] especially remarkable as attaching itself more manifestly and decisively than any other Heroic myth to Ionia and Lydia. We remember the royal house of Tantalus enthroned on the banks of the Sipylus, and intimately associated with the worship of the Phrygian Mother of the Gods. Members of this royal house emigrate and cross to Hellas from the Ionian ports; they bring with them bands of adventurous companions, a treasure of rich culture and knowledge of the world, arms and ornaments, and splendid implements of furniture, and gain a following among the natives, hitherto combined in no political union. . . . This was the notion formed by men like Thucydides as to the epoch occasioned by the appearance of the Pelopidae in the earliest ages of the nation; and what element in this notion is either improbable or untenable. Do not all the traditions connected with Achaean princes of the house of Pelops point with one consent over the sea to Lydia?”—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 1, ch. 3.

PELOPONNESIAN LEAGUE, league of Greek states against the Persians. See **ATHENS**: B.C. 492-479; B.C. 462-461; **GREECE**: B.C. 492-491; **SPARTA**: B.C. 743-510.

PELOPONNESIAN WAR. See **GREECE**: B.C. 435-432, to B.C. 405; **ATHENS**: B.C. 431, and after.

PELOPONNESUS, official name for part of Greece lying south of the Isthmus of Corinth. See **GREECE**; **SPARTA**; **DORIANS AND IONIANS**; **PELOPIDS**.

PELUCONES, one of the parties in Chilean politics, supposed to have some resemblance to the English Whigs.—Based on E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, p. 279.

PELUSIUM.—“Behind, as we enter Egypt [from the east] is the treacherous Lake Serbonis; in front the great marsh broadening towards the west; on the right the level melancholy shore of the almost tideless Mediterranean. At the very point of the angle stood of old the great stronghold Pelusium, Sin, in Ezekiel’s days, ‘the strength of Egypt’ (xxx. 15). The most eastward Nile-stream flowed behind the city, and on the north was a port commodious enough to hold an ancient fleet. . . . As the Egyptian monarchy waned, Pelusium grew in importance, for it was the strongest city of the border. Here the last king of the Saïte line, Psammetichus III, son of Amasis, awaited Cambyses. The battle of Pelusium, which crushed the native power, may almost take rank among the decisive battles of the world. Had the Persians failed, they might never have won the command of the Mediterranean, without which they could scarcely have invaded Greece. Of the details of the action we know nothing.”—R. S. Poole, *Cities*

of Egypt, ch. 11.—See also **PERSIA**: B.C. 549-521.—It was at Pelusium that Pompey, defeated and flying from Cæsar, was assassinated.

B.C. 47.—Taken by the king of Pergamus. See **ALEXANDRIA**: B.C. 48-47.

A.D. 616.—Surprised by Chosroes. See **EGYPT**: 616-628.

630.—Capture by Moslems. See **CALIPHATE**: 640-646.

PEMAQUID, land granted to the Duke of York in America, 1664. See **NEW YORK**: 1664; **AMERICA**: Map of early colonial grants; **NETHERLANDS**: 1674.

PEMAQUID PATENT. See **MAINE**: 1629-1631.

PEMBA ISLAND, coral island off the east coast of Africa, thirty miles north of Zanzibar. See **ZANZIBAR**; **AFRICA**: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century.

PEMBROKE, William Marshal, Earl of (c. 1146-1219), English soldier. Served Henry II, Richard and John; elected regent, 1216. See **ENGLAND**: 1216-1272.

PEN SELWOOD, Battle of.—The first battle fought, 1016, between the English king Edmund, or Eadmund, Ironsides, and his Danish rival Cnut, or Canute, for the crown of England. The Dane was beaten.

PENA, Luis Saenz (1823-1907), Argentine statesman. See **ARGENTINA**: 1892; 1895.

PEÑA, Roque Saenz (1851-1914), Argentine statesman. See **ARGENTINA**: 1910-1914.

PENAL LAW. See **CRIMINAL LAW**.

PENANCE. See **SACRAMENTS**.

PENANG, island and town off the west coast of the Malay peninsula, at the northern end of the Straits Settlements, ranking next to Singapore in importance. The total estimated population of the island in 1921 was 304,572. Its official name is Prince Edward’s island.—See also **STRAITS SETTLEMENTS**: Conquest and settlement.

PENDLE, Forest of, former forest in Lancashire, England.

PENDLETON, Edmund (1721-1803), American patriot. Delegate to First Continental Congress. See **U.S.A.**: 1774 (September).

PENDLETON, George Hunt (1825-1889), American statesman. See **U.S.A.**: 1864 (May-November).

PENDLETON BILL (1883). See **CIVIL SERVICE REFORM**: United States: 1880-1883.

PENDLETON LAW (1907). See **TENNESSEE**: 1887-1908.

PENDRAGON. See **DRAGON**.

PENDULUM CLOCK. See **INVENTIONS**: 16th-17th centuries: Time measurement.

PENESTÆ.—In ancient Thessaly there was “a class of serfs, or dependent cultivators, corresponding to the Laconian Helots, who, tilling the lands of the wealthy oligarchs, paid over a proportion of its produce, furnished the retainers by which these great families were surrounded, served as their followers in the cavalry, and were in a condition of villanage,—yet with the important reserve that they could not be sold out of the country, that they had a permanent tenure in the soil, and that they maintained among one another the relations of family and village. This . . . order of men, in Thessaly called the Penestæ, is assimilated by all ancient authors to the Helots of Laconia.”—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 3.

PENINSULAR CAMPAIGN OF McCLELLAN. See **U.S.A.**: 1862 (March-May: Virginia); (May: Virginia); (June: Virginia); (June-July: Virginia); (July-August: Virginia): End of peninsular campaign.

PENINSULAR WAR, Spanish. See SPAIN: 1807-1808, to 1812-1814.

PENN, John (1741-1788), American patriot. Signer of the Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

PENN, William (1644-1718), English Quaker, founder of Pennsylvania. Became trustee of West Jersey, 1676; received grant of Pennsylvania, 1681; founded Philadelphia and made a treaty with the Indians, 1682.

Grant of Pennsylvania.—Settlement of Quakers. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1681; 1682; U.S.A.: 1607-1752; FRIENDS, SOCIETY OF: 1656-1702; PENNSYLVANIA GERMANS.

Frame of Government.—Purchase of East Jersey. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1681-1682; NEW JERSEY: 1673-1682.

Treaty with Indians.—Founding of Philadelphia. See DELAWARES; PENNSYLVANIA: 1682-1685; PHILADELPHIA: Penn's commission.

Quarrels with Lord Baltimore over Maryland boundary. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1685.

Essay on peace of Europe. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Former projects.

Separates Delaware and Pennsylvania. See DELAWARE: 1691-1702.

Plan of colonial unions. See U.S.A.: 1696-1697.

Difficulties at close of life. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1701-1718.

PENNA, Alfonso (d. 1909), president of Brazil, 1906-1909. See BRAZIL: 1906: Presidential election; 1909-1910.

PENNA COOKS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

PENNAMITE AND YANKEE WAR (1786-1799). See PENNSYLVANIA: 1753-1799.

PENNONS. See FLAGS: Origin.

PENNSYLVANIA. **Area.**—Population.—Geographical description.—Resources and climate.—Pennsylvania, sometimes called the "Keystone State," is a middle Atlantic state, and one of the original thirteen. It has an area of 45,126 square miles, and in 1920 it had a population of 8,720,017. "An examination of a good map of Pennsylvania will show that the state forms almost an exact parallelogram, touching the waters of the Delaware on its eastern boundary and extending to Ohio and West Virginia on the west and to Lake Erie on the northwest, with straight lines forming its northern and southern and western boundaries; that throughout nearly its whole extent it is traversed by numerous mountain ranges of the Appalachian system, . . . from northeast to southwest; that it is remarkably well watered by large rivers and their mountain tributaries; that it has very few lakes, most of which are but little larger than ponds; and that between its mountain ranges are many valleys of considerable extent, the most noted being the Schuylkill, Wyoming, Chester, Lebanon, Cumberland, Juniata; Ligonier, Monongahela, Allegheny, Shenango, and Ohio valleys. Many of the mountain ranges of Pennsylvania lead up to extensive and fertile plateaus upon which may be found well-tilled farms and attractive and prosperous towns and villages."—J. M. Swank, *Progressive Pennsylvania*, pp. 75-76.—"Corn is a great product between the Alleghenies and the Delaware river; wheat and rye have always been extensively produced in all the valleys of the State; tobacco during many years has been a large and profitable product in Lancaster and a few other counties. Orchard fruits of all kinds adapted to the climate, grapes and other small fruits in some districts have all added to the

wealth and prosperity of the agricultural population. [See U.S.A.: Economic map.] The climate of Pennsylvania is widely varied. . . . In the southern and eastern parts the summers are hot and the winters reasonably temperate. On the Allegheny highlands and the central and northern uplands the winters are very severe. . . . Until the middle of the last century Pennsylvania was pre-eminently a great and rich agricultural Commonwealth. From that time forward, the construction of numerous railroads and other transportation facilities, gave a powerful impetus to a great variety of other interests."—H. M. Jenkins, ed., *Pennsylvania, colonial and federal*, v. 3, p. 475.

Aboriginal inhabitants and their relations to the white colonists. See DELAWARES; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests, etc.; SUSQUEHANNAS; SHAWANESE.

1629-1664.—Dutch and Swedes on the Delaware. See DELAWARE; 1629-1631, and after.

1632.—Partly embraced in the Maryland grant to Lord Baltimore. See MARYLAND: 1632.

1634.—Partly embraced in the Palatine grant of New Albion. See NEW ALBION.

1641.—Settlement from New Haven, on the site of Philadelphia. See NEW JERSEY: 1640-1655.

1664.—Partly included in grant to duke of York. See NEW YORK: 1664.

1673.—Repossession of the Delaware by the Dutch. See NEW YORK: 1673.

1681.—Proprietary grant to William Penn.—"William Penn was descended from a long line of sailor ancestors. His father, an admiral in the British navy, had held various important naval commands, and in recognition of his services had been honored by knighthood. A member of Parliament, and possessed of a considerable fortune, the path of worldly advancement seemed open and easy for the feet of his son, who had received a liberal education at Oxford, continued in the schools of the Continent. . . . Fortune and preferment seemed to wait the acceptance of William Penn. But at the very outset of his career the Divine voice fell upon his ears as upon those of St. Paul." He became a follower of George Fox, and one of the people known as Quakers or Friends. "Many trials awaited the youthful convert. His father cast him off. He underwent a considerable imprisonment in the Tower for 'urging the cause of freedom with importunity.' . . . In time these afflictions abated. The influence of his family saved him from the heavier penalties which fell upon many of his co-religionists. His father on his death-bed reinstated him as his heir. 'Son William,' said the dying man, 'if you and your friends keep to your plain way of preaching and living, you will make an end of the priests.' Some years later we find him exerting an influence at Court which almost amounted to popularity. It is evident that, with all his boldness of opinion and speech, Penn possessed a tact and address which gave him the advantage over most of his sect in dealings with worldly people. . . . In 1680 his influence at Court and with moneyed men enabled him to purchase a large tract of land in east New Jersey, on which to settle a colony of Quakers, a previous colony having been sent out three years before to west New Jersey. Meanwhile a larger project filled his mind. His father had bequeathed to him a claim on the Crown for £16,000. Colonial property was then held in light esteem, and, with the help of some powerful friends, Penn was enabled so to press his claim as to secure the charter for that valuable grant which afterward became the State of Pennsylvania, and which included three degrees of latitude by

five of longitude, west from the Delaware. 'This day,' writes Penn, Jan. 5, 1681, 'my country was confirmed to me by the name of Pennsylvania, a name the king [Charles II] would give it in honour of my father. I chose New Wales, being as this a pretty hilly country. I proposed (when the Secretary, a Welshman, refused to have it called New Wales) Sylvania, and they added Penn to it, and although I much opposed it, and went to the King to have it struck out and altered, he said 'twas past, and he would take it upon him. . . . I feared lest it should be looked upon as a vanity in me, and not as a respect of the King, as it truly was, to my father, whom he often mentions with praise.' 'In return for this grant of 26,000,000 of acres of the best land in the universe, William Penn, it was agreed, was to deliver annually at Windsor Castle two beaver-skins, pay into the King's treasury one fifth of the gold and silver which the province might yield, and govern the province in conformity with the laws of England and as became a liege of England's King. He was to appoint judges and magistrates, could pardon all crimes except murder and treason, and whatsoever things he could lawfully do himself, he could appoint a deputy to do, he and his heirs forever.' The original grant was fantastically limited by a circle drawn twelve miles distant from Newcastle, northward and westward, to the beginning of the 40th degree of latitude. This was done to accommodate the Duke of York, who wished to retain the three lower counties as an appanage to the State of New York. A few months later he was persuaded to renounce this claim, and the charter of Penn was extended to include the western and southern shores of the Delaware Bay and River from the 43d degree of latitude to the Atlantic. . . . The charter confirmed, a brief account of the country was published, and lands offered for sale on the easy terms of 40 shillings a hundred acres, and one shilling's rent a year in perpetuity. Numerous adventurers, many of them men of wealth and respectability, offered. The articles of agreement included a provision as to 'just and friendly conduct toward the natives.' . . . In April, 1681, he sent forward 'young Mr. Markham,' his relative, with a small party of colonists to take possession of the grant, and prepare for his own coming during the following year. . . . In August, 1682, Penn himself embarked.—S. Coolidge (S. C. Woolsey), *Short history of Philadelphia*, ch. 2.—"The charter [to Penn], which is given complete in Hazard's Annals, consists of 23 articles, with a preamble. . . . The grant comprises all that part of America, islands included, which is bounded on the east by the Delaware River from a point on a circle twelve miles northward of New Castle town to the 43° north latitude if the Delaware extends so far; if not, as far as it does extend, and thence to the 43° by a meridian line. From this point westward five degrees of longitude on the 43° parallel; the western boundary to the 40th parallel, and thence by a straight line to the place of beginning. . . . Grants Penn rights to and use of rivers, harbors, fisheries, etc. . . . Creates and constitutes him Lord Proprietary of the Province, saving only his allegiance to the King, Penn to hold directly of the kings of England, 'as of our castle of Windsor in the county of Berks, in free and common socage, by fealty only, for all services, and not in capite, or by Knight's service, yielding and paying therefore to us, our heirs and successors, two beaver-skins.' . . . Grants Penn and his successors, his deputies and lieutenants, 'free, full, and absolute power' to make laws for raising money for the public uses of the Province, and for other public purposes at

their discretion, by and with the advice and consent of the people or their representatives in assembly. . . . Grants power to appoint officers, judges, magistrates, etc., to pardon offenders."—J. T. Scharf and T. Westcott, *History of Philadelphia*, v. 1, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: T. Clarkson, *Memoirs of William Penn*, v. 1, ch. 16-17.—S. Hazard, *Annals of Pennsylvania*, pp. 485-504.

1681-1682.—Penn's Frame of Government.—Before the departure from England of the first company of colonists, Penn drew up a frame of government which he submitted to them, and to which they gave their assent and approval by their signatures, he signing the instrument likewise. The next year this frame of government was published by Penn, with a preface, "containing his own thoughts upon the origin, nature, object, and modes of Government. . . . The Frame, which followed this preface, consisted of twenty-four articles; and the Laws, which were annexed to the latter, were forty. By the Frame the government was placed in the Governor and Freemen of the province, out of whom were to be formed two bodies; namely, a Provincial Council and a General Assembly. These were to be chosen by the Freemen; and though the Governor or his Deputy was to be perpetual President, he was to have but a treble vote. The Provincial Council was to consist of seventy-two members. One third part, that is, twenty-four of them, were to serve for three years, one third for two, and the other third for one; so that there might be an annual succession of twenty-four new members each third part thus continuing for three years and no longer. It was the office of this Council to prepare and propose bills, to see that the laws were executed, to take care of the peace and safety of the province, to settle the situation of ports, cities, market towns, roads, and other public places, to inspect the public treasury, to erect courts of justice, institute schools, and reward the authors of useful discovery. Not less than two thirds of these were necessary to make a quorum; and the consent of not less than two thirds of such quorum in all matters of moment. The General Assembly was to consist the first year of all the freemen, and the next of two hundred. These were to be increased afterwards according to the increase of the population of the province. They were to have no deliberative power; but, when bills were brought to them from the Governor and Provincial Council, to pass or reject them by a plain Yes or No. They were to present sheriffs and justices of the peace to the Governor, a double number for his choice of half. They were to be elected annually. All elections of members, whether to the Provincial Council or General Assembly, were to be by ballot. And this Charter or Frame of Government was not to be altered, changed, or diminished in any part or clause of it, without the consent of the Governor, or his heirs or assigns, and six parts out of seven of the Freemen both in the Provincial Council and General Assembly. With respect to the Laws, which I said before were forty in number, I shall only at present observe of them that they related to whatever may be included under the term 'Good Government of the Province'; some of them to liberty of conscience; others to civil officers and their qualifications; others to offences; others to legal proceedings, such as pleadings, processes, fines, imprisonments, and arrests; others to the natural servants and poor of the province. With respect to all of them it may be observed, that, like the Frame itself, they could not be altered but by the consent of the Governor or his heirs and

the consent of six parts out of seven of the two bodies before mentioned."—T. Clarkson, *Memoirs of William Penn*, v. 1, ch. 18.

Also in: S. Hazard, *Annals of Pennsylvania*, pp. 558-574.

1682.—Acquisition by Penn of claims of duke of York to Delaware.—"During the negotiations between New Netherland and Maryland in 1659, the Dutch insisted that, as Lord Baltimore's patent covered only savage or uninhabited territory, it could not affect their own possession of the Delaware region. Accordingly, they held it against Maryland until it was taken from them by the Duke of York in 1664. But James's title by conquest had never been confirmed to him by a grant from the king; and Cecilus Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore, insisted that Delaware belonged to Maryland. To quiet controversy, the duke had offered to buy off Baltimore's claim, to which he would not agree. Penn afterward refused a large offer by Fenwick 'to get of the duke his interest in Newcastle and those parts' for West Jersey. Thus stood the matter when the Pennsylvania charter was sealed. Its proprietor soon found that his province, wholly inland, wanted a front on the sea. As Delaware was 'necessary' to Pennsylvania, Penn 'endeavored to get it' from the duke by maintaining that Baltimore's pretension 'was against law, civil and common.' Charles Calvert, the third Lord Baltimore, was 'very free' in talking against the Duke of York's rights; but he could not circumvent Penn. The astute Quaker readily got from James a quit-claim of all his interest in the territory included within the proper bounds of Pennsylvania. After a struggle, Penn also gained the more important conveyances [August, 1682] to himself of the duke's interest in all the region within a circle of twelve miles [radius] around Newcastle, and extending southward as far as Cape Henlopen. The triumphant Penn set sail the next week. At Newcastle he received from James's agents formal possession of the surrounding territory, and of the region farther south."—J. R. Brodhead, *History of New York*, v. 2, ch. 7.

1682-1685.—Penn's arrival in his province.—His treaty with the Indians.—Founding of Philadelphia.—Penn sailed, in person, for his province on September 1, 1682, on the ship *Welcome*, with 100 fellow passengers, mostly Friends (see FRIENDS, SOCIETY OF: 1656-1702), and landed at Newcastle after a dreary voyage, during which thirty of his companions had died of smallpox. "Next day he called the people together in the Dutch court-house, when he went through the legal forms of taking possession. . . . Penn's great powers being legally established, he addressed the people in profoundest silence. He spoke of the reasons for his coming—the great idea which he had nursed from his youth upwards—his desire to found a free and virtuous state, in which the people should rule themselves. . . . He spoke of the constitution he had published for Pennsylvania as containing his theory of government; and promised the settlers on the lower reaches of the Delaware, that the same principles should be adopted in their territory. Every man in his provinces, he said should enjoy liberty of conscience and his share of political power. . . . The people listened to this speech with wonder and delight. . . . They had but one request to make in answer; that he would stay amongst them and reign over them in person. They besought him to annex their territory to Pennsylvania, in order that the white settlers might have one country, one parliament, and one ruler. He promised, at their desire, to take the question of a union of the two provinces into

consideration, and submit it to an assembly then about to meet at Upland. So he took his leave. Ascending the Delaware . . . the adventurers soon arrived at the Swedish town of Upland, then the place of chief importance in the province. . . . Penn changed the name from Upland to Chester, and as Chester it is known. Markham and the three commissioners had done their work so well that in a short time after Penn's arrival, the first General Assembly, elected by universal suffrage, was ready to meet. . . . As soon as Penn had given them assurances similar to those which he had made in Newcastle, they proceeded to discuss, amend, and accept the Frame of Government and the Provisional Laws. The settlers on the Delaware sent representatives to this Assembly, and one of their first acts was to declare the two provinces united. The constitution was adopted without important alteration; and to the forty laws were added twenty-one others, and the infant code was passed in form. . . . Penn paid some visits to



WILLIAM PENN

the neighbouring seats of government in New York, Maryland, and the Jerseys. At West River, Lord Baltimore came forth to meet him with a retinue of the chief persons in the province. . . . It was impossible to adjust the boundary, and the two proprietors separated with the resolution to maintain their several rights. . . . The lands already bought from the Redmen were now put up for sale at four-pence an acre, with a reserve of one shilling for every hundred acres as quit-rent; the latter sum intended to form a state revenue for the Governor's support. Amidst these sales and settlements he recollected George Fox, for whose use and profit he set aside a thousand acres of the best land in the province. . . . Penn was no less careful for the Redskins. Laying on one side all ceremonial manners, he won their hearts by his easy confidence and familiar speech. He walked with them alone into the forests. He sat with them on the ground to watch the young men dance. He joined in their feasts, and ate their roasted hominy and acorns. . . . Having now become intimate with Tamiment and other of the native kings, who had approved these treaties, seeing great advantages in them for their people, he proposed to

hold a conference with the chiefs and warriors, to confirm the former treaties and form a lasting league of peace. On the banks of the Delaware, in the suburbs of the rising city of Philadelphia, lay a natural amphitheatre, used from time immemorial as a place of meeting for the native tribes. The name of Sakimaxing—now corrupted by the white men into Shackamaxon—means the place of kings. At this spot stood an aged elm-tree, one of those glorious elms which mark the forests of the New World. It was a hundred and fifty-five years old; under its spreading branches friendly nations had been wont to meet; and here the Redskins smoked the calumet of peace long before the pale-faces landed on those shores. Markham had appointed this locality for his first conference, and the land commissioners wisely followed his example. Old traditions had made the place sacred to one of the contracting parties,—and when Penn proposed his solemn conference, he named Sakimaxing [or Shackamaxon] as a place of meeting with the Indian kings. Artists have painted, poets sung, philosophers praised this meeting of the white men and the red [November, 1683]. . . . All being seated, the old king announced to the Governor that the natives were prepared to hear and consider his words. Penn then rose to address them. . . . He and his children, he went on to say, never fired the rifle, never trusted to the sword; they met the red men on the broad path of good faith and good will. They meant no harm, and had no fear. He read the treaty of friendship, and explained its clauses. It recited that from that day the children of Onas and the nations of the Lenni Lenapé should be brothers to each other,—that all paths should be free and open,—that the doors of the white men should be open to the red men, and the lodges of the red men should be open to the white men,—that the children of Onas should not believe any false reports of the Lenni Lenapé, nor the Lenni Lenapé of the children of Onas, but should come and see for themselves, . . . that if any son of Onas were to do any harm to any Redskin, or any Redskin were to do harm to a son of Onas, the sufferer should not offer to right himself, but should complain to the chiefs and to Onas, that justice might be declared by twelve honest men, and the wrong buried in a pit with no bottom,—that the Lenni Lenapé should assist the white men, and the white men should assist the Lenni Lenapé, against all such as would disturb them or do them hurt; and, lastly, that both Christians and Indians should tell their children of this league and chain of friendship, that it might grow stronger and stronger, and be kept bright and clean, without rust or spot, while the waters ran down the creeks and rivers, and while the sun and moon and stars endured. He laid the scroll on the ground. The sachems received his proposal for themselves and for their children. No oaths, no seals, no mummeries, were used; the treaty was ratified on both sides with yea,—and, unlike treaties which are sworn and sealed, was kept. When Penn had sailed, he held a note in his mind of six things to be done on landing: (1) to organize his government; (2) to visit Friends in Delaware, Pennsylvania and New Jersey; (3) to conciliate the Indians; (4) to see the Governor of New York, who had previously governed his province; (5) to fix the site for his capital city; (6) to arrange his differences with Lord Baltimore. The subject of his chief city occupied his anxious thought, and Markham had collected information for his use. Some people wished to see Chester made his capital; but the surveyor, Thomas Holme, agreed with Penn that

the best locality in almost every respect was the neck of land lying at the junction of the Delaware and the Skuylkill rivers. . . . The point was known as Wicocoa. . . . The land was owned by three Swedes, from whom Penn purchased it on their own terms; and then, with the assistance of Holme, he drew his plan. . . . Not content to begin humbly, and allow house to be added to house, and street to street, as people wanted them, he formed the whole scheme of his city—its name, its form, its streets, its docks, and open spaces—fair and perfect in his mind, before a single stone was laid. According to his original design, Philadelphia was to cover with its houses, squares, and gardens, twelve square miles. . . . One year from the date of Penn's landing in the New World, a hundred houses had been built; two years later there were six hundred houses."—W. H. Dixon, *History of William Penn*, ch. 24-25.—See also PHILADELPHIA: Penn's commission; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

ALSO IN: J. T. Scharf and T. Westcott, *History of Philadelphia*, v. 1, ch. 9.—*Memoirs of the Pennsylvania Historical Society*, v. 6.—W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular history of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 20.

1682-1776.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1685.—Maryland boundary question.—Points in dispute with Lord Baltimore.—"The grant to Penn confused the old controversy between Virginia and Lord Baltimore as to their boundary, and led to fresh controversies. The question soon arose: What do the descriptions, 'the beginning of the fortieth,' and 'the beginning of the three and fortieth degree of northern latitude,' mean? If they meant the 40th and 43d parallels of north latitude, as most historians have held, Penn's province was the zone, three degrees of latitude in width, that leaves Philadelphia a little to the south and Syracuse a little to the north; but if those descriptions meant the belts lying between 39° and 40°, and 42° and 43°, as some authors have held, then Penn's southern and northern boundaries were 39° and 42° north. A glance at the map of Pennsylvania will show the reader how different the territorial dispositions would have been if either one of these constructions had been carried out. The first construction would avoid disputes on the south, unless with Virginia west of the mountains; on the north it would not conflict with New York, but would most seriously conflict with Connecticut and Massachusetts west of the Delaware. The second construction involved disputes with the two southern colonies concerning the degree 39-40 to the farthest limit of Pennsylvania, and it also overlapped Connecticut's claim to the degree 41-42. Perhaps we cannot certainly say what was the intention of the king, or Penn's first understanding; but the Quaker proprietary and his successors adopted substantially the second construction, and thus involved their province in the most bitter disputes. The first quarrel was with Lord Baltimore. It has been well said that this 'notable quarrel' 'continued more than eighty years; was the cause of endless trouble between individuals; occupied the attention not only of the proprietors of the respective provinces, but of the Lords of Trade and Plantations, of the High Court of Chancery, and of the Privy Councils of at least three monarchs; it greatly retarded the settlement and development of a beautiful and fertile country, and brought about numerous tumults, which sometimes ended in bloodshed.'"—B. A. Hinsdale, *Old Northwest*, ch. 7.—"As the Duke of York claimed, by right of conquest, the settlements on the western shores of the Bay of



WILLIAM PENN'S TREATY OF LASTING FRIENDSHIP WITH THE INDIANS
A meeting held under the great elm at Shackamaxon, now Kensington, November, 1683
(After painting by Benjamin West)

Delaware, and had, by his deed of 1682, transferred to William Penn his title to that country, embracing the town of Newcastle and twelve miles around it (as a reasonable portion of land attached to it), and as far down as what was then called Cape Henlopen; an important subject of controversy was the true situation of that cape, and the ascertainment of the southern and western boundaries of the country along the bay, as transferred by the Duke's deed. . . . After two personal interviews in America, the Proprietaries separated without coming to any arrangement and with mutual recriminations and dissatisfaction. And they each wrote to the Lords of Plantations excusing themselves and blaming the other. . . . At length, in 1685, one important step was taken toward the decision of the conflicting claims of Maryland and Pennsylvania, by a decree of King James' Council, which ordered, 'that for avoiding further differences, the tract of land lying between the Bay of Delaware and the eastern sea, on the one side, and the Chesapeake Bay on the other, be divided into equal parts, by a line from the latitude of Cape Henlopen to the 40th degree of north latitude, the southern boundary of Pennsylvania by Charter; and that the one half thereof, lying towards the Bay of Delaware and the eastern sea, be adjudged to belong to his majesty, and the other half to Lord Baltimore, as comprised in his charter.' . . . This decree of King James, which evidently exhibits a partiality towards the claims of Penn, in decreeing the eastern half of the peninsula to his majesty, with whom Lord Baltimore could not presume, and indeed had declined to dispute, instead of to the Proprietary himself, by no means remove the difficulties which hung over this tedious, expensive, and vexatious litigation. For . . . there existed as much uncertainty with respect to the true situation of Cape Henlopen and the ascertainment of the middle of the Peninsula, as any points in contest."—J. Dunlop, *Memoir on the controversy between William Penn and Lord Baltimore (Memoirs of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, v. 1)*.—See also below: 1760-1767.

1691-1693.—Practical separation of Delaware. See DELAWARE: 1691-1702.

1692-1696.—Keith's schism.—Penn deprived of his government.—Later restoration.—Early resistance to proprietary yoke.—"While New England and New York were suffering from war, superstition, and the bitterness of faction, Pennsylvania was not without internal troubles. These troubles originated with George Keith, a Scotch Quaker, formerly surveyor-general of East Jersey, and at this time master of the Quaker school at Philadelphia, and champion of the Quakers against Cotton Mather and the Boston ministers. Pressing the doctrines of non-resistance to their logical conclusion, Keith advanced the opinion that Quaker principles were not consistent with the exercise of political authority. He also attacked negro slavery as inconsistent with those principles. There is no surer way of giving mortal offense to a sect or party than to call upon it to be consistent with its own professed doctrines. Keith was disowned by the yearly meeting, but he forthwith instituted a meeting of his own, to which he gave the name of Christian Quakers. In reply to a 'Testimony of Denial' put forth against him, he published an 'Address,' in which he handled his adversaries with very little ceremony. He was fined by the Quaker magistrates for insolence, and Bradford, the only printer in the colony [see PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1685-1693] was called to account for having published Keith's address. Though he obtained a discharge, Bradford, how-

ever, judged it expedient to remove his types to New York, which now [1692] first obtained a printing press. The Episcopalians and other non-Quakers professed great sympathy for Keith, and raised a loud outcry against Quaker intolerance. Keith himself presently embraced Episcopacy, went to England, and took orders there. The Quaker magistrates were accused of hostility to the Church of England, and in the alleged maladministration of his agents, joined with his own suspected loyalty, a pretense was found for depriving Penn of the government—a step taken by the Privy Council without any of the forms, or, indeed, any authority of law, though justified by the opinions of some of the leading Whig lawyers of that day." Governor Fletcher of New York was now authorized for a time to administer the government of Pennsylvania and Delaware. "He accordingly visited Philadelphia, and called an Assembly in which deputies from both provinces were present. Penn's frame of government was disregarded, the Assembly being modeled after that of New York. Fletcher hoped to obtain a salary for himself and some contributions toward the defense of the northern frontier. The Quakers, very reluctant to vote money at all, had special scruples about the lawfulness of war. They were also very suspicious of designs against their liberties, and refused to enter on any business until the existing laws and liberties of the province had been first expressly confirmed. This concession reluctantly made, Fletcher obtained the grant of a small sum of money, not, however, without stipulating that it 'should not be dipped in blood.' . . . The suspicions against Penn soon dying away, the administration of his province was restored to him [1694]. But the pressure of his private affairs—for he was very much in debt—detained him in England, and he sent a commission to Markham [his relative and representative in Pennsylvania] to act as his deputy. An Assembly called by Markham refused to recognize the binding force of Penn's frame of government, which, indeed, had been totally disregarded by Fletcher. To the restrictions on their authority imposed by that frame they would not submit. A second Assembly [1696] proved equally obstinate, and, as the only means of obtaining a vote of the money required of the province toward the defense of New York Markham was obliged to agree to a new act of settlement, securing to the Assembly the right of originating laws. A power of disapproval was reserved, however, to the proprietary, and this act never received Penn's sanction."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States, v. 2, ch. 21*.

ALSO IN: G. E. Ellis, *Life of Penn, ch. 10 (American Biography, series 2, v. 12)*.—G. P. Fisher, *Colonial era, ch. 16*.

1693-1694.—Reunion and final separation from Delaware. See DELAWARE: 1691-1702.

1696-1749.—Suppression of colonial manufactures. See U.S.A.: 1696-1749.

17th century.—Review of educational development. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: United States.

18th century.—Beginning of westward expansion. See U.S.A.: 1681-1750.

1701.—Treaty with Indians. See SUSQUEHANNA.

1701-1718.—New Charter of privileges and city charter of Philadelphia.—Divorcing of Delaware.—Differences with the proprietary.—Death of Penn.—It was not until 1699 that Penn returned to his domain after an absence of fifteen years, and his brief stay of two years was not made wholly agreeable to him. Between him and

his colonists there were many points of friction, as was inevitable under the relationship in which they stood to one another. The assembly of the province would not be persuaded to contribute to the fortification of the northern frontier of the king's dominions (in New York) against the French and Indians. Penn's influence, however, prevailed upon that body to adopt measures for suppressing both piracy and illicit trade. With much difficulty, moreover, he settled with his subjects the terms of a new constitution of government, or Charter of Privileges, as it was called. The old Frame of Government was formally abandoned and the government of Pennsylvania was now organized upon an entirely new footing. (See also PHILADELPHIA: 1701.) "The new charter for the province and territories, signed by Penn, October 25, 1701, was more republican in character than those of the neighboring colonies. It not only provided for an assembly of the people with great powers, including those of creating courts, but to a certain extent it submitted to the choice of the people the nomination of some of the county officers. The section concerning liberty of conscience did not discriminate against the members of the Church of Rome. The closing section fulfilled the promise already made by Penn, that in case the representatives of the two territorial districts [Pennsylvania proper, held under Penn's original grant, and the Lower Counties, afterwards constituting Delaware, which he acquired from the Duke of York] could not agree within three years to join in legislative business, the Lower Counties should be separated from Pennsylvania. On the same day Penn established by letters-patent a council of state for the province, 'to consult and assist the proprietary himself or his deputy with the best of their advice and council in public affairs and matters relating to the government and the peace and well-being of the people; and in the absence of the proprietary, or upon the deputy's absence out of the province, his death, or other incapacity, to exercise all and singular the powers of government.' The original town and borough of Philadelphia, having by this time 'become near equal to the city of New York in trade and riches,' was raised, by patent of the 25th of October, 1701, to the rank of a city, and, like the province, could boast of having a more liberal charter than her neighbors; for the municipal officers were to be elected by the representatives of the people of the city, and not appointed by the governor, as in New York. The government of the province had been entrusted by Penn to Andrew Hamilton, also governor for the proprietors in New Jersey, with James Logan as provincial secretary, to whom was likewise confided the management of the proprietary estates, thus making him in reality the representative of Penn and the leader of his party. Hamilton died in December, 1702; but before his death he had endeavored in vain to bring the representatives of the two sections of his government together again. The Delaware members remained obstinate, and finally, while Edward Shippen, a member of the council and first mayor of Philadelphia, was acting as president, it was settled that they should have separate assemblies, entirely independent of each other. The first separate assembly for Pennsylvania proper met at Philadelphia, in October, 1703, and by its first resolution showed that the Quakers, so dominant in the province, were beginning to acquire a taste for authority, and meant to color their religion with the hue of political power." In December, 1703, John Evans, a young Welshman, appointed deputy-governor by Penn, arrived at Philadelphia,

and was soon involved in quarrels with the assemblies. "At one time they had for ground the refusal of the Quakers to support the war which was waging against the French and Indians on the frontiers. At another they disagreed upon the establishment of a judiciary. These disturbances produced financial disruptions, and Penn himself suffered therefrom to such an extent that he was thrown into a London prison, and had finally to mortgage his province for £6,600. The recall of Evans in 1709, and the appointment of Charles Gookin in his stead, did not mend matters. Logan, Penn's intimate friend and representative, was finally compelled to leave the country; and, going to England (1710), he induced Penn to write a letter to the Pennsylvania assembly, in which he threatened to sell the province to the crown, a surrender by which he was to receive £12,000. The transfer was in fact prevented by an attack of apoplexy from which Penn suffered in 1712. The epistle, however, brought the refractory assembly to terms." In 1717 Gookin involved himself in Irish troubles and was recalled. Sir William Keith was then appointed "the last governor commissioned by Penn himself; for the great founder of Pennsylvania died in 1718. . . . After Penn's death his heirs went to law among themselves about the government and proprietary rights in Pennsylvania."—B. Fernow, *Middle colonies (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 5, ch. 3)*.

ALSO IN: G. E. Ellis, *Life of Penn (American Biography, series 2, v. 12, ch. 11-12)*.—R. Proud, *History of Pennsylvania, v. 1-2, ch. 14-22*.—Penn and Logan correspondence (*Memoirs of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, v. 9-10*).

1709-1710.—Immigration of Palatines and other Germans. See PALATINES.

1710-1740.—Scotch-Irish influence in the colony.—"The larger part of the Scotch-Irish migration to America appears to have come to Pennsylvania attracted probably by the fame of the colony for religious liberty and fertile soil. They scattered themselves to some extent all over the State, . . . but the greater part congregated in what is now known as the Cumberland valley. This valley was, in colonial times, known as the Kittochinney, afterwards changed into Kittatinney, and now Cumberland. . . . Fighting had become part of the religion of the Scotch-Irish, as peace was part of the religion of the Quakers, and they used the rifle to settle difficulties with the Indians which the Quakers settled by a treaty. Rough, independent, and vigorous, they sometimes carried these qualities to excess, and became connected with a great deal of the disorder which marked the history of the colony. They were the instigators of the Whiskey Rebellion, which Washington put down soon after the Revolution, and in the records of the colonial period we usually find them described as uncivilized and cruel. In his 'Introductory Memoir to the Journal of Braddock's Expedition,' Sargent has a passage which, although the Scotch-Irish have objected to it is a very fair description of them at that time: 'They were a hardy, brave, hot-headed race, excitable in temper, unrestrainable in passion, invincible in prejudice. Their hand opened as impetuously to a friend as it clinched against an enemy. They loathed the Pope as sincerely as they venerated Calvin or Knox, and they did not particularly respect the Quakers. If often rude and lawless, it was partly the fault of their position. They hated the Indian while they despised him, and it does not seem, in their dealings with this race, as though there were any sentiments of honor or magnanimity in their bosoms that could hold way

against the furious tide of passionate, blind resentment. Impatient of restraint, rebellious against everything that in their eyes bore the semblance of injustice, we find these men readiest among the ready on the battle-fields of the Revolution. If they had faults, a lack of patriotism or of courage was not among the number.' . . . Large numbers of them marched to the York Barrens, 'in what was then Lancaster County near the Maryland boundary line, without first offering to buy the land from William Penn. When spoken to on the subject, they replied that Penn had solicited colonists and they had come accordingly. A more serious offence was their settling without purchase on the lands of the Indians, an intrusion which is generally believed to have caused several massacres. In 1743 the proprietors began to eject them from the unpurchased lands, and as a preliminary proceeding ordered a careful survey to be made. The surveyors and the assistants were resisted, their instruments broken, and they were compelled to retire. The Scotch Irishmen insisted that the land was theirs, because they had expended time and labor in its improvement. But when legal proceedings were begun, they submitted, accepted leases, and in the end many of them purchased the lands; and this submission has been considered by some of their descendants as an act of remarkable graciousness.'—S. G. Fisher, *Making of Pennsylvania*, pp. 163-166.—See also SCOTCH-IRISH.

1731-1732.—Franklin and the first subscription library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Franklin, etc.

1740-1741.—First settlements and missions of Moravian Brethren. See MORAVIAN, OR BOHEMIAN, BRETHREN: Saxony and America.

1743.—Origin of University of Pennsylvania. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1683-1791.

1745.—King George's War.—Capture of Louisburg. See NEW ENGLAND: 1745.

1748-1754.—First movements beyond the mountains to dispute possession with the French. See OHIO: 1748-1754.

1753-1799.—Connecticut claims and settlements in Wyoming valley.—Susquehanna Company's treaty with the Five Nations.—Pennamite and Yankee War.—"The charter bounds [of Connecticut] extended west to the Pacific Ocean [see CONNECTICUT: 1662-1664]: this would have carried Connecticut over a strip covering the northern two fifths of the present State of Pennsylvania. Stuart faithlessness interfered with this doubly. Almost immediately after the grant of the charter, Charles granted to his brother James the Dutch colony of New Netherland, thus interrupting the continuity of Connecticut. Rather than resist the king's brother, Connecticut agreed and ratified the interruption. In 1681 a more serious interference took place. Charles granted to Penn the province of Pennsylvania, extending westward five degrees between the 40th and 43d parallels of north latitude." Under the final compromise of Penn's boundary dispute with Lord Baltimore the northern line of Pennsylvania was moved southward to latitude 42° instead of 43°; but it still absorbed five degrees in length of the Connecticut western belt. "The territory taken from Connecticut by the Penn grant would be bounded southerly on the present map by a straight line entering Pennsylvania about Stroudsburg, just north of the Delaware Water Gap, and running west through Hazelton, Catawissa, Clearfield, and New Castle, taking in all the northern coal, iron, and oil fields. It was a royal heritage, but the Penns made no attempt to settle it, and

Connecticut until the middle of the 18th century had no energy to spare from the task of winning her home territory 'out of the fire, as it were, by hard blows and for small recompense.' This task had been fairly well done by 1750, and in 1753 a movement to colonize in the Wyoming country was set on foot in Windham county. It spread by degrees until the Susquehanna Company was formed the next year, with nearly 700 members, of whom 638 were of Connecticut. Their agents made a treaty with the Five Nations July 11, 1754, by which they bought for £2,000 a tract of land beginning at the 41st degree of latitude, the southerly boundary of Connecticut; thence running north, following the line of the Susquehanna at a distance of ten miles from it, to the present northern boundary of Pennsylvania; thence 120 miles west; thence south to the 41st degree and back to the point of beginning. In May, 1755, the Connecticut general assembly expressed its acquiescence in the scheme, if the king should approve it; and it approved also a plan of Samuel Hazard, of Philadelphia, for another colony, to be placed west of Pennsylvania, and within the chartered limits of Connecticut. The court might have taken stronger ground than this; for, at the meeting of commissioners from the various colonies at Albany, in 1754, the representatives of Pennsylvania being present, no opposition was made to a resolution that Connecticut and Massachusetts, by charter right, extended west to the South Sea. The formation of the Susquehanna Company brought out objections from Pennsylvania, but the company sent out surveyors and plotted its tract. Settlement was begun on the Delaware River in 1757, and in the Susquehanna purchase in 1762. This was a temporary settlement, the settlers going home for the winter. A permanent venture was made the next year on the flats below Wilkes-Barre, but it was destroyed by the Indians the same year. In 1768 the company marked out five townships, and sent out forty settlers for the first, Kingston. Most of them, including the famous Captain Zebulon Butler, had served in the French and Indian War; and their first step was to build the 'Forty Fort.' The Penns, after their usual policy, had refused to sell lands, but had leased plots to a number of men on condition of their 'defending the lands from the Connecticut claimants.' The forty Connecticut men found these in possession when they arrived in February, 1769, and a war of writs and arrests followed for the remainder of the year. The Pennsylvania men had one too powerful argument, in the shape of a four-pounder gun, and they retained possession at the end of the year. Early in 1770 the forty reappeared, captured the four-pounder, and secured possession. For a time in 1771 the Pennsylvania men returned, put up a fort of their own, and engaged in a partisan warfare; but the numbers of the Connecticut men were rapidly increasing, and they remained masters until the opening of the Revolution, when they numbered some 3,000. . . . But for the Revolution, the check occasioned by the massacre [of 1778] [see U.S.A.: 1778 (July)], and the appearance of a popular government in place of the Penns, nothing could have prevented the establishment of Connecticut's authority over all the regions embraced in her western claims. . . . The articles of confederation went into force early in 1781. One of their provisions empowered congress to appoint courts of arbitration to decide disputes between States as to boundaries. Pennsylvania at once availed herself of this, and applied for a court to decide the Wyoming dispute. Connecticut asked for time, in

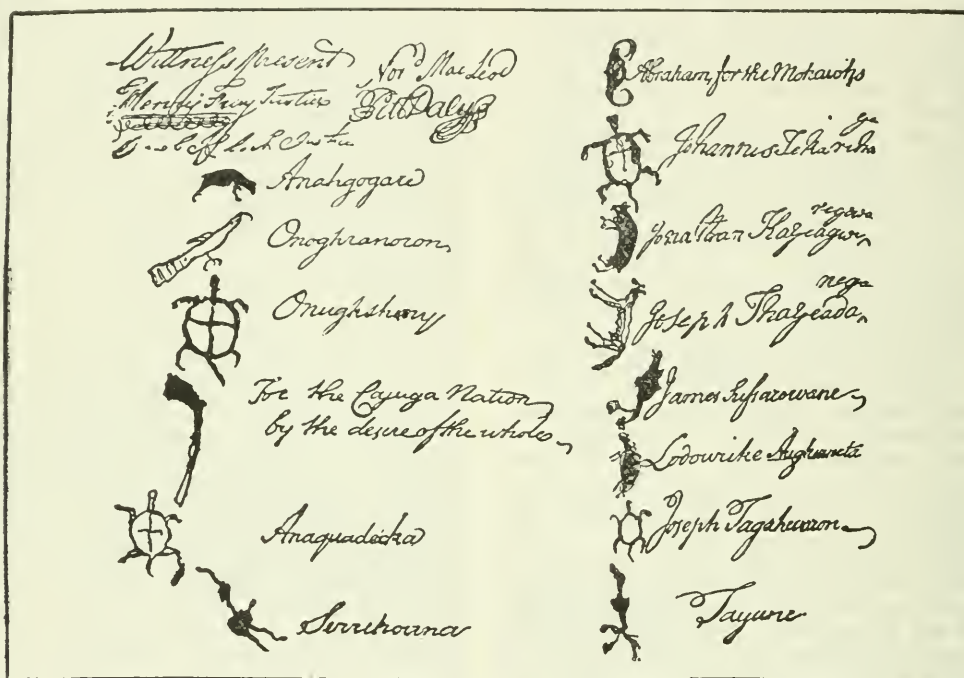
order to get papers from England; but congress overruled the motion, and ordered the court to meet at Trenton in November, 1782. After forty-one days of argument, the court came to the unanimous conclusion that Wyoming, or the Susquehanna district, belong to Pennsylvania and not to Connecticut." Connecticut yielded to the decision at once; but, in 1786, when, following New York and Virginia, she was called upon to make a cession of her western territorial claims to Congress (see U.S.A.: 1781-1786) she compensated herself for the loss of the Susquehanna district by reserving from the cession "a tract of about the same length and width as the Wyoming grant, west of Pennsylvania, in northeastern Ohio; . . . and this was the tract known as the Western Reserve of Connecticut. It contained about 3,500,000 acres.

1754.—Building of Fort Duquesne by the French.—First armed collision in western valley. See Ohio: 1754.

1754.—Colonial Congress at Albany, and Franklin's Plan of Union. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1755.—Opening of the French and Indian War.—Braddock's defeat.—Frontier ravaged. See Ohio: 1755.

1757-1762.—Question of taxation in dispute with proprietaries.—Franklin's mission to England.—"For a long while past the relationship between the Penns, unworthy sons of the great William, and now the proprietaries, on the one side, and their quasi subjects, the people of the Province, upon the other, had been steadily becoming more and more strained, until something very like a crisis had [in 1757] been reached. As usual in



SIGNATURES OF THE CHIEFS OF THE "SIX NATIONS" AFFIXED TO A COMMERCIAL TREATY WITH THOMAS AND RICHARD PENN

(Original in the New York Public Library)

. . . The unfortunate Wyoming settlers, deserted by their own State, and left to the mercy of rival claimants, had a hard time of it for years. The militia of the neighboring counties of Pennsylvania was mustered to enforce the writs of Pennsylvania courts; the property of the Connecticut men was destroyed, their fences were cast down, and their rights ignored; and the 'Pennamite and Yankee War' began. . . . The old Susquehanna Company was reorganized in 1785-86, and made ready to support its settlers by force. New Yankee faces came crowding into the disputed territory. Among them was Ethan Allen, and with him came some Green Mountain Boys. [It was not until 1799 that the controversy came to an end, by the passage of an act which confirmed the title of the actual settlers]."—A. Johnston, *Connecticut*, ch. 15.

Also in: C. Miner, *History of Wyoming*, letters 5-12.—W. L. Stone, *Poetry and history of Wyoming*, ch. 4-5.

English and Anglo-American communities, it was . . . a question of taxation, which was producing the alienation. At bottom, there was the trouble which always pertains to absenteeism; the proprietaries lived in England, and regarded their vast American estate, with about 200,000 white inhabitants, only as a source of revenue. . . . The chief point in dispute was, whether or not the waste lands, still directly owned by the proprietaries, and other lands let by them at quitrents, should be taxed in the same manner as like property of other owners. They refused to submit to such taxation; the Assembly of Burgesses insisted. In ordinary times the proprietaries prevailed; for the governor was their nominee and removable at their pleasure; they gave him general instructions to assent to no law taxing their holdings, and he naturally obeyed his masters. But since governors got their salaries only by virtue of a vote of the Assembly, it seems that they

sometimes disregarded instructions, in the sacred cause of their own interests. After a while, therefore, the proprietaries, made shrewd by experience, devised the scheme of placing their unfortunate sub-rulers under bonds. This went far towards settling the matter. Yet in such a crisis and stress as were now present in the colony . . . it certainly seemed that the rich and idle proprietaries might stand on the same footing with their poor and laboring subjects. They lived comfortably in England upon revenues estimated to amount to the then enormous sum of £20,000 sterling; while the colonists were struggling under unusual losses, as well as enormous expenses, growing out of the war and Indian ravages. At such a time their parsimony, their 'incredible meanness,' as Franklin called it, was cruel as well as stupid. At last the Assembly flatly refused to raise any money unless the proprietaries should be burdened like the rest. All should pay together, or all should go to destruction together. The Penns too stood obstinate, facing the not less resolute Assembly. It was indeed a deadlock! Yet the times were such that neither party could afford to maintain its ground indefinitely. So a temporary arrangement was made, whereby of £60,000 sterling to be raised the proprietaries agreed to contribute £5,000, and the Assembly agreed to accept the same in lieu or commutation for their tax. But neither side abandoned its principle. Before long more money was needed, and the dispute was as fierce as ever. The burgesses now thought that it would be well to carry a statement of their case before the king in council and the lords of trade. In February, 1757, they named their speaker, Isaac Norris, and Franklin to be their emissaries 'to represent in England the unhappy situation of the Province,' and to seek redress by an act of Parliament. Norris, an aged man, begged to be excused; Franklin accepted. . . . A portion of his business also was to endeavor to induce the king to resume the Province of Pennsylvania as his own. A clause in the charter had reserved this right, which could be exercised on payment of a certain sum of money. The colonists now preferred to be an appanage of the crown rather than a fief of the Penns. [In this latter object of his mission Franklin did not succeed; but he accomplished its main purpose, procuring, after long delays, from the board of trade, a decision which subjected the proprietary estate to its fair share of taxation. He returned home after an absence of five years.]—J. T. Morse, Jr., *Benjamin Franklin*, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: J. Parton, *Life of Franklin*, v. 1, pt. 3.
1760-1767.—Settlement of Maryland boundary dispute.—Mason and Dixon's line.—The decision of 1685, in the boundary dispute between the proprietaries of Pennsylvania and Maryland, "formed the basis of a settlement between the respective heirs of the two proprietaries in 1732. Three years afterward, the subject became a question in chancery; in 1750 the present boundaries were decreed by Lord Hardwicke; ten years later, they were, by agreement, more accurately defined; and, in 1761, commissioners began to designate the limit of Maryland on the side of Pennsylvania and Delaware. In 1763, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, two mathematicians and surveyors [sent over from England by the proprietaries], were engaged to mark the lines. In 1764, they entered upon their task, with good instruments and a corps of axemen; by the middle of June, 1765, they had traced the parallel of latitude to the Susquehanna; a year later, they climbed the Little Allegheny; in 1767, they carried forward their

work, under an escort from the Six Nations, to an Indian war-path, 244 miles from the Delaware River. Others continued Mason and Dixon's line to the bound of Pennsylvania on the southwest."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, pt. 2, ch. 16.—"The east and west line which they [Mason and Dixon] ran and marked . . . is the Mason and Dixon's line of history, so long the boundary between the free and the slave States. Its precise latitude is 39° 43' 26.3" north. The Penns did not, therefore, gain the degree 39-40, but they did gain a zone one-fourth of a degree in width, south of the 40th degree, to their western limit, because the decision of 1760 controlled that of 1779, made with Virginia. . . . Pennsylvania is narrower by nearly three-fourths of a degree than the charter of 1681 contemplated. No doubt, however, the Penns considered the narrow strip gained at the south more valuable than the broad one lost at the north."—B. A. Hinsdale, *Old Northwest*, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: T. Donaldson, *Public domain*, p. 50.—*Pennsylvania archives*, v. 4, pp. 1-37.—W. H. Browne, *Maryland*, pp. 238-239.

1763-1764.—Pontiac's War.—Bouquet's expedition. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

1763-1766.—Question of taxation by Parliament.—Sugar Act.—Stamp Act and its repeal.—Declaratory Act.—Stamp Act Congress. See U.S.A.: 1760-1775; 1763-1764; 1765: News of Stamp Act; 1765: Stamp Act; 1765: Stamp Act Congress; 1766: Repeal, etc.

1766-1768.—Townshend duties.—Circular Letter of Massachusetts. See U.S.A.: 1766-1767; 1767-1768.

1768.—Boundary treaty with the Six Nations at Fort Stanwix. See U.S.A.: 1765-1768.

1768-1774.—Events leading up to the Revolution. See BOSTON: 1768, to 1773; U.S.A.: 1770, to 1774.

1768-1774.—Disputes with Virginia over Ohio territory. See OHIO: 1768-1778.

1770.—Repeal of Townshend duties. See U.S.A.: 1770.

1774.—Western territorial claims of Virginia pursued.—Lord Dunmore's war with the Indians. See OHIO: 1774.

1774 (September-October).—First Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September); (September-October).

1775 (May-August).—Second Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1775 (May-August).

1775-1783.—War of the American Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April), to 1783 (September).

1775-1794.—Warfare with Indians.—"During the entire period of the Revolution and for some time afterward, the western portion of Pennsylvania was subject to frequent invasion by hostile Indian warriors, allies of the British, and nearly the entire counties of Westmoreland and Allegheny were actually laid waste, and the inhabitants were obliged to shelter themselves in forts. Westmoreland was attacked while the court was in session and though the records were preserved, the town with most of the property it contained was burned, and a number of persons were killed or taken prisoners. Though the northern frontier of this country was continually harassed, those in the more southwardly settlements were by no means exempted from their share of the general distress. It was not until about the close of the war that arrangements were made for an adjustment of the boundary."—H. M. Jenkins, ed., *Pennsylvania, colonial and federal*, v. 2, pp. 136.—The Indians were finally

defeated in 1794 by Anthony Wayne after a war of over two years.

1775-1847.—Development of industries.—"During the Revolution cannon and cannon balls were cast at many of the Pennsylvania furnaces. The bar iron and castings made in the Schuylkill valley during the eighteenth century were taken down the river to Philadelphia in boats, which were poled back to their starting points with great labor. After the Revolution the manufacture of iron . . . was rapidly extended into the interior of the State. Bishop says that in 1786 there were seventeen furnaces, forges, and slitting-mills within thirty-nine miles of Lancaster. About 1789 there were fourteen furnaces and thirty-four forges in operation in Pennsylvania, according to a list published by Mrs. James. In 1791 the number of furnaces had increased to sixteen and of forges to thirty-seven. In 1796 the slitting and rolling mills were said to roll 1,500 tons per annum. The articles of iron and steel manufacture at this time were of great variety, including stoves, pots, kettles, plow irons, sheet iron, nails, spikes, cannon balls, scythes, axes, saws, etc. . . . In 1838 there were in existence within a radius of fifty-two miles of Lancaster 102 furnaces, forges, and rolling mills. . . . Huntingdon and Centre counties constituted the principle iron producing district in the country . . . until after 1842, when the tariff of that year and the discovery that iron could be made with anthracite and bituminous coal enabled other districts in the State and country to wrest from these counties their iron sceptre. . . . Before the completion of the Pennsylvania Canal and the Portage Railroad . . . [the iron] was transported with great difficulty. Bar iron from Centre county was at first carried on the backs of horses to the Clarion river and was then floated on boats and arks to Pittsburg. Pig and bar iron from Huntingdon county were hauled over the Frankstown road to Johnstown and thence floated to Pittsburg by way of the Conemaugh river. Subsequently blooms were sent to Pittsburg from Huntingdon county by wagon. 'Juniata iron' was also largely sold in eastern markets, the Juniata and Susquehanna rivers furnishing an outlet before the building of the Pennsylvania Canal. It was noted throughout the country for its excellence. . . . The iron age having been succeeded . . . by the steel age, it became necessary for Pennsylvania to seek for ores of purer quality than those which, as a rule, are found inside its own boundaries. These . . . it has found mainly in the Lake Superior region. . . . Other ores adapted to the manufacture of steel have been imported from Europe, Africa, and Cuba. The first use of Lake Superior iron ore in any blast furnace in this country occurred in 1853, at Sharpville furnace, in Mercer county, Pennsylvania, then owned by David and John P. Agnew, and in the same year it was used at Clay furnace, in the same county, at both furnaces successfully. . . . The first coal was shipped from Pittsburg in 1803, when the *Louisiana* was 'ballasted with the fuel, which was sold in Philadelphia for 37½ cents a bushel.' In 1820 coal mining was begun at Coal Centre (Greenfield), and ten years later at Limetown, both on the upper Monongahela, in Washington county. Most of the product of those early years was put on board of boats . . . holding from 4,000 to 6,000 bushels. On these it was floated to Pittsburg and the Ohio river towns. . . . [In 1854 George H. Bissell] organized the Pennsylvania Rock Oil Company, the first of its kind in the United States, and leased the land on which were situated the principal oil springs."

—H. M. Jenkins, ed., *Pennsylvania, colonial and federal*, v. 3, pp. 351-352, 358, 359, 385, 431, 440.

1776.—End of royal and proprietary government.—Adoption of a state constitution.—"Congress, on the 15th of May, 1776, recommended . . . 'the respective Assemblies and conventions of the United Colonies, where no government sufficient to the exigencies of their affairs has been hitherto established, to adopt such government as shall, in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular, and America in general.' A diversity of opinion existed in the Province upon this resolution. . . . The Assembly referred the resolve of Congress to a committee, but took no further action, nor did the committee ever make a report. 'The old Assembly,' says Westcott, 'which had adjourned on the 14th of June, to meet on the 14th of August, could not obtain a quorum, and adjourned again to the 23d of September. It then interposed a feeble remonstrance against the invasion of its prerogatives by the Convention, but it was a dying protest. The Declaration of Independence had given the old State Government a mortal blow, and it soon expired without a sigh—thus ending forever the Proprietary and royal authority in Pennsylvania.' In the meantime, the Committee of Correspondence for Philadelphia issued a circular to all the county committees for a conference in that city on Tuesday, the 18th day of June. . . . The Conference at once unanimously resolved, 'That the present government of this Province is not competent to the exigencies of our affairs, and that it is necessary that a Provincial Convention be called by this Conference for the express purpose of forming a new government in this Province on the authority of the people only.' Acting upon these resolves, preparations were immediately taken to secure a proper representation in the Convention. . . . Every voter was obliged to take an oath of renunciation of the authority of George III., and one of allegiance to the State of Pennsylvania, and a religious test was prescribed for all members of the Convention. . . . The delegates to the Convention to frame a constitution for the new government consisted of the representative men of the State—men selected for their ability, patriotism, and personal popularity. They met at Philadelphia, on the 15th of July, . . . and organized by the selection of Benjamin Franklin, president, George Ross, vice-president, and John Morris and Jacob Garrigues, secretaries. . . . On the 28th of September, the Convention completed its labors by adopting the first State Constitution, which went into immediate effect, without a vote of the people. . . . The legislative power of the frame of government was vested in a General Assembly of one House, elected annually. The supreme executive power was vested in a President, chosen annually by the Assembly and Council, by joint ballot—the Council consisting of twelve persons, elected in classes, for a term of three years. A Council of Censors, consisting of two persons from each city and county, was to be elected in 1783, and in every seventh year thereafter, whose duty it was to make inquiry as to whether the Constitution had been preserved inviolate during the last septennary, and whether the executive or legislative branches of the government had performed their duties."—W. H. Egle, *History of Pennsylvania*, ch. 9.—See also U.S.A.: 1776-1779; PENNSYLVANIA GERMAN.

1776-1777.—Declaration of Independence.—Battles of the Brandywine and Germantown.—British in Philadelphia. See U.S.A.: 1776

(July): Authorship, etc.; 1777 (January-December); PHILADELPHIA: 1777-1778.

1776-1779.—Restrictions against liquor. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1775-1810.

1776-1787.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1776-1787.

1776-1829.—Work of Society of Friends for prison reform. See PRISON REFORM: United States: Historical development.

1777-1779.—Articles of Confederation.—British evacuation of Philadelphia.—War on the northern border. See U.S.A.: 1777-1781, to 1779.

1778 (July).—Wyoming massacre. See U.S.A.: 1778 (July).

1779.—Final settlement of boundaries with Virginia. See VIRGINIA: 1779-1786.

1780.—Emancipation of slaves. See SLAVERY: 1688-1780; U.S.A.: 1860: Slavery concentrated in the south.

1781.—Mutiny of the Pennsylvania line. See U.S.A.: 1781 (January).

1781-1786.—Dispute with Connecticut over Western Reserve. See U.S.A.: 1781-1786.

1783.—Agreement with New Jersey concerning jurisdiction over Delaware river. See NEW JERSEY: 1783-1784.

1785.—First protective tariff. See TARIFF: 1780-1785.

1787.—Federal constitutional convention. See U.S.A.: 1787; 1787-1789.

1787-1800.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1787-1800.

1789-1842.—Internal communication.—A "special movement in internal improvement enterprises began soon after 1789, and was continued on the part of the State government until the final sale of the system of public works in 1857; and by incorporated companies it has since continued to the present time. To-day [1922] turnpike and toll road companies are almost unheard of, and nearly all the thoroughfares of travel of that kind are under the supervision of the authorities of the respective counties of the State. The era of navigable artificial canals in Pennsylvania actually began with the work undertaken by the Society for the Improvement of Roads and Canals, although suggestions looking to the same end were made as early as 1762. Canal construction was begun soon after 1790, and within the next few years the State gave material assistance to such enterprises. A little later, under pressure of public necessity, widespread demand and political influences, the State itself turned builder and succeeded in opening a navigable waterway from the Susquehanna river to Lake Erie, and by indirect route, with auxiliary lines, joined the lake on the west with tide-water on the east. In this great undertaking there was expended more than \$35,000,000 of public moneys, yet the end accomplished certainly justified the outlay, for of all early measures proposed for the development of the resources of our State in general, that which resulted in the construction of the public works, more frequently referred to as the State canal, was productive of the greatest benefit to all . . . [the] people, regardless of residence or personal concerns. In earlier years Pennsylvania had kept even step with her sister States in public improvements, even under adverse conditions, but the completion of the system of canals within her borders gave her a certain prestige and placed her in the front rank of the progressive states of the union. On final sale there was realized hardly a third of the actual cost of the public works, yet as a measure of progress and development the wisdom of the expenditure never has been doubted. The period of

canal construction was continued until about 1850, and during that time the territory of the State became well traversed with artificial water courses. To a large extent this means of travel and traffic has been superseded by modern railroads, but it is doubtful whether greater comparative prosperity has come with the new conditions. During the days of canals and turnpikes, all interests, even to those of the remotest country hamlets, were directly benefited by their operation, but after both were compelled to yield ascendancy to the railroads the commercial centers and larger cities derived the greatest benefits, while the lesser towns and agricultural localities suffered corresponding loss. . . . The opening of highways and turnpikes gave rise to the incorporation of bridge companies, although generally the turnpike companies built and maintained the bridges along the line of their own roads. It was the custom of early times to establish fording places across the smaller rivers and creeks, yet the first companies built bridges in case no safe fording place was found and a ferry could not be successfully operated. Bridges were erected in Pennsylvania as early as 1786, in which year a 'horse bridge' was built across Crum creek, near Chester, on the route of the King's highway. A drawbridge, undoubtedly the pioneer of its class, was built over the same stream in 1700. These structures were built at public expense, whereas the bridges built by incorporated companies were maintained by tolls charged passengers for crossing them. As early as 1798, according to Hazard's Register, a bridge was built over the Schuylkill, on Market street in Philadelphia, and it is claimed that this was the 'first great structure of its kind in America.' It was of wood, and cost \$300,000, and while not the first bridge in the country, it was the first great bridge. . . . It was the result of enterprise on the part of an incorporated company, and the example set was industriously followed until all the large streams of the State were spanned with substantial bridges. . . . At the Callowhill street crossing over the Schuylkill, in Philadelphia, in 1842, Charles Ellet built the first wire suspension bridge in the United States. . . . It was torn down in 1874."—H. M. Jenkins, ed., *Pennsylvania, colonial and federal*, v. 3, pp. 255-257, 266-267.

1790.—Second constitution.—"The success of the Federal Convention and the ratification by Pennsylvania of the Constitution of the United States gave new life to the Federalists, and they determined to have a new Constitution for Pennsylvania. A convention was called which met in Philadelphia, November, 1789. It prepared a constitution and then adjourned in February, 1790, until the following August, thus giving ample time for the document to be discussed. When the convention reassembled the instrument was adopted without being referred to a popular vote. The new constitution was to a large extent modeled on that of the United States. The old executive council, the single legislative house, and the censors were swept away, and a governor to be elected by the people, and a legislature of two houses took their place. Most of the important State officials, including the judges, were to be appointed by the governor. The new constitution took effect at once (October, 1790). General Thomas Mifflin was elected governor and was twice re-elected, holding office until 1799."—A. C. Thomas, *History of Pennsylvania*, pp. 170-171.

1790-1800.—Philadelphia the capital of the country. See PHILADELPHIA: 1776-1800.

1794.—Whiskey Rebellion.—"In every part of

the United States except Pennsylvania and in by far the larger number of the counties of that state, the officers of the Federal Government had been able to carry the excise law [passed in March, 1791, on the recommendation of Hamilton], unpopular as it generally was, into execution; but resistance having been made in a few of the western counties, and their defiance of law increasing with the forbearance of the Government in that State, prosecutions had been ordered against the offenders. In July, the Marshal of the District, Lenox, who was serving the process, and General Neville, the Inspector, were attacked by a body of armed men, and compelled to desist from the execution of their official duties. The next day, a much larger number, amounting to 500 men, assembled, and endeavored to seize the person of General Neville. Failing in that, they exacted a promise from the Marshal that he would serve no more process on the west side of the Alleghany; and attacking the Inspector's house, they set fire to it, and destroyed it with its contents. On this occasion, the leader of the assailants was killed, and several of them wounded. Both the Inspector and Marshal were required to resign; but they refused, and sought safety in flight. A meeting was held a few days later, at Mingo Creek meeting-house, which recommended to all the townships in the four western counties of Pennsylvania and the neighboring counties of Virginia, to meet, by their delegates, at Parkinson's ferry, on the Monongahela, on the 14th of August, 'to take into consideration the situation of the western country.' Three days after this meeting, a party of the malcontents seized the mail, carried it to Canonsburg, seven miles distant, and there opened the letters from Pittsburg to Philadelphia, to discover who were hostile to them. They then addressed a circular letter to the officers of the militia in the disaffected counties, informing them of the intercepted letters, and calling on them to rendezvous at Braddock's Field on the 1st of August, with arms in good order and four days' provision. . . . This circular was signed by seven persons, but the prime mover was David Bradford, a lawyer, who was the prosecuting attorney of Washington County. In consequence of this summons, a large body of men, which has been estimated at from five to seven thousand, assembled at Braddock's Field on the day appointed. . . . Bradford took upon himself the military command, which was readily yielded to him. . . . Bradford proposed the expulsion from Pittsburg of several persons whose hostility had been discovered by the letters they had intercepted; but his motion was carried only as to two persons, Gibson and Neville, son of the Inspector. They then decided to proceed to Pittsburg. Some assented to this, to prevent the mischief which others meditated. But for this, and the liberal refreshments furnished by the people of Pittsburg, it was thought that the town would have been burnt. . . . The President issued a proclamation reciting the acts of treason, commanding the insurgents to disperse, and warning others against abetting them. He, at the same time, wishing to try lenient measures, appointed three Commissioners to repair to the scene of the insurrection to confer with the insurgents, and to offer them pardon on condition of a satisfactory assurance of their future obedience to the laws. . . . Governor Mifflin followed the example of the President in appointing Commissioners to confer with the insurgents, with power to grant pardons, and he issued an admonitory proclamation, after which he convened the Legislature to meet on the 3d of November. The

Federal and the State Commissioners reached the insurgent district while the convention at Parkinson's ferry was in session. It assembled on the 14th of August, and consisted of 226 delegates, all from the western counties of Pennsylvania, except six from Ohio County in Virginia. They appointed Cook their Chairman, and Albert Gallatin, Secretary, though he at first declined the appointment. . . . The Commissioners required . . . an explicit assurance of submission to the laws; a recommendation to their associates of a like submission; and meetings of the citizens to be held to confirm these assurances. All public prosecutions were to be suspended until the following July, when, if there had been no violation of the law in the interval, there should be a general amnesty. These terms were deemed reasonable by the sub-committee; but before the meeting of sixty took place, a body of armed men entered Brownsville, the place appointed for the meeting, and so alarmed the friends of accommodation, that they seemed to be driven from their purpose. Gallatin, however, was an exception; and the next day, he addressed the committee of sixty in favor of acceding to the proposals of the Commissioners; but nothing more could be effected than to pass a resolution that it would be to the interest of the people to accept those terms, without any promise or pledge of submission. . . . On the whole, it was the opinion of the well-disposed part of the population, that the inspection laws could not be executed in that part of the State; and that the interposition of the militia was indispensable. The Commissioners returned to Philadelphia, and on their report the President issued a second proclamation, on the 25th of September, in which he announced the march of the militia, and again commanded obedience to the laws. The order requiring the militia to march was promptly obeyed in all the States except Pennsylvania, in which some pleaded defects in the militia law; but even in that State, after the Legislature met, the Governor was authorized to accept the services of volunteers. . . . The news that the militia were on the march increased the numbers of the moderate party. . . . Bradford, who was foremost in urging resistance to the law, was the first to seek safety in flight. He sought refuge in New Orleans. A second convention was called to meet at Parkinson's ferry on the second of October. A resolution of submission was passed, and a committee of two was appointed to convey it to the President at Carlisle. . . . On the return of the committee, the Parkinson ferry convention met for the third time, and resolutions were passed, declaring the sufficiency of the civil authorities to execute the laws; affirming that the excise duties would be paid, and recommending all delinquents to surrender themselves. . . . Lee, then, as Commander-in-chief, issued a proclamation, granting an amnesty to all who had submitted to the laws; and calling upon the inhabitants to take the oath of allegiance to the United States. Orders were issued and executed to seize those offenders who had not signed the declaration of submission, and send them to Philadelphia; and thus was this purpose of resisting the execution of the excise law completely defeated, and entire order restored in less than four months from the time of the burning of Neville's house, which was the first overt act of resistance. It was, however, deemed prudent to retain a force of 2,500 militia during the winter, under General Morgan, to prevent a return of the spirit of disaffection which had so long prevailed in Pennsylvania."—G. Tucker, *History of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: J. T. Morse, *Life of Hamilton*, v. 2, ch. 4.—T. Ward, *Insurrection of 1794* (*Memoirs of the Pennsylvania Historical Society*, v. 6).—J. B. McMaster, *History of the People of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 9.

19th century.—Slow development of education. See EDUCATION: Modern; 19th century: United States: Evolution of public school system.

1800-1864.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1800-1864.

1807-1822.—Nominating conventions.—Harrisburg, the capital.—"To Pennsylvania may be credited the beginning of . . . the nominating convention. The President of the United States and the governors of the States had usually been nominated by caucuses of the Congress or Legislature, as the case might be. The Democrats of Delaware County in 1807, in view of the fact that they had no voice in the nomination of the governor, proposed that delegates should be chosen to nominate candidates for office. The suggestion was partly adopted, and in 1817 Governor Findlay was nominated in this way, and in 1820 the method was adopted by both parties. 'The Pennsylvania Plan,' as it was called, spread to other States, was adopted by the national parties, and has been employed ever since. Governor Snyder, having served three terms, was ineligible for re-election, and William Findlay, who had been State treasurer for a number of years, was nominated by the Democrats, and after a campaign marked by bitter personalities, was chosen governor by a small majority (1817). Early in 1810 Governor Snyder had approved the Act establishing Harrisburg as the capital. The government offices were removed to that town in 1812, and on May 31, 1819, the corner stone of the capitol was laid. The building was first occupied in January, 1822. Findlay served only one term (1817-1820). He was a strong advocate of internal improvements, especially by opening the rivers for navigation and by constructing canals."—A. C. Thomas, *History of Pennsylvania*, pp. 216, 222.

1825-1836.—Internal improvements.—Experience with early railroads.—"Pennsylvania in the course of ten years had incurred a debt of twenty-four millions, chiefly for internal improvements, owned six hundred miles of canal and one hundred and twenty of railroad, and had received during 1835 nearly seven hundred thousand dollars in tolls. As planned, the Commonwealth was to build the railroads, but furnish neither cars nor motive power. Any citizen might use his own vehicles, provided toll was paid to the state for the use of the rails. At first, therefore, individuals and firms engaged in the business of transportation, provided their own cars and horses, employed their own drivers and charged such rates as competition and the tolls exacted by the State would permit. The result was dire confusion. The road from Philadelphia to Columbia was a single-track affair with turnouts to enable cars going in opposite directions to pass each other. But it often happened, as the curves were many and sharp, that teamsters did not see each other 'till they came face to face on the track between two turnouts. Who should go back would then become a question not always settled peaceably. In the hope of preventing such quarrels and delays, a post was put half-way between each pair of turnouts, and the rule made that when two cars met the one which had passed the post should have the right of way. But the drivers . . . paid no heed to the posts or the rules, and in despair the commissioners ordered a second track to be laid from Philadelphia to Columbia. Toward the close of

1834 this improvement was completed, and then for the first time two locomotives dragging long trains of little cars, ran over the line from Lancaster to Philadelphia. The next year a third locomotive made its appearance, and from that hour the horse as a motive power was doomed. Opposition to the use of steam was strong. Locomotives would ruin the farming interests, hens would cease to lay, cows would no longer give milk, rates of insurance on houses and barns would rise, and hundreds of teamsters would be put out of employment. But it was so clear that both horses and steam could not be used at the same time on the road, and the engineer insisted so strongly on the use of steam, that the commission, in 1836, excluded the horse, supplied locomotives, and charged toll for moving the cars of shipping firms or individuals."—J. B. McMaster, *History of the people of the United States*, v. 6, pp. 341-342.

1834-1841.—Establishment of free common schools.—"In Pennsylvania the establishment of free common schools was withstood vigorously. From 1809-1835 the state provided education for children whose parents would take oath that they could not afford to send them to private pay schools. Self-respecting poor would not submit to this act and by 1834 more than two hundred thousand children were out of school. Then the state established free tax-supported schools, and fixed the first Friday in September for the election of directors in each school district. . . . Scarcely had the legislature assembled in December, 1834, when petitions for the repeal of the act were received from thirty-eight counties out of fifty-one. Lancaster sent eighty-two; Berks sent sixty-three; Chester sent forty. Opposition was least along the New York border, greatest in the German counties, and formidable in the central and south-eastern districts. Beyond the mountains the law was fairly well received. The Senate passed a bill suspending the law for five years. But Thaddeus Stevens in the House saved the schools. The bill was amended but not repealed, and Pennsylvania was given a free, common-school system. Pupils rushed in, new schools were opened, and the number rose from seven hundred and sixty-three in 1835 to four thousand and eighty-nine in 1837. Hard times reduced them to thirty-one hundred and fifty-one. But they rose again to over five thousand in 1841 and went on increasing in number year after year."—J. B. McMaster, *History of the people of the United States*, v. 7, pp. 160-161.

1838-1845.—Third constitution.—Financial difficulties.—"The Constitution adopted in 1790 was not satisfactory to many, and almost at once efforts were made for its revision. . . . By 1825 the feeling had grown so strong that the question was submitted to a popular vote, which was against revision. Ten years later the question was submitted again and an affirmative vote was the result. The Whigs were against a revision, while the Democrats supported one. As in former elections the northern and western counties were in favor of change, and the eastern counties opposed it. At the election for delegates to a convention the parties were so equally represented that there were chosen sixty-six Whigs and Anti-Masons, sixty-six Democrats, and one doubtful delegate. As this man usually voted with the Whigs, the result was a more conservative document than would otherwise have been the case. The convention met at Harrisburg, May 2, 1837, and continued its sessions at Harrisburg and at Philadelphia until February 22, 1838. . . . On the whole the changes were not radical. A few of the most

important were: Senators were to be elected for three years instead of four—one-third to be chosen annually; terms of governors and legislative sessions were to begin on the first Tuesday in January instead of in December; the qualifications for electors were made less strict—one year's residence in the State and ten days in the election district, instead of two years' residence. The old document allowed any freeman to vote, the new one inserted the word 'white.' In consequence of the insertion of this word Thaddeus Stevens refused to sign the document, although he was a delegate. An article provided for amendment was also inserted. But probably the most important change was that which limited the appointing power of the governor. He was given the power to appoint the secretary of the commonwealth, and with the advice and consent of the Senate, all the judges; but all county officers were made elective. The terms of the judges, which had been 'during good behavior,' were changed to fifteen years for Supreme Court judges, ten years for those of lower rank, and five years for associate judges. Judges also were made removable by the governor on application of the Legislature. The popular vote took place in October, 1838, and the new constitution was adopted by the small majority of twelve hundred in a large poll. . . . Meantime the finances of Pennsylvania were in a bad condition. The zeal for public improvements had carried the legislature in its appropriations far beyond the limits of safety. Near the end of Governor Ritner's term of office (1838) the State debt was about \$30,000,000, and the annual expenses of the State were several hundred thousand dollars beyond its income. On June 19, 1838, a flood in the Juniata carried away forty miles of canal and \$400,000 were borrowed from the Bank of the United States to pay for repairs. To complete the system of canals several millions more were needed, and . . . earlier loans would soon fall due. The financial outlook for the State was certainly gloomy. . . . [When] David R. Porter was chosen governor by a comparatively small majority . . . the treasury was not only bare of funds, but there was a continual demand for money to carry on the work of public improvements which could not well be stopped without heavy loss. Besides this, so far as appeared, there would be no funds to meet the interest soon due on the State bonds. The banks refused to advance money, and indeed, owing to the state of the money market and the recent financial crisis, they were unable to do so. Governor Porter succeeded in raising several millions and for a time tided over the danger. Notwithstanding all his efforts, the Legislature adjourned without making sufficient provision for the claims upon the State. He called it together again and new loans and taxes were authorized, but still the indebtedness of the State increased, and certificates instead of cash were given in payment of interest due. These, of course, increased the debt still further and depressed the value of the bonds until they fell to one-half their face value. As a considerable portion of the debt was held in England, there was much hard feeling there which expressed sharp words by Sydney Smith, the great essayist. 'The fraud,' he wrote, 'is committed in the profound peace of Pennsylvania by the richest State in the Union. . . . It is an act of bad faith which has no parallel and no excuse.' . . . It should be stated that in a few years Pennsylvania paid all her indebtedness, principal and interest, with interest on the deferred interest. But the previous non-payment remains as a fact to which patriotic Pennsylvanians look back

with a feeling of humiliation. It was not until 1845, when the State debt had reached \$40,000,000, that a solid foundation for the State finances was reached, and from that time the credit of Pennsylvania has been of the highest."—A. C. Thomas, *History of Pennsylvania*, pp. 231-235.

1849-1900.—Laws for certification of teachers. See EDUCATION: Modern; 19th century; United States: Evolution of public school system.

1854.—Consolidation Act of Philadelphia. See PHILADELPHIA: 1854-1887.

1861.—First troops sent to Washington. See U.S.A.: 1861 (April): Activity of rebellion.

1863.—Lee's invasion.—Battle of Gettysburg. See U.S.A.: 1863 (June)—July: Pennsylvania).

1864.—Early's invasion.—Burning of Chambersburg. See U.S.A.: 1864 (July: Virginia—Maryland).

1873.—Fourth constitution.—"By an act approved June 2, 1871, the question of calling a convention for the purpose of forming a new Constitution was submitted to the people on October 10, 1871, and was favorably decided by a vote of 316,097 for and 69,715 against. The act regulating the holding of the convention was approved April 11, 1872, the number of delegates was fixed at one hundred and thirty-three, and they were elected on October 8, 1872. The convention met in the House of Representatives at Harrisburg on November 12, 1872, and adjourned November 27, to meet in Philadelphia, January 7, 1873, where the balance of its sessions were held. William M. Meredith, of Philadelphia, was elected president. He died August 17, 1873, during an adjournment. The convention on reconvening September 16 elected as his successor John H. Walker, of Erie county. . . . On November 3, 1873, the convention finished its work of drafting the . . . Constitution. It was submitted to the people at an election held December 16, 1873, and adopted by a vote of 253,744 to 108,594. This Constitution went into effect January 1, 1874."—*Smull's legislative handbook and manual of the state of Pennsylvania, 1921-1922*, p. 399.

1875.—Exposure of the Molly Maguires.—"Among the anthracite coal miners (of Pennsylvania) a society was formed, probably about 1854, called the Molly Maguires, a name long known in Ireland. The members were all Irish, professed the Roman Catholic faith, and were active in the Ancient Order of Hibernians. The Church, the better class of Irishmen, and the Hibernians, however, were shocked by the doings of the Molly Maguires and utterly disowned them. They began their career of blackmail and bullying by sending threats and death notices embellished with crude drawings of coffins and pistols to those against whom they fancied they had a grievance, usually the mine boss or an unpopular foreman. If the recipient did not heed the threat, he was waylaid and beaten and his family was abused. By the time of the Civil War these bullies had terrorized the entire anthracite region. . . . Finally the president of one of the large coal companies employed James McParlan, a remarkably clever Irish detective. He joined the Mollies, somehow eluded their suspicions, and slowly worked his way into their confidence. An unusually brutal and cowardly murder in 1875 proved his opportunity. When the courts finished with the Mollies, nineteen of their members had been hanged, a large number imprisoned and the organization was completely wiped out."—S. P. Orth, *Our foreigners (Chronicles of American series)* pp. 117-118.

Also in: J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States*, v. 8, ch. 2.

1889.—**Johnstown disaster.**—On May 31, 1889, a break in the dam at the outlet of Conemaugh Lake caused a flood to sweep over Johnstown. The loss of property, amounting to over \$10,000,000, was overshadowed by the death of about 2,000 inhabitants of the stricken district.

1892.—**Homestead strike.**—"During the presidential campaign of 1892 a violent strike at the Carnegie Steel Company's works in Homestead, Pennsylvania, arose from a reduction in wages and a refusal of the company to recognize the Iron and Steel Workers' Union. An important feature of this disturbance was the use of armed Pinkerton detectives by the company for the protection of its buildings. Armed with rifles they fell into conflict with the workmen, a miniature military campaign was carried on, lives were lost and large amounts of property destroyed. Eventually the entire militia of the state had to be called out to maintain peace."—C. R. Lingley, *Since the Civil War*, p. 320.—See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

1897-1908.—**Capitol burned.**—New capitol built.—"In February, 1897, the dignified state capitol at Harrisburg was burned. A new capitol building was at once authorized by the Legislature which was in session at the time. The new building was to be fireproof, of renaissance style of architecture, and was to cost not exceeding \$500,000. The new building, though occupied by the Legislature in January, 1899, was not completed until 1906, and the interior decorations are still unfinished [written in 1913]. The result is one of the most beautiful state buildings in America. The cost, however, owing in part to changes in the plans, has been about \$4,000,000, and the furniture and general equipment about \$9,000,000 more. This latter sum was such an extraordinary expenditure that investigations were made which revealed extensive and systematic fraud deserving no other name than robbery. The legal prosecution lasted so long that several of the men charged with taking part in the frauds died before conviction. The State recovered some of the money, and two or three of the defrauders were imprisoned."—A. C. Thomas, *History of Pennsylvania*, p. 276.

20th century.—**Development of workers' education.** See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: United States.

1902.—**Coal strike.**—Settlement by arbitration. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1902-1920.

1905-1906.—**Creation and organization of state constabulary.**—"The Act creating the Department of State Police of the State of Pennsylvania was a brief and simple document. The law was very loosely drawn—purposely so, of well considered intent. The work that it was designed to institute was entirely experimental, creative. A new organization had to be devised to fit the particular conditions that it would be called upon to handle. The requirements of these conditions could be accurately visualized and worked out by one man only, the man at the head of the organization; and the whole fate of the undertaking, for better or for worse, must therefore hang upon the character, the inspiration of that one man. . . . [Governor Pennypacker offered the Superintendency of the State Police to Captain John C. Groome, commanding the First City Troop of Philadelphia.]"—K. Mayo, *Justice to all*, pp. 11-15.—Captain Groome was very successful in his new office. The need for such a force for the enforcement of law had long been evident. "In the street car strike in Philadelphia in 1910 a company of militia was

disarmed and made ridiculous by a mob of women, which was promptly handled and made to behave by a small body of police. In the Pressed Steel Car strike at McKee's Rocks, near Pittsburgh, the strikers cheered the Constabulary, even after they had been sharply handled by the police. They recognized that the Constabulary were doing their duty, and doing it well, admired their courage, and respected them for showing as much consideration as possible. . . . It is the prevention of crime and the apprehending of rural offenders which seem to us the chief reasons for a Constabulary. . . . It is a striking fact that the number of arrests by the Pennsylvania Constabulary . . . decreased from 5,028 in 1908 to 1,144 in 1912. This does not indicate any police laxity; on the contrary, . . . the [steady decrease] is traceable directly to the preventive work of . . . [the police], who patrol annually between 400,000 and 500,000 miles, although there are but 228 of them [1919], and they are likely to be drawn off at any moment for strike or emergency duty. Thus, they furnish from their number trustworthy State detectives. In the matter of the Coatesville lynching, for instance, the Constabulary placed detectives in that town and obtained the evidence upon which the indictments of the lynchers were based. It is safe to say that if a single member of the force had been in town on the day of the lynching, the town and State would not have been disgraced. Yet the service of the Constabulary . . . cost the State only \$331,000 a year [written in 1914]. . . . It is perfectly plain that by its preventive work the Pennsylvania police have saved the State much more than they have cost, to say nothing of the comfort and security given to districts hitherto terrorized by the lawless, or in danger from wandering criminals. . . . The Pennsylvania police have done yeoman service as forest rangers and game and fire wardens, in addition to all their own duties; in 1906, prior to the establishment of the police, seven civilian game-wardens were shot at and four killed. Since the police appeared all such attacks have ceased."—*Nation*, Jan. 1, 1914, pp. 4-5.

1906.—**Reform legislation.**—The popular revolt of 1905 in Philadelphia against the intolerable rottenness of municipal government under the dominant party "machine" had prompt effects in the state. "When the election, last November, and still more the reports made by working politicians in the best organized and informed machine in the land, showed that these classes wanted a change, the machine and its leaders changed instantly. A pliant governor was as prompt to call the Legislature in extra session as he had been to find reasons for the vilest excess of the political plunderers of the State. The same Legislature as before met, and in a brief session passed every measure for which reformers had been asking in vain for twenty-five years,—two of them in more drastic form than any one had yet proposed. Save that the Corrupt Practices Act is more precise and severe than any yet passed, except in Connecticut, and the separation and protection of the civil service of Philadelphia more complete than has yet been enacted for an American city, the new legislation follows the general trend of such measures in other States."—*Review of Reviews*, Apr., 1906.

1908-1909.—**Application of commodities clause of Hepburn Act to anthracite railroads.** See RAILROADS: 1908-1909.

1910.—**Forestry policy of the state.**—Its relation to taxation.—**Forestry academy.**—"The exhaustion of timber in . . . [the] state has been

caused more by excessive taxation than by any real demand for lumber. If forest owners could have seen any coming relief from taxation, they would have been glad to hold their resources for the future, and only enough would have been cut to meet actual needs, and for this a fair payment would have been made. Regulation of cutting by 'a trust,' even, would have been helpful. There seems to be but one remedy for this condition of affairs. 'So long as land remains in the condition known as timber land, the owner, or owners, thereof should pay no taxes upon it, except in so far as he, or they, derive an actual revenue from it.' [If this statement, made in 1894], had been modified so as to read 'should pay no taxes upon the timber, except in so far as he or they derive an actual revenue from it,' there would have been a practical accord with the new-born thesis of the National Conservation Association, which demands 'the separation, for purposes of taxation, of the timber from the land on which it grows, so that the forest crop shall be taxed only when it is harvested, while the land shall be taxed every year.' It may be stated, as an indication of the advanced relation of Pennsylvania to the forestry problem, that a bill was introduced [in 1909] to create out of lands owned by individuals or corporations auxiliary forest reserves, to be practically under the direction of the State Department of Forestry. The land of these reserves was to be assessed for taxation at a minimum of one dollar an acre. The timber was to remain untaxed until cut, when the owner or owners were to pay an income tax of seventy-five cents for each thousand feet of coniferous timber cut, and fifty cents for each thousand feet of other timber cut. The bill failed of passage, but its reception was such as to indicate passage of it, or of a similar bill, in the near future. As a state Pennsylvania has made a notable start in forestry, by the purchase of 916,375 acres of non-agricultural land, which is set apart as a perpetual forest reserve, and which cannot be sold, or in any way alienated from the purpose for which it was intended. For planting all suitable land within this area three nurseries have been established, in which there are now millions of forest tree seedlings growing, which will be planted as fast as ready for removing. Pennsylvania has had for several years a State Forest Academy, located at Mont Alto, in which young men are educated, at state expense, for the public forestry service. Admission to this school can be gained only after a rigid competitive examination. On the average, there are about sixty applicants each year, and from this number the ten who have passed the best mental and physical examination are accepted, after they have given satisfactory bond in the sum of five hundred dollars, to remunerate the state for money expended upon them, if they are dismissed for misconduct, failure to pass examinations, or for failure to promptly obey orders. In addition to this forest academy, there is now a large class engaged in the study of forestry at the State College, where a highly satisfactory curriculum has been established."—J. T. Rothrock, *Forestry policy of Pennsylvania* (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Mar., 1910).

1911-1915.—Administrative changes.—Centralization of school control.—Social legislation.—In 1911 the legislature of Pennsylvania created the bureau of medical education, established a department of insurance and revised the existing school laws along the line of greater centralization. Two years later the record of legislation, while falling short of expectations, was commendable.

It included a primary election law, a mother's pension act, the creation of a public utilities board and the substitution of electrocution for hanging as the highest penalty for crime. In the meantime Pittsburgh had taken steps in 1912 to investigate moral conditions. A city ordinance provided for the selection of a morals efficiency commission of twelve, which was to make a survey and report to the city officials. The work of the commission was so well done that it became a model for other communities in a widespread campaign for civic righteousness. It was not until 1915 that Pennsylvania succeeded in enacting a program of social legislation. The most striking achievements were the passage of a child labor law and a series of acts constituting a law of workmen's compensation. The former places the minimum age for child labor at fourteen and restricts the maximum working day to nine hours and the maximum week to fifty-one hours, eight of which must be spent in vocational training. The plan of the workmen's compensation is optional, but the common law defenses of employers, who elect to accept the compensation system, are eliminated. Finally, the legislature established an employment agency in the state department of labor, with the hope of serving both labor and capital.

1915.—Lackawanna railroad construction.—Forestry.—On November 6, 1915 an original piece of railroad construction was opened on the Lackawanna road between Scranton, Pennsylvania, and Binghamton, New York. The feature of the work is the great viaduct over the Tunkhannock Valley. It is half a mile long and as high as a twenty-story building. The whole cut-off from Clark's Summit to Halstead, Pennsylvania, is 39.6 miles long and cost the road \$12,000,000. Although it reduces the distance between New York and Buffalo just 3.6 miles, officials claim that it would pay for itself many times over because of the grade and curvature which it eliminates.

1917-1918.—Taxation and internal improvements.—Municipal home rule.—World War legislation and activities.—Mineral production.—In 1917 the legislature passed an inheritance tax law and a year later authorized the issuance of bonds to the amount of \$50,000,000 for use in the construction and improvement of highways. An act of 1917 granted to municipalities within the state the authority to adopt the commission manager or manager type of government. The response of the state to the nation's need during the World War resulted in 297,891 men entering the national Service. This was approximately 7.93% of the whole force. A tank camp, Camp Colt, was located at Gettysburg, and an ambulance unit camp was organized at Allentown. In 1917 the state obligated itself to pay to the dependents of soldiers in the service an amount equal to the difference between that paid by the federal government and that paid in civil employment. Such payment was not to exceed \$2,000. In 1917 Pennsylvania ranked first in the value of her mineral products, producing coal, clay products, cement, and natural gas to the value of \$880,220,510. This was 21.6% of the total mineral production of the United States. The amount of coal mined in the state in 1918 was 183,712,000 tons. This was the largest amount mined in any state in the Union.

ALSO IN: *Mineral resources of the United States*, (*United States Geological Survey*, 1917, pt. 1, pp. 44A, 68A).

1918-1922. — Commission on constitutional amendment.—"In the fall of 1918 William C. Sproul was elected governor of Pennsylvania, pledged to a program of constitutional revision.

Between the election in November and the meeting of the legislature in January, 1919, there was much discussion of this subject. . . . William Draper Lewis, dean of the University of Pennsylvania Law School, long an advocate of revision, urged that a board should first study the subject carefully, with a view to making specific recommendations to a convention to be called later. . . . On March 11 the Crow bill was introduced providing for a commission of twenty-five citizens to study the question of revision and amendment, and report to the session of 1921. . . . [It passed both House and Senate rapidly and was] signed by Governor Sproul on June 4, 1919. . . . The commission met in the senate chamber at Harrisburg two or three days a week, from December 9 to February 11, by which time it had tentatively adopted a complete draft of a revised constitution. It then adjourned until April 6. This preliminary draft, as it was officially known, was printed and given wide circulation throughout the state, with the announcement that public hearings would be held at Harrisburg, beginning April 6. . . . The outstanding feature of the draft, from the liberal point of view, was the provision for a real budget system. Closely related to the budget provision was one specifying that appropriations to educational, beneficial and charitable institutions not wholly under the control of the state should be made in a lump sum to a class or classes of such institutions, thus eliminating much of the evil of the present log-rolling system of making specific appropriations from the state treasury to individual institutions of this character. This preliminary draft contained a new article on municipalities, which were defined as including counties, cities, townships, boroughs, school districts, and incorporated districts. The existing provisions, in original form or as amended, dealing with these subjects . . . were grouped together in this new article, and certain new sections were added. . . . The section relating to debt limit was clarified and that on sinking funds permitted the issuance of serial bonds. . . . The commission reconvened on April 6, and held public hearings in Harrisburg during the next two weeks. . . . After the public hearings in April, the commission again met on May 11, . . . to pass upon all that it considered important of the [suggested] amendments."—E. L. Burnham, *Pennsylvania commission on constitutional amendment* (*National Municipal Review*, Mar., 1921).—In 1922 the legislature granted \$5,000 for further work of the commission.

1919.—New charter granted to Philadelphia.

—Unicameral system. See PHILADELPHIA: 1919.

1919-1922.—Improvement in administrative efficiency.—Commission appointed for Delaware river bridge.—The 1918-1919 session of the Pennsylvania legislature "was marked by the passage of a considerable number of important bills for the improvement of the administrative economy and efficiency of the state government. Many of these measures were recommended by the economy and efficiency commission during the administration of Governor Brumbaugh, but failed of passage then because of his hostility toward the commission and its work, a hostility culminating in the abolition of the commission by the governor and the veto of recommendations made by it and approved by the legislature. When Governor Sproul succeeded to the office of chief executive, although handicapped by the lack of an economy and efficiency commission, he took up vigorously the task of raising the standard of administrative organization, renewing many of the recommendations of the old commission and adding others to

them. . . . Governor Sproul's activities resulted in the reorganization of the adjutant general's office, the state arsenal, the bureau of standard weights and measures, the department of the secretary of the commonwealth, the state police, the bureau of the fire marshal, the office of the state treasurer, the bureau of statistics, the topographic and geologic survey commission, the attorney general's department, the department of agriculture, the state library, the department of printing and binding, the board of pardons, the department of public instruction, the insurance department, the workmen's compensation bureau, the department of internal affairs, and the governor's office. New bureaus and commissions created in carrying out the plan of reorganization included those of vocational training, standardization of positions in the state department, supervision over the erection of all memorials and other works classed as art, the Delaware river bridge project, and the rehabilitation of physically incapacitated workmen. The number of assistant general agents of the state board of public charities, inspectors in the department of labor and industry, and travelling auditors in the auditor general's department, was also increased. Salary adjustments were made in the cases of the governor, state banking examiners, assistant general agents and the secretary of the committee on lunacy of the state board of public charities, legislative employes, and public school teachers in the state. Other measures passed as part of Governor Sproul's program for administrative improvement included the creation of a sinking fund to replace insurance for state institutions and state property; advances of appropriations to state institutions; regulations for the retirement of state employes; the relief of the government from auditing duties; the publication of biennial, instead of annual, reports of state departments; the abolition of the office of health officer for the port of Philadelphia and of the state quarantine board; standardization of methods of accounting, purchasing and recording in state institutions; the legislative adoption of a constitutional amendment prohibiting the payment of any money from the state treasury except by an act of assembly specifying the amount, purpose, and time of such appropriation; the erection of state office building, and provision for the employment of experts by the governor whenever in his judgment they may be needed."—*National Municipal Review*, Oct., 1919, p. 584.—"An act of the 1919-1920 session of the Pennsylvania legislature also provides for a commission, consisting of the board of commissioners of public grounds and buildings, the mayor of Philadelphia, and two other citizens of the state appointed by the governor, to act with the New Jersey bridge commission in the construction of a Delaware river bridge connecting Philadelphia and Camden. The joint commission is authorized to prepare plans, select a site, gather estimates, and proceed with the actual construction of the bridge as far as money for the purpose is appropriated. The states of Pennsylvania and New Jersey are to bear the cost equally, and of Pennsylvania's share the city of Philadelphia is to pay half."—*National Municipal Review*, Oct., 1919, pp. 587-588.

1921.—Speaker of House of Representatives unseated.—"For the first time in the records of Pennsylvania legislative history, the House of Representatives . . . [on April 26, 1921] declared the office of Speaker vacant, and after deposing Robert S. Spangler of York, . . . at the organization in January, elected Samuel A. Whitaker of Chester County Speaker for the remainder of the session.

The change in Speakers was accompanied by turbulent scenes, and was the result of dissatisfaction on the part of Governor Sproul and his friends with the action of the Speaker and his supporters in regard to reporting out certain bills favored by the State Administration."—*New York Times*, Apr. 27, 1921.

1922.—Coal strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS: 1922: Nation-wide coal strike.

ALSO IN: D. Agnew, *History of Pennsylvania north of Ohio river and west of Alleghany river*.—W. C. Armour, *Lives of governors of Pennsylvania*.—S. P. Bates, *History of Pennsylvania*.—S. P. Penniman, *Martial deeds of Pennsylvania*.—S. Burnham, *History of Pennsylvania*.—H. M. Jenkins, *Pennsylvania, colonial and federal*.—T. S. March, *History of Pennsylvania*.—L. S. Shimmell, *History of Pennsylvania*.—S. G. Fisher, *Quaker colonies*.—G. Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker colonies*.—J. W. Graham, *William Penn*.—T. A. Glenn, *Welsh founders of Pennsylvania*.—C. A. Hanna, *Wilderness trail*.—W. R. Shepherd, *History of proprietary government in Pennsylvania*.—W. Leferts, *Settlement of Pennsylvania*.

PENNSYLVANIA, University of. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1683-1791; EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Beginning of commercial education.

PENNSYLVANIA BANK. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1780-1784.

PENNSYLVANIA GERMANS.—"When 'the news spread through the Old World that William Penn, the Quaker, had opened an asylum to the good and the oppressed of every nation, and Humanity went through Europe gathering up the children of misfortune,' our forefathers came out from their hiding places in the forest depths and the mountain valleys which the sun never penetrated, clad in homespun, their feet shod with wood, their dialects oftentimes unintelligible to each other. There was scarcely a family among them which could not be traced to some ancestor burned at the stake for conscience sake. Judge Pennypacker says: 'Beside a record like theirs the sufferings of Pilgrim and Quaker seem trivial.' . . . The thousands of Germans, Swiss and Dutch who migrated here on the invitation of Penn, came without ability to speak the English language, and without any knowledge, except that derived from general report, of the customs and habits of thought of the English people. They went vigorously to work to clear the wilderness and establish homes. They were sober, religious, orderly, industrious and thrifty. The reports the earlier settlers made to their friends at home of the prosperity and liberty they enjoyed in their new homes, induced from year to year many others to come. Their numbers increased so much as to alarm the proprietary officials. Logan wanted their immigration prevented by Act of Parliament, 'for fear the colony would in time be lost to the crown.' He wrote a letter in which he says: 'The numbers from Germany at this rate will soon produce a German colony here, and perhaps such a one as Britain received from Saxony in the 5th Century.' As early as 1747, one of the proprietary Governors attributed the prosperity of the Pennsylvania colony to the thrift, sobriety and good characters of the Germans. Numerous as they were, because this was in its government a purely English colony, the part they took in its public affairs was necessarily limited. The Government officials and the vast majority of the members of the Assembly were all English. During the long struggle in the Colonies to adjust the strained relations with Great Britain, the Germans were seem-

ingly indifferent. They saw no practical gain in surrendering the Penn Charter, and Proprietary Government, under which they had obtained their homes, for the direct rule of the British King. They could not understand the distinction between King and Parliament. . . . When, therefore, in 1776, the issue was suddenly enlarged into a broad demand for final separation from Great Britain, and the creation of a Republic, all their traditional love of freedom was fully aroused. Under the Proprietary rule, although constituting nearly one-half the population of the colony, they were practically without representation in the General Assembly, and without voice in the Government. The right of 'electing or being elected' to the Assembly was confined to natural born subjects of England, or persons naturalized in England or in the province, who were 21 years old, and freeholders of the province owning fifty acres of seated land, and at least twelve acres improved, or worth clear fifty pounds and a resident for two years. Naturalization was not the simple thing it now is. The conditions were exceptionally severe, and comparatively few Germans qualified themselves to vote. The delegates to the Colonial Congress were selected by the General Assembly. In November, 1775, the Assembly instructed the Pennsylvania delegates not to vote for separation from Great Britain. The majority of the delegates were against separation. . . . At the election for new members in May, 1776, in Philadelphia, three out of four of those elected were opposed to separation. The situation was most critical. Independence and union were not possible without Pennsylvania. Geographically, she was midway between the Colonies. She was one of the wealthiest and strongest. Her government was in the hands of those opposed to separation. One course only remained. Peaceful efforts in the Assembly to enfranchise the Germans, by repealing the naturalization laws and oath of allegiance, had failed, and now this must be accomplished by revolution, because their enfranchisement would give the friends of liberty and union an overwhelming and aggressive majority. This was the course resolved on. The Philadelphia Committee called a conference of committees of the Counties. On the 18th of June, 1776, this provincial conference, numbering 104, met in Philadelphia. The German counties were represented no longer by English Tories. There were leading Germans in the delegations from Philadelphia, Lancaster, Northampton, York, Bucks and Berks. In Berks, the loyalist Biddle gives place to eight prominent Germans, headed by Gov. Heister, Cols. Hunter, Eckert and Lutz. The proprietary government of Pennsylvania, with its Tory Assembly, was overthrown—foundation, pillar and dome. This conference called a Provincial Convention to frame a new Government. On the petition of the Germans, the members of the Convention were to be elected by persons qualified to vote for Assembly, and by the military associators (volunteers), being freemen 21 years of age, resident in the province one year. This gave the Germans the right to vote. Thus says Bancroft: 'The Germans were incorporated into the people and made one with them.' The 19th of June, 1776, enfranchised the Germans, and made the Declaration of Independence possible. . . . It is absolutely true, that, as the English people of the province were divided in 1776, the Germans were the potential factors in securing the essential vote of Pennsylvania for the Declaration of Independence. . . . Throughout the Revolution, these Germans . . . were the steadfast defenders of the new Republic. Dr. Stillé, in his

recent admirable 'Life of Dickinson,' concedes that 'no portion of the population was more ready to defend its homes, or took up arms more willingly in support of the American cause.' Washington, when in Philadelphia after the war, testified his high appreciation of the hearty support the Germans gave him, and the cause he represented, by worshiping with his family in the old German church on Race street. The descendants of the Pennsylvania-Germans have settled all over the West, contributing to Ohio, Illinois and other Western States, the same sturdy, honest population that characterizes Pennsylvania."—E. K. Martin and G. F. Baer, *Addresses (Proceedings, Pennsylvania-German Convention, Apr. 15, 1891)*.

PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD. See RAILROADS: 1826-1850; 1850-1860; 1870-1910; 1921: United States; RAILROADS, ELECTRIC: Interurban, etc.

PENNY PAPERS. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1830-1833; 1853-1870.

PENNY POST. See POSTAL SYSTEMS: 1600-1800; 1840: Adoption of penny-postage.

PENOBSCOT REGION, district in Maine, included in the Norumbega of old geographers. See NORUMBEGA.

PEÑON DE VELEZ, or Peñon de la Gomera, fortified Spanish islet in the Mediterranean. See BARBARY STATES: 1563-1565.

PENSACOLA, Florida, seaport six miles from the Gulf of Mexico. The population in 1920 was 31,035. It is a commercial center with important fish and lumber interests.

1559.—Spanish colonizing attempts. See FLORIDA: 1549-1559.

1781.—Surrendered to the Spanish by the British. See FLORIDA: 1779-1781.

1812-1813.—Harbor occupied by the British.—Recaptured by Jackson. See FLORIDA: 1812-1819; LOUISIANA: 1813-1815.

PENSIONS. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries.

PENTAPOLIS, early name for Cyrenaica, Africa. See CYRENAICA.

PENTAPOLIS, name applied during the Middle Ages to a district in Italy, on the Adriatic coast. In 803 it was included in the Western empire by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. See VENICE: 697-810.

PENTATHLON.—The five exercises of running, leaping, wrestling, throwing the disks, and throwing the spear, formed what the Greeks called the pentathlon. "At the four great national festivals all these had to be gone through on one and the same day, and the prize was awarded to him only who had been victorious in all of them."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, sect. 52.

PENTECOSTAL CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE. See CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE.

PEONAGE: Introduction by Spaniards.—Twentieth century conditions in Central and South America.—Peonage is a status or condition of compulsory service based upon the indebtedness of the peon to the master. The basic fact is indebtedness. (Clyatt case, 197 U.S., 207.) Peonage was introduced into both North and South America by the Spanish conquerors in the sixteenth century. "The first settlers everywhere forced the Indians to work for them, either by declaring them slaves, as a punishment for rebellion, or by establishing the *encomienda* system. [See ENCOMIENDA; COLONIZATION: Spanish.] The Indians never entirely regained their economic independence, for their descendants, with the exception of a few

thousands who live an isolated, half-savage life in clearings in the forest, are to the present day [written in 1918] dependent upon employment on the plantations of the white families. . . . [In Guatemala] the *jornaleros*, or day laborers, are still held on the plantations under a peonage system. Theoretically the Indian is perfectly free to contract himself or not as he pleases, but when he has once done so, he may not leave his employer's service until he has completed the time for which he agreed to work and has repaid any money which the patron may have lent him. If he attempts to escape, he is hunted down by the authorities and returned to the plantation; and the entire expense of capturing him and bringing him back is debited in his account. If, on the other hand, he refuses to work, he may be imprisoned until he is in a more reasonable frame of mind. Those who still prove obstinate, after fifteen days in jail, may be sent at the request of the employer to the convict labor squads, where fifty per cent of the returns of their labor are set aside for the benefit of their creditors. The whole system depends upon keeping the *mozo* in debt. For this purpose, he is allowed a limited amount of credit at the plantation store and is even loaned small sums of money from time to time if necessary. Few are energetic or ambitious to make a serious effort to free themselves from these obligations. They have in fact little incentive to do so, for those who leave the plantation can only look forward to similar employment elsewhere, or what is much worse, to impressment into the army, from which *mozos* working on large coffee, sugarcane, banana, or cacao plantations are legally exempt. . . . This peonage system, in itself pernicious, is subject to the gravest abuses. The short-sighted and improvident Indians are easily persuaded to accept advances of money when they have some immediate occasion, such as a baptism or a funeral, for spending it, without realizing apparently the onerous conditions under which they must make repayment."—D. G. Munro, *Five republics of Central America* (D. Kinley, ed., *Carnegie endowment for international peace*, pp. 7-8, 60, 62).—The country about Eten in Peru is a land of "large landed estates whose rich proprietors are grand seigneurs and whose workmen are peons subject to their every whim. As a general thing the common people are well treated and their lords are kind, generous, and hospitable, even if a bit fiery and worldly. These conditions are more apt to occur in Peru than in Chile, where the spirit of manhood and personal independence is the best developed anywhere in South America."—C. S. Osborn, *Andean land (South America)* v. 2, p. 162.—"The peonage system, while undoubtedly existing in many localities in the same sense in which it still survives in some American mill-towns, is by and large a thing of the past [written in 1922], and in some republics—the most notable recent example being Ecuador—has received its death-blow through formal legislative action decreeing its total abolition and cancelling the debts owed by any persons in a state of peonage to their masters."—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America*, p. 103.—See also ECUADOR: 1918.

Mexico.—Peonage on haciendas.—Contract labor in prison system.—Conditions in Yucatan.—Abolition in Mexico.—"Labour, as measured by wages paid to the individual workman, is cheap in Mexico, but large employers state that when the total cost is compared with the output, there is very little difference between the price of labour here and other parts of the world. This generalization as to cost does not apply on the great haci-

endas. . . . There, labour is employed under peculiar conditions, which in many cases is hardly to be distinguished from actual slavery. . . . The hacendado (proprietor) supplies his peons with everything they eat or drink or wear, and the cost is charged against the peon's wages; for there is as yet [1914] no 'Truck Act' in the Republic. The peons are generally born and reared on the estate. When they arrive at maturity, often before it, the first thing they do is to borrow from the hacendado a sum of money to enable them to get married. From that hour the labourer ceases to be a free man. . . . Never again in his life will the peon be free of debt, because it is a sheer impossibility for him to save any money. Indeed, he rarely or never sees any money. He toils from year's end to year's end; the hacendado, or his manager, supplying food and clothes as the peon requires them for himself and his wife and children; and every year he gets deeper into the mire. So long as he owes a single peso he is tied body and soul to the estate on which he was born. Imprisonment for debt is supposed to be contrary to the laws of the Republic, but a peon in debt, if he runs away, will be arrested and handed back to his master. . . . If, in his despair, he commits a crime and is imprisoned, he is in even deeper slavery than before, because the system of contract labour prevails in Mexico, and criminals are hired out to contractors, who usually see to it that they make a profit on the transaction. Little wonder, then, that the late Francisco Madero's promise to reform the laws relating to 'peonage,' and to give every peon land and a mule of his own, brought the poor, discontented wretches flocking to his standard, and enabled him to overthrow Porfirio Diaz. The bitter disappointment that followed the failure of Madero to fulfill any of his promises . . . had much to do with the disorder [which followed]."—R. J. MacHugh, *Modern Mexico*, pp. 111-113.—Owing to the commercial aspect of the work on which the peons are employed, the system developed in its worst form in Yucatan. In 1914 an investigator wrote as follows: "Slavery is peonage carried to its greatest possible extreme, and the reason we find the extreme in Yucatan is that, while in some other sections of Mexico a fraction of the ruling interests are opposed to peonage and consequently exert a modifying influence upon it, in Yucatan all the ruling interests are in henequen. The cheaper the worker the higher the profits for all. The peon becomes a chattel slave. Maya slaves die off faster than they are born, and . . . two-thirds of the Yaquis die during the first year of their residence in the country. Hence the problem of recruiting the slaves seemed . . . a very serious one. . . . [It was not, however, so serious as it seemed. All that was necessary was to get a free laborer into debt.] The amount of the debt does not matter, so long as it is a debt, and the little transaction is arranged by men who combine the functions of money lender and slave broker. Some of them have offices in Merida and they get the free laborers, clerks and poorer class of people generally into debt . . . by playing on their needs and tempting them. . . . These men buy and sell slaves. And the planters buy and sell slaves. . . . Slaves are not only used on the henequen plantations, but in the city, as personal servants, as laborers, as household drudges, as prostitutes. . . . The debt element in Yucatan not only does not palliate the condition of the slave, but rather makes it harder. It increases his extremity, for . . . it reaches out its tentacles and drags down his brother, too. The

portion of the people of Yucatan who are born free possess no 'inalienable right' to their freedom. They are free only by virtue of their being prosperous. Let a family, however virtuous, however worthy, however cultivated, fall into misfortune, let the parents fall into debt and be unable to pay the debt, and the whole family is liable to pass into the hands of a henequen planter. Through debt, the dying slaves of the farms are replaced by the unsuccessful wage-workers of the cities. . . . The slaves of Yucatan get no money. They are half starved. They are worked almost to death. They are beaten. A large percentage of them are locked up every night in a house resembling a jail."—E. J. Turner, *Barbarous Mexico*, pp. 18-22.—In 1911 the abolition of peonage was one of the chief issues in the overthrow of President Diaz. The new government had promised freedom and a dollar a day but so far (1922) the average wage is less than this.—See also MEXICO: 1885-1908; 1910-1923.

In the United States.—Russell report.—Investigation by Immigration Commission.—Peonage in the South.—Prison peonage.—Early in the century complaints were made that a virtual system of peonage was maintained in some parts of the United States. Directions were given for an official investigation, which was made by Charles W. Russell, the assistant attorney-general, who reported as follows: "Under the criminal law as now in force the offense of peonage may be defined as causing compulsory service to be rendered by one man to another on the pretext of having him work out the amount of a debt, real or claimed. That is Mexican peonage proper, as defined by our highest court in the Clyatt case (197 U.S., p. 207). But, as fully explained in my report of October, 1907, and January, 1908, where there is no indebtedness either real or claimed, a conspiracy to cause compulsory service of citizens of the United States is punishable; and so, also, according to the only court that has directly passed upon the question, is the carrying or enticing any person from one place to another in order that he may be held in compulsory service.

"I use the words 'compulsory service' as equivalent to the constitutional phrase 'involuntary servitude' because the Supreme Court so treats them in the Clyatt case, and I say that a mere claim of debt is sufficient because several inferior courts have so decided, and because in the Clyatt case the indictment, to which no objection seems to have been made, alleged a mere claim of indebtedness. . . . I have no doubt, from my investigations and experiences, that the chief support of peonage is the peculiar system of State laws prevailing in the South, intended evidently to compel service on the part of the workingman. It is hoped that an enlightened self-interest and the demand for labor made necessary by the expansion of old industries and the introduction of new will lead to the amendment or repeal of the State laws which are the chief support of peonage practices. These State laws take various forms and are used in various ways to uphold peonage and other kinds of involuntary servitude. Some of them are vagrancy laws, some contract labor or employment laws, some fraudulent pretense or false promise laws, and there are divers others. Some few of those in question, such as absconding debtor laws, labor enticing, and board-bill laws, were not originally passed to enslave workmen; but in view of the use to which they are put, need amendment in order that they cannot be so abused. These laws are used to threaten workmen who, having been

defrauded into going to an employer by false reports as to the conditions of employment and the surroundings, naturally become dissatisfied as soon as they find how they have been defrauded. . . . Until we began our work in October, 1906, the chief supply of peons came from the slums—i.e., foreign quarters of New York, and from Ellis Island, through the operations of licensed labor agents of New York. These were reaping a rich harvest from the price per head for laborers supplied to employers at a distance, and the temptations to fill all orders and outdo rival agents by a total disregard of truth and honesty in dealing with both laborer and employer was too great for a number of these brokers." "The Immigration Commission was already planning an investigation of alleged peonage cases in which immigrants were concerned, when, on March 2, 1908, the following resolution was passed by the House of Representatives: 'That the Immigration Commission be requested to make an investigation into the treatment and conditions of work of immigrants on the cotton plantations of the Mississippi Delta, in the States of Mississippi and Arkansas, and upon the turpentine farms, lumber camps, and railway camps in the States of Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, and other States, and to report them at as early a date as possible.' Many complaints of peonage and ill treatment had been made by immigrant laborers working in southern States. Reports of conditions in that section, which had appeared in magazines and newspapers, had inspired the resolution which was a combination of two resolutions introduced by two southern Congressmen. It was denied that peonage existed in the South, and no suggestion or intimation was made, during the debate in the House upon the resolution, that any condition of peonage had ever existed either in the East or in the West. As is evidenced by the Congressional Record, the phrase 'and other States' was inserted so as to avoid the appearance of sectionalism. . . . The word 'peonage' does not appear in the House resolution, the Commission having been requested 'to make an investigation into the treatment and conditions of work of immigrants.' It was evidently intended, however, that an examination should be made of complaints and cases in which peonage had been alleged, and the peonage committee confined its work chiefly to such matters. . . . This committee found and reports that instances of peonage . . . had occurred in 1906 and 1907 in some of the southern States, but these were only sporadic instances and the Commission found no general system of peonage anywhere. There had been convictions in Florida, including one case in which the defendants resided in Alabama, and the most flagrant case found was in the State of Arkansas. In the Arkansas case the immigrant was arrested as a vagrant, convicted before a justice of the peace, and sentenced to pay a fine of \$10 and costs. There was added to this sentence, without authority of law, the expenses and mileage of the constable who came to the town where he was arrested, and the expenses and mileage of the constable and prisoner going from the place of arrest to the convict farm, the lessee of which paid to the county where the arrest took place 25 per cent of the fine only and the justice's costs, but held the prisoner to work out both the legal and illegal expenses at the rate of 75 cents a day. In this case the prisoners were kept in a barn, 80 men being kept in a moderate-sized building with no special arrangements for ventilation or sanitation. On Saturday nights the men were locked into the building and kept there until

Monday morning. There was a good deal of sickness among the men, despite the fact that during the week days they were healthfully employed out of doors. While at work the men were guarded by 'trusties' armed with shotguns. There were both white and colored men among the trusties. Members of the subcommittee were present in the United States circuit court in Little Rock when the proprietor of this particular farm was the unsuccessful defendant in the suit for damages brought by a prisoner who had been so illegally detained and in whose favor the jury gave a substantial verdict. These prisoners, held to work at illegal sums and some of whom were whipped and otherwise illtreated, illustrate what is commonly accepted as peonage. On the other hand, the following statement of facts also constitutes peonage: A laborer secures an advance, either in money or by way of payment of transportation expenses, under an agreement to work out the amount. He leaves his employment with or, as frequently happens, without justification before the employer is fully repaid. The employer procures his arrest, either on the ground of obtaining money under false pretenses or under the labor statutes of many of the States, and then enters into a new agreement with the laborer that, if he will return to his employment and work out his indebtedness the criminal proceeding will be dropped. A majority of the cases brought to the attention of the Commission approach nearer the latter class than the first. While in the South the Commission was informed that cases of restraint of foreign laborers, which constituted peonage under the Clyatt decision, existed in many northern states, and consequently an investigator who had been with the committee in the South was directed to investigate these complaints. The result was that in every State except Oklahoma and Connecticut the investigator found evidence of practices between employer and employee which, if substantiated by legal evidence in each case, would constitute peonage as the Supreme Court has described it. In connection with the southern cases it should be noted that in nearly every instance brought to the attention of the Commission the laborers who were held in peonage had been sent south from New York City, the victims of gross misrepresentations by labor agents there as to conditions under which they were to work, and totally unfitted for the work to which they were going. . . . Practically all of the prosecutions for peonage have been had in the South; indictments have been found in Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, Arkansas, and Louisiana, and convictions or pleas of guilty in Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Missouri. In the opinion of the Commission the vigorous prosecutions have broken up whatever tendency there was toward peonage in connection with aliens in the southern States, and the fact that juries in those States will convict even in cases of technical peonage unaccompanied by brutality would seem to indicate that offenses against alien laborers will not be permitted to go unpunished. Possibly the most widely heralded case of alleged peonage was that connected with the building of the extension of the Florida East Coast Railway. These allegations were investigated by the Bureau of Labor, by the governor of Florida, and by the Immigration Commission. . . . Neither the governor of Florida, the Commission, nor the Department of Justice . . . [was] able to find anything in the nature of legal proof that peonage

ever existed upon any of this work of the Florida East Coast Railway. . . . The peonage cases in the South relating to immigrants have been found to cover almost every industry—farming, lumbering, logging, railroading, mining, factories, and construction work. . . . Federal attorneys and judges in the southern States have been unable to find any provisions in the statutes of the United States imposing penalties for the imposition of slavery unaccompanied by some special feature. It is apparent that Congress has never passed a general measure providing for the enforcement of the thirteenth amendment. Under Revised Statutes, section 5508, . . . if a person simply places or holds another in slavery, it is impossible for the Federal courts to impose penalties under statutes at present in vogue, unless the placing or holding be for the purpose of forcing the settlement of a debt, no matter how great may be the abuses perpetrated upon the person held. In the Clyatt case the Supreme Court decided unmistakably that the peonage statute . . . referred only to cases where the return or arrest or holding has been for the purpose of enforcing the payment of a debt. . . . The Federal attorney for the southern district of Alabama testified before the peonage committee that he could not obtain an indictment in a case in his district in which a woman had been held in slavery on an isolated farm for about ten years, . . . because no statute could be found covering the case. A similar case . . . [was] reported from Virginia. Two of the members of the Commission visited Chicago, St. Louis, St. Paul, and other cities of the West. . . . They found in several parts of the West that the padrone system was practiced to a considerable extent by the proprietors of shoe-shining establishments, and that in some of the lumber and railroad camps in Minnesota and North Dakota laborers were held in a state of technical peonage. . . . Undoubted evidence . . . [was] discovered that peonage . . . [was] practiced in the western States, and the indications . . . [were] that there are many cases of involuntary servitude in that section. The peonage investigation . . . developed the fact that involuntary servitude may be found in the East as well as in the South and the West. Since the evils of involuntary servitude have been largely stamped out in the southern States, there . . . probably existed in Maine [in the lumber districts] the most complete system of peonage in the entire country. . . . In February, 1907, a bill became a law making it a crime for a person to enter into an agreement to labor for any lumbering operation or in driving logs and in consideration thereof receive any advance of goods, money, or transportation, and unreasonably and with intent to defraud, fail to enter into said employment as agreed and labor a sufficient length of time to reimburse his employer for said advances and expenses. Judges in municipal courts and trial justices were given jurisdiction to try cases under this law, and the act provided that it would take effect immediately upon approval. When this bill was before the legislature, requests were made by citizens interested in factories and other industries that the provisions of the statute be made to protect all employers of labor. The attorney who introduced the bill on behalf of the lumber interests which he represented, . . . stated that he had refused to accede to these requests, inasmuch as he believed the provision should not be extended. The protection granted by the statute, therefore, was restricted to a favored class, persons interested in 'lumbering operations and in driving logs.' . . . [Under this law] jus-

tices of the peace in Maine have decided indiscriminately that, in order to obtain a conviction under the law of that State it is necessary to show only that the laborer obtained the 'advances' and failed 'to labor a sufficient length of time to reimburse his employer.' . . . Considerable peonage has resulted from this statute . . . [which] has been vigorously enforced."—United States Immigration Commission, *Peonage and the treatment and conditions of work of immigrants* (pamphlet), pp. 7-12.—"There are to-day in certainly six states, and probably in ten, in which the institution of slavery formerly existed, laws which make it possible to compel men to render service against their will, and that too when they have committed no act which, outside of those States would be held to be a crime in any English-speaking community. For convenience, these laws may be classed under at least five heads: Contracts of employment, enticement of laborers to quit their employers, violation of a contract with a surety by one convicted of a misdemeanor, the laws of vagrancy, and the laws relating to immigrant agents. The laws relating to contracts of employment are to be found on the statute books of six States—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina and South Carolina. These laws are very similar in their phraseology and in the penalties attached to their violation in all of these States. The Alabama law, which has recently [written in 1915] been declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States, . . . provides, . . . that any person who enters into a contract in writing to perform any service for another and thereby obtains money or other personal property from such person with intent to defraud the person, and who leaves his service without performing the act or refunding the money or goods, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; or that any person who in writing makes a contract for the rent of land and obtains money or personal property from the landlord with intent to deceive him and leaves without performing the service, refunding the money, or paying for the property, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor. The penalty for each of these offenses is a fine not exceeding \$300 and in default of payment, imprisonment for a period of not exceeding one year. This Alabama statute was later amended, . . . [so as to provide] that the failure of any person who enters into such contracts to perform the service, or to cultivate the land, or refund the money, or pay for the goods, shall be prima facie evidence of the intent to injure his employer or landlord, or to defraud him. . . . Another form in which peonage is practiced is by the passage of acts making it unlawful to entice laborers to leave their employers or landlords, or to employ persons who have left their employers without fulfilling their contracts. Such laws are found in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee. . . . A third law under which peonage is practiced, . . . [found in Alabama alone] provides that when any person who has been convicted of a misdemeanor, signs a written contract in open court approved by the judge of the court in consideration of another person becoming his surety on a confession of judgment for the fine and costs, agrees to perform any service for such person and afterwards fails or refuses to perform the service, on conviction will be fined not less than the amount of damages which the party contracting with him has suffered, and not more than five hundred dollars. . . . In many of the Southern States the vagrancy laws are exceedingly drastic, and under their enforcement by the courts

almost any person may be convicted as a vagrant, and being unable to pay his fine or to give surety for his future good conduct may enter into a contract, with one who does pay his fine or become his surety, to work for him, and if he does not perform the labor may be prosecuted . . . and for the second offense may enter into a contract for additional service for an extended period, and thus the restraint of his liberty may be almost interminable."—L. M. Hershaw, *Peonage (Occasional Papers, no. 15, American Negro Academy, pamphlet, pp. 7-9)*.

Another system commonly known as peonage is the convict lease system in which the prison considers the prisoners its debtors and leases them out to contractors. This system is being severely condemned both in itself and in its methods. "Briefly summed up, the specific charges preferred by Colonel Byrd, . . . who had made a most painstaking and exhaustive investigation of the convict lease camps of Georgia are as follows [written in 1907]: (1) Robbing convicts of their time allowances for good behaviour. . . . In the event of good conduct the law provides that a prisoner's term of confinement shall be shortened four days during each month of service. In fifteen out of twenty-four private camps the contractors did not give the convicts a single day off for good service, nor did they even make pretence of doing so. (2) Forcing convicts to work from fourteen to twenty hours a day. (3) Providing them no clothes, no shoes, no beds, no heat in winter, and no ventilation whatever in single rooms in summer in which sixty convicts slept in chains. (4) Giving them rotten food. (5) Allowing them to die, when sick, for lack of medical attention. (6) Outraging the women. (7) Beating to death old men too feeble to work. (8) Killing young men for the mere sake of killing. (9) Suborning jurors and county officers, whose sworn duty it is to avenge the wrongdoing of guards."—M. C. Terrell, *Peonage in the United States (Nineteenth Century, Aug., 1907)*.—Early in 1923, owing to the death in a Florida prison camp of a prisoner named Tarbert, who had been "contracted out," a great deal of publicity was directed to the system of prison peonage. It was proved that his death was the direct result of ill-treatment, and as a consequence the state legislature passed a law forbidding corporal punishment of such prisoners. Various associations of workers, for example, the International Association of Garment Workers, condemned the contract system, and issued pamphlets naming the states in which the system was in use, and the firms who took advantage of it.

PEOPLE'S PARTY, United States. See U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: People's, or Populist; 1900 (May-November); 1904 (May-November); 1908 (April-November).

PEPE, Guglielmo (1783-1855), Neapolitan revolutionary general. See ITALY: 1820-1821.

PEPIN, or Pippin, I (d. 838), king of Aquitaine, 817-838. See GERMANY: 814-843.

Pepin, or Pippin, I, the Elder, or Pepin of Landen (d. 640), mayor of the palace to Dagobert I. See GERMANY: 481-768; 687-800.

Pepin, or Pippin, II, of Herstal (d. 714), ruler of the Franks. See FRANKS: 511-752; GERMANY: 687-800.

Pepin, or Pippin, III, the Short (c. 714-768), king of the Franks, 751-768. Mayor of the palace, 741-751; aided the pope against the Lombards; 754-755; began wars against the Saxons which his son Charlemagne finished. See FRANKS: 511-752; CALIPHATE: 752-759; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Rise of the Frankish kingdom; GERMANY: 687-800;

ITALY: 568-800; PAPACY: 728-774; 755-774; VENICE: 697-810.

PEPLUM.—"The peplum constituted the outermost covering of the body. Among the Greeks it was worn in common by both sexes, but was chiefly reserved for occasions of ceremony or of public appearance, and, as well in its texture as in its shape, seemed to answer to our shawl. When very long and ample, so as to admit of being wound twice round the body—first under the arms, and the second time over the shoulders—it assumed the name of diplax. In rainy or cold weather it was drawn over the head. At other times this peculiar mode of wearing it was expressive of humility or of grief."—T. Hope, *Costume of the ancients, v. 1*.

PEPPERELL, Sir William (1696-1759), American soldier. See NEW ENGLAND: 1745.

PEPYS, Samuel (1633-1703), English diarist. Noted for his "Diary," begun in 1660, giving an account of English life during the reign of Charles II.

PEPYS, William (1775-1856), English scientist. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1815-1921.

PEQUOTS, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodlands area; SHAWANES.

War with American colonists. See NEW ENGLAND: 1637; RHODE ISLAND: 1637.

PER CENTUM IMMIGRATION ACT (1920). See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1920-1921: Efforts to check immigration.

PERA, foreign quarter of Constantinople. In 1261 it was occupied by the Genoese. See CONSTANTINOPLE: Map of the Dardanelles, etc.; GENOA: 1261-1299.

PERAK, one of the Federated Malay States. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: 1909-1914.

PERCEVAL, Spencer (1762-1812), English statesman. Member of Parliament, 1796-1801; solicitor-general, 1801; attorney-general, 1802-1809; prime minister, 1809-1812. See ENGLAND: 1806-1812.

PERCY, George (1580-1632), British colonial governor. See VIRGINIA: 1600-1616.

PERCY, Sir Henry, called Hotspur (1364-1403), English soldier. Leader of the English in the battle of Otterburn, 1388. See OTTERBURN.

PERCY-GRAY LAW (1895). See New York: 1906-1910.

PERDICCAS, founder of the Macedonian dynasty, 700 B.C. See MACEDONIA: B.C. 700-359.

PERDICCAS (d. 321 B.C.), Macedonian general. See MACEDONIA: B.C. 323-316.

PERDUELLIO, Crime of.—"Perduellis," derived from 'duellum' e.p. 'bellum,' properly speaking signifies 'a public enemy,' and hence Perduellio was employed [among the Romans] in legal phraseology to denote the crime of hostility to one's native country, and is usually represented as corresponding, in a general sense, to our term High Treason."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquity, ch. 9*. See MAJESTAS.

PERED, Battle of (1849). See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

PEREDA, José María de (1833-1906), Spanish novelist. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 19th-20th centuries.

PEREGRINI.—"The term 'Peregrinus,' with which in early times 'Hostis' (i.e. stranger) was synonymous, embraced, in its widest acceptance, every one possessed of personal freedom who was not a Civis Romanus. Generally, however, Peregrinus was not applied to all foreigners indiscriminately, but to those persons only, who, al-

though not Cives, were connected with Rome."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquity*, ch. 3.—See also CIVES ROMANI and PEREGRINI.

PEREIRE, or Pereira, Giacobbo Rodriguez (1715-1780), one of the inventors of the deaf-mute language. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Deaf mutes.

PERETZ, Isaac Loeb (1851-1915), Jewish short story writer. See JEWS: Language and literature.

PEREYASLAV, Treaty of (1654). See POLAND: 1648-1654; UKRAINE: 1340-1654.

PERFECTIONISTS, Communistic society founded by John Humphrey Noyes, 1834. See SOCIALISM: 1848.

PERFUMES. See CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Essential oils and perfumes; Interrelation between dyes, drugs, etc.

PERGAMUM, or Pergamus.—This ancient city in northwestern Asia Minor, within the province of Mysia, on the north of the river Caicus (see GREECE: Map), became, during the troubled century that followed the death of Alexander (323 B.C.), first the seat of an important principality, and then the capital of a rich and flourishing kingdom, to which it gave its name. It seems to have owed its fortunes to a great deposit of treasures—part of the plunder of Asia—which Lysimachus, one of the generals and successors of Alexander, left for safe keeping within its walls, under the care of an eunuch, named Philetærus. This Philetærus found excuses, after a time, for renouncing allegiance to Lysimachus, appropriating the treasures and using them to make himself lord of Pergamum. He was succeeded by a nephew, Eumenes, and he in turn by his cousin Attalus. The latter, "who had succeeded to the possession of Pergamum in 241 [B.C.], met and vanquished the Galatians in a great battle [see GALATIA], which gave him such popularity that he was able to assume the title of king, and extend his influence far beyond his inherited dominion. . . . The court of Pergamum continued to flourish till it controlled the larger part of Asia Minor. In his long reign this king represented almost as much as the King of Egypt the art and culture of Hellenism. [See SCULPTURE: Hellenistic.] His great victory over the Galatians was celebrated by the dedication of so many splendid offerings to various shrines, that the Pergamene school made a distinct impression upon the world's taste. Critics have enumerated seventeen remaining types, which appear to have come from statues of that time—the best known is the so-called 'Dying Gladiator,' who is really a dying Galatian. . . . Perhaps the literature of the court was even more remarkable. Starting on the model of Alexandria, with a great library, Attalus was far more fortunate than the Ptolemies in making his university the home of Stoic philosophy."—J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's empire*, ch. 20.—From the assumption of the crown by Attalus I the kingdom of Pergamus existed about a century. Its last king bequeathed it to the Romans in 133 B.C. and it became a Roman province. Its splendid library of 200,000 volumes was given to Cleopatra a century later by Antony, and was added to that of Alexandria. (See also LIBRARIES: Ancient: Greece.) The name of the city is perpetuated in the word parchment, which is derived therefrom. Its ruins are found at a place called Bergamah.—See also SELEUCIDE: B.C. 224-187; ALEXANDRIA: B.C. 282-246.

B.C. 189.—Strengthened by new provinces. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 192-189.

B.C. 131.—Battle of Leucæ. See LEUCÆ, BATTLE OF.

1336.—Conquest by Ottoman Turks. See TURKEY: 1320-1350.

PERGOLES, Giovanni Battista (1710-1736), Italian composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1730-1816: Italian.

PERI, Jacopo (1561-c.1633), Italian composer. Studied with Malvezzi of Lucca; master at courts of Ferdinand I and Cosimo II de' Medici, and from 1601 at the court of Ferrara. Peri's musical drama "Dafne" (libretto by Rinuccini) was produced in 1597, and in 1600 he produced "Euridice," the first true opera.—See also MUSIC: Modern: 1575-1676.

PERICLES (c. 490-429 B.C.), Athenian statesman and orator. Entered public life about 469 B.C.; became principal minister of Athens, 444 B.C.; secured the ostracism of Cimon, and later of Thucydides; built a great navy and completed the fortification of Athens and Piræus; attempted to exert influence over the other Greek states with a view to ultimate union; encouraged art and literature, and caused the building of the Parthenon, Odeon, and other notable structures; his imperialistic foreign policy was in large measure responsible for the Peloponnesian War, 431 B.C.; deposed, 430 B.C., but reinstated shortly after; died of the plague, 429 B.C. See ATHENS: B.C. 431-429; GREECE: B.C. 431-429.

Political leadership in Athens.—Makes Thirty Years' truce with Sparta. See GREECE: B.C. 477-461; B.C. 449-445; ATHENS: B.C. 446-445.

Patron of the arts.—His character.—Influence on his age. See ATHENS: B.C. 461-431: General aspect, etc.; Development of Greek drama; Pericles; Appreciation of the age of Pericles; ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS; EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece: Sophists.

Funeral oration.—See GREECE: B.C. 430.

PÉRIER, Casimir Pierre (1777-1832), French statesman. Member of the chamber of deputies, 1817-1832; prime-minister under Louis Philippe, 1831-1832. See FRANCE: 1830-1840.

PÉRIER, Jacques (1742-1818), French experimenter in mechanics. See STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings.

PERINTHUS, ancient Thracian city, fifty-five miles west of Byzantium. In 340 it was besieged by Philip of Macedon. See GREECE: B.C. 340.

PERIOECI, subject population of Laconia. See SPARTA: Situation; B.C. 743-510.

PERIPATETIC SCHOOL, Athens. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece: Socrates and the philosophical schools.

PERIPLUS, in the usage of Greek and Roman writers the term periplus signified a voyage round the coast of some sea.

PERISCOPE. See SUBMARINES: 1913-1920.

PERIZZITES.—"The name 'Perizzites,' where mentioned in the Bible, is not meant to designate any particular race, but country people, in contradistinction to those dwelling in towns."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history*, bk. 6, ch. 1.

PERKIN, Sir William Henry (1838-1907), English chemist. See CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Dyes.

PERKINS INSTITUTE, Massachusetts, school for the blind, opened in 1832. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble minded: Blind.

PERKINS LAW (1915). See IOWA: 1915-1919.

PERMANENT COURT OF ARBITRATION. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Mod-

ern: 1898-1899; HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Convention for pacific settlement, etc.

PERMANENT COURT OF INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE. See INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF.

PERMUTATION OF CONSONANTS, Law of. See PHILOLOGY: 6.

PERNANT, town in France, about fifty miles northeast of Paris. It was captured by the Allies in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 11.

PERONNE, town in France, ninety-four miles northeast of Paris.

1468.—Treaty of Burgundy and France. See BURGUNDY: 1467-1468.

1653.—Battle of French and Spanish. See FRANCE: 1653-1656.

1916.—Entered by the Allies. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c, 2; e, 8.

1917.—Scene of fighting. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: a, 1.

1918.—Occupied by the Germans.—Retaken by the Allies. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: a, 1; c, 32; d, 1; i; k, 3.

PEROSI, Lorenzo (1872-), Italian composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1842-1921: Modern Italian school.

PERPETUAL EDICT, of Don John (1577). See NETHERLANDS: 1575-1577.

PERPIGNAN, Siege of (1642). See SPAIN: 1640-1642.

PERRHÆBIANS.—"There had dwelt in the valley of the Peneus [Thessaly] from the earliest times a Pelasgic nation, which offered up thanks to the gods for the possession of so fruitful a territory at the festival of Peloria. . . . Larissa was the ancient capital of this nation. But at a very early time the primitive inhabitants were either expelled or reduced to subject by more northern tribes. Those who had retired into the mountains became the Perrhæbian nation, and always retained a certain degree of independence. In the Homeric catalogue the Perrhæbians are mentioned as dwelling on the hill Cyphus, under Olympus."—C. O. Müller, *History and antiquity of the Doric race*, bk. 1, ch. 1.—Dr. Curtius is of the opinion that the Dorians were a subdivision of the Perrhæbians.—*History of Greece*, bk. 1, ch. 4.

PERROT, Sir John (c. 1527-1592), English general. Lord president of Munster, 1570-1573. See IRELAND: 1559-1603.

PERROT, Nicolas (1644-c. 1700), French explorer. See WISCONSIN: 1671-1685.

PERRY, Benjamin Franklin (1805-1886), American lawyer. Provisional governor of South Carolina, 1865. See U.S.A.: 1865 (May-July).

PERRY, Matthew Calbraith (1794-1858), American naval officer. Concluded treaty with Japan, 1854. See JAPAN: 1797-1854.

PERRY, Oliver Hazard (1785-1819), American naval officer. Won the battle of Lake Erie, 1813. See U.S.A.: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

PERRYVILLE, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1862 (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky).

PERSAGADÆ. See PASARGADÆ.

PERSARMENIA.—While the Persians possessed Armenia Major, east of the Euphrates, and the Romans held Armenia Minor, west of that river, the former region was sometimes called Persarmenia.

PERSECUTIONS, Religious.—The following is a list of some of the most important religious persecutions.

Albigenses. See ALBIGENSES.

Christians under Roman empire. See ROME:

Empire: 64-68; 192-284; 303-305; CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Persecutions.

Christians in Japan. See JAPAN: 1593-1625; 1625-1641.

Hussites in Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434, and after.

Jews. See JEWS; RUSSIA: 1825-1855; 1881-1894. Lollards. See ENGLAND: 1360-1414.

Protestants: In England. See ENGLAND: 1555-1558.

In France. See FRANCE: 1532-1547; 1559-1561, to 1598-1599; 1661-1680; 1681-1698.

In Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1780-1790.

In the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1521-1555, to 1594-1609.

Roman Catholics: In England. See ENGLAND: 1585-1587; 1587-1588; 1678-1679.

In Ireland. See IRELAND: 1691-1782.

Waldenses. See WALDENSES.

PERSEIDÆ, supposed descendants of Perseus. See ARGOS.

PERSEPOLIS, in ancient geography, one of the capitals of the Persian empire, about thirty-five miles northeast of modern Shiraz. See BABYLONIA: Map.

Origin of the city. See PERSIA: Ancient peoples, etc.

B. C. 330.—Destruction by Alexander.—Although Persepolis was surrendered to him on his approach to it (B. C. 331), Alexander the Great determined to destroy the city. "In this their home the Persian kings had accumulated their national edifices, their regal sepulchres, the inscriptions commemorative of their religious or legendary sentiment, with many trophies and acquisitions arising out of their conquests. For the purposes of the Great King's [Darius I] empire, Babylon, or Susa, or Ekbatana, were more central and convenient residences; but Persepolis was still regarded as the heart of Persian nationality. It was the chief magazine, though not the only one, of those annual accumulations from the imperial revenue, which each king successively increased, and which none seems to have ever diminished. . . . After appropriating the regal treasure—to the alleged amount of 120,000 talents in gold and silver (= £27,600,000 sterling)—Alexander set fire to the citadel. . . . The persons and property of the inhabitants were abandoned to the licence of the soldiers, who obtained an immense booty, not merely in gold and silver, but also in rich clothing, furniture, and ostentatious ornaments of every kind. The male inhabitants were slain, the females dragged into servitude; except such as obtained safety by flight, or burned themselves with their property in their own houses."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 63.—See also MACEDONIA: B. C. 334-330.—Persepolis revived under the Sassanidae about 200 A. D., and was able to offer a strong resistance to the Moslem armies in the seventh century. It seems to have been flourishing in the fourteenth century but disappeared from history by the sixteenth.

ALSO IN: W. S. Vaux, *Nineveh and Persepolis*.—P. V. N. Meyers, *Remains of lost empires*.—J. Ferguson, *Palaces of Nineveh and Persepolis restored*.

PERSEUS, mythical founder of Mycenæ. See ARGOS.

PERSEUS (c. 212-c. 160 B. C.), king of Macedonia, 170-168 B. C. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 197-146; B. C. 171-133.

PERSHING, John Joseph (1860-), American general. Served in Apache campaign, 1886; in Sioux campaign, 1890; military instructor at Nebraska university, 1891-1895; served in Spanish-American War, 1898-1899; in the Philippines, 1899-

1903; crushed the Moros, 1913; commanded the punitive expedition to Mexico, 1916; in command of American expeditionary forces in France, 1917-1919; appointed chief-of-staff, 1921.

Mexican expedition. See U.S.A.: 1916 (March); MEXICO: 1916-1917.

Report of first operations in France.—Action in the Argonne.—Reception in Luxemburg. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: e; g, 1; g, 2; i; u; v; XI. End of the war: c.

Order issued governing Y. M. C. A. post exchanges. See YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: World War activities: 1917-1919: Post exchanges.

Report on service.—On ordnance. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: V. Moving men and material; VI. Military and naval equipment: c.

Celebration on return to Washington. See WASHINGTON, D. C.: 1919.

PERSIA

Area.—Population.—Geographical description.

—Climate.—Resources.—“The area of Persia is estimated at 628,000 square miles, that is to say it is more than three times the size of France, and its people number only about nine and a half millions. . . . Persia is bounded on the north by the Caspian Sea and Russia in Asia; on the west by the Turkish Empire; on the east by Afghanistan and British Baluchistan, the Persian Gulf and Arabian Sea washing its southern shores. [See ASIA: Map.] Within these boundaries there are enormous differences in the formation of the country and the climate. . . . The centre of Persia is a vast plateau, some 2,000 to 6,000 feet in elevation, separated from the low-lying lands on the Caspian and the Persian Gulf by formidable mountain barriers, in which are many splendid peaks, ranging from 13,000 to 15,000 feet in height. This tableland is crossed diagonally from northwest to south-east by frequent chains of mountains separating wide plains, and it is possible to drive between these ranges for some hundreds of miles. But if any one wishes to visit the capital Teheran or the holy city Meshed from Europe, he must, soon after leaving the Caspian, cross the Elburz mountains. This mighty chain runs over five hundred miles from west to east, and its highest peak, the extinct volcano Demavend, rises to a height of 20,000 feet.”—E. C. Sykes, *Persia and its people*, pp. 1-2.—“Owing to the lack of communications very little is done to tap the resources of the country. For example, Persia possesses many minerals, but as she has few railways, roads, or navigable rivers to carry them to the ports or to markets, this source of wealth is almost untouched. The famous turquoise mines near Nishapur, which have been known from very early times, . . . are most inadequately worked, and the valuable Caspian fisheries are leased to a Russian company. . . . For many years the imports of Persia have exceeded the exports, and this is partly owing to the slow and expensive methods of carriage, and still more to a short-sighted Government that puts obstacles in the way of enterprise and is suspicious of any man who becomes rich and does not conceal the fact. . . . Though there are many rain-fed crops grown in northern Persia, yet as a rule the soil is irrigated. . . . The chief crop of the country is barley, which is the food of horses and mules, . . . [and] also the food of the poor, wheaten bread being only for the well-to-do. . . . [Rice] comes from the rainy districts round the Caspian, and tobacco is cultivated here and in the south. . . . Cotton is grown in many places, and dates are an important product of low-lying parts of Persia, usually situated near the Persian Gulf, and constitute the wealth of its inhabitants, . . . The opium poppy is largely grown on the Persian Plateau and is a real misfortune to the inhabitants. . . . A good deal of silk is produced in Persia. . . . The grape is cultivated throughout the country. . . . Wine is made in many places,

but the white wines of Hamadan and Shiraz rank the highest, . . . and from the refuse of the grapes, arrack, the favourite spirit of the country, is concocted.”—E. C. Sykes, *Persia and its people*, pp. 10, 212-213, 215-216.—“Oil is probably the chief . . . asset of Persia for which there is a keen demand. The oil fields of Persia alone would make her important in international affairs; she is comparable in this respect with Mexico. . . . Persian oil is at present coming from Maidan-i-Naphthun, about two hundred miles north-northeast of the head of the Persian Gulf. . . . There are many other localities where oil may be obtained, but development awaits stable political conditions.”

—I. Bowman, *New world*, p. 468.—The oil reaches the coast by means of a pipe line. “From the pumping station at Tembi it is lifted over the two ranges, the Imam Riza and the Tul-i-Khayyat; . . . [whence] it flows without obstruction to the refinery at Abadan on the Shatt-al-Arab [at the head of the Persian gulf], 142 miles from the fields. The pass over the Tul-i-Khayyat is 1,300 feet, and the pressure on the pipes here is 600 pounds to the square inch.”—E. Candler, *In the Persian oil-fields* (*Living Age*, June 21, 1919).

Influence of geography. See ASIA: Influence of geography, etc.

Ancient people and country.—“Persia Proper seems to have corresponded nearly to that province of the modern Iran which still bears the ancient name slightly modified, being called Farsistan or Fars. . . . Persia Proper lay upon the gulf to which it has given name, extending from the mouth of the Tab (Oroatis) to the point where the gulf joins the Indian Ocean. It was bounded on the west by Susiana, on the north by Media Magna, on the east by Mycia, and on the south by the sea. Its length seems to have been about 450 and its average width about 250 miles. . . . The earliest known capital of the region was Pasargadæ, or Persagadæ, as the name is sometimes written, of which the ruins still exist near Murgab, in lat. 30° 15', long. 53° 17'. Here is the famous tomb of Cyrus. . . . At the distance of thirty miles from Pasargadæ, or of more than forty by the ordinary road, grew up the second capital, Persepolis. . . . The Empire, which, commencing from Persia Proper, spread itself, toward the close of the sixth century before Christ, over the surrounding tracts, [extended from the Caspian sea and the Indian desert to the Mediterranean and the Propontis]. . . . The earliest appearance of the Persians in history is in the inscriptions of the Assyrian kings, which begin to notice them about the middle of the ninth century, B.C. At this time Shalmaneser II. [the Assyrian king] found them in south-western Armenia, where they were in close contact with the Medes, of whom, however, they seem to have been wholly independent. . . . It is not until the reign of Sennacherib that we once more find them brought into contact with the power which aspired to be mistress of Asia. At the time of

their re-appearance they are no longer in Armenia, but have descended the line of Zagros and reached the districts which lie north and north-east of Susiana. . . . It is probable that they did not settle into an organized monarchy much before the fall of Nineveh. . . . The history of the Persian 'Empire' dates from the conquest of Astyages [the Median king] by Cyrus, and therefore commences with the year B. C. 558 [or, according to Sayce, 549 B. C. (see below)].—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Persia, ch. 1 and 7*.—See also ARYANS; IRAN; ACHÆMENIDS; KURDISTAN AND THE KURDS.

ALSO IN: A. H. Sayce, *Ancient empires of the East, appendix 5*.

Ancient religion. See ZOROASTRIANS; BABISM; MITHRAISM; NESTORIANS.

Ancient architecture.—Education. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Persia; EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 7th-6th centuries: Persia.

B. C. 585-55.—Conquest of Armenia.—Organization into eastern and western provinces. See ARMENIA: B. C. 585-55.

B. C. 549-521.—Founding of the empire by Cyrus the Great, king of Elam.—Conquest of Media, Persia, Lydia, and Babylonia.—Restoration of the Jews.—Conquest of Egypt by Kambyases.—"It was in B. C. 549 that Astyages was overthrown [see MEDIA]. On his march against Kyros [Cyrus] his own soldiers, drawn probably from his Aryan subjects, revolted against him and gave him into the hands of his enemy. 'The land of Ekbatana and the royal city' were ravaged and plundered by the conqueror; the Aryan Medes at once acknowledge the supremacy of Kyros, and the empire of Kyaxares was destroyed. Some time, however, was still needed to complete the conquest; the older Medie population still held out in the more distant regions of the empire, and probably received encouragement and promises of help from Babylonia. In B. C. 546, however, Kyros marched from Arbela, crossed the Tigris, and destroyed the last relics of Median independence. . . . The following year saw the opening of the campaign against Babylonia [see BABYLONIA: Invasion by Cyrus]. But the Babylonian army, encamped near Sippara, formed a barrier which the Persians were unable to overcome; and trusting, therefore, to undermine the power of Nabonidos by secret intrigues with his subjects, Kyros proceeded against Kræsoḥ. A single campaign sufficed to capture Sardes and its monarch, and to add Asia Minor to the Persian dominions [see LYDIANS; ASIA MINOR: 724-539 B. C.]. The Persian conqueror was now free to attack Babylonia. Here his intrigues were already bearing fruit. The Jewish exiles were anxiously expecting him to redeem them from captivity, and the tribes on the sea coast were ready to welcome a new master. In B. C. 538 the blow was struck. The Persian army entered Babylonia from the south. The army of Nabonidos was defeated at Rata in June; on the 14th of that month Sippara opened its gates, and two days later Gobryas, the Persian general, marched into Babylon itself 'without battle and fighting.' . . . In October Kyros himself entered his new capital in triumph."—A. H. Sayce, *Ancient empires of the East: Herodotus 1-3, appendix 5*.—"The history of the downfall of the great Babylonian Empire, and of the causes, humanly speaking, which brought about a restoration of the Jews, has recently been revealed to us by the progress of Assyrian discovery. We now possess the account given by Cyrus himself, of the overthrow of Nabonidos, the Babylonian king, and of the conqueror's permission to the captives in

Babylonia to return to their homes. The account is contained in two documents, written, like most other Assyrian and Babylonian records, upon clay, and lately brought from Babylonia to England by Mr. Rassam. One of these documents is a tablet which chronicles the events of each year in the reign of Nabonidos, the last Babylonian monarch, and continues the history into the first year of Cyrus, as king of Babylon. The other is a cylinder, on which Cyrus glorifies himself and his son Kambyases, and professes his adherence to the worship of Bel-Merodach, the patron-god of Babylon. The tablet-inscription is, unfortunately, somewhat mutilated, especially at the beginning and the end, and little can be made out of the annals of the first five years of Nabonidos, except that he was occupied with disturbances in Syria. In the sixth year the record becomes clear and continuous. . . . The inscriptions . . . present us with an account of the overthrow of the Babylonian Empire, which is in many important respects very different from that handed down to us by classical writers. We possess in them the contemporaneous account of one who was the chief actor in the events he records, and have ceased to be dependent upon Greek and Latin writers, who could not read a single cuneiform character, and were separated by a long lapse of time from the age of Nabonidos and Cyrus. Perhaps the first fact which will strike the mind of the reader with astonishment is that Cyrus does not call himself and his ancestors kings of Persia, but of Elam. The word used is Anzan or Ansan, which an old Babylonian geographical tablet explains as the native name of the country which the Assyrians and Hebrews called Elam. This statement is verified by early inscriptions found at Susa and other places in the neighbourhood, and belonging to the ancient monarchs of Elam, who contended on equal terms with Babylonia and Assyria until they were at last conquered by the Assyrian king Assur-bani-pal, and their country made an Assyrian province. In these inscriptions they take the imperial title of 'king of Anzan.' The annalistic tablet lets us see when Cyrus first became king of Persia. In the sixth year of Nabonidos (B. C. 549) Cyrus is still king of Elam; in the ninth year he has become king of Persia. Between these two years, therefore, he must have gained possession of Persia either by conquest or in some peaceable way. When he overthrew Astyages his rule did not as yet extend so far. At the same time Cyrus must have been of Persian descent, since he traces his ancestry back to Teispes, whom Darius, the son of Hystaspes, in his great inscription on the sacred rock of Behistun, claims as his own forefather. . . . The fact that Susa or Shushan was the original capital of Cyrus explains why it remained the leading city of the Persian Empire; and we can also now understand why it is that in Isaiah xxi. 2, the prophet bids Elam and Media, and not Persia and Media, 'go up' against Babylon. That Cyrus was an Elamite, however, is not the only startling revelation which the newly-discovered inscriptions have made to us. We learn from them that he was a polytheist who worshipped Bel-Merodach and Nebo, and paid public homage to the deities of Babylon. . . . The first work of Cyrus was to ingratiate himself with the conquered population by affecting a show of zeal and piety towards their gods, and with the nations which had been kept in captivity in Babylonia, by sending them and their deities back to their homes. Among these nations were the Jews, who had perhaps assisted the king of Elam in his attack upon Nabonidos. Experience had taught

Cyrus the danger of allowing a disaffected people to live in the country of their conquerors. He therefore reversed the old policy of the Assyrian and Babylonian kings, which consisted in transporting the larger portion of a conquered population to another country, and sought instead to win their gratitude and affection by allowing them to return to their native lands. He saw, moreover, that the Jews, if restored from exile, would not only protect the southwestern corner of his empire from the Egyptians, but would form a base for his intended invasion of Egypt itself. . . . The number of exiles who took advantage of the edict



BAS-RELIEF OF CYRUS THE GREAT

(From Dittmer and Chipiez's "History of Art in Ancient Egypt")

of Cyrus and he accompanied Zerubbabel to Jerusalem, and numbered 142,360. It is probable, however, that this means only the heads of families; if so, the whole body of those who left Babylon, including women and children, would have been about 700,000. The conquest of Babylon by Cyrus took place in the year 538 B.C. He was already master of Persia, Media, and Lydia; and the overthrow of the empire of Nebuchadnezzar extended his dominions from the mountains of the Hindu Kush on the east to the shores of the Mediterranean on the west. Egypt alone of the older empires of the Oriental world remained independent, but its doom would not be long delayed. The career of Cyrus had indeed been marvellous. He had begun as the king of a city of Anzan or Elam, a poor power so much but small and contemptible

to his neighbour the great Babylonian monarch. But his victory over the Median king Astyages and the destruction of the Median Empire made him at once one of the most formidable princes in Western Asia. Henceforth the seat of his power was moved from Susa or Shushan to Ekbatana, called Achmetha in Scripture, Hagmatan in Persian, the capital of Media. . . . The conquest of Media was quickly followed by that of Persia, which appears to have been under the government of a collateral branch of the family of Cyrus. Henceforth the king of Elam becomes also the king of Persia. The empire of Lydia, which extended over the greater part of Asia Minor, fell before the army of Cyrus about B.C. 546. . . . The latter years of the life of Cyrus were spent in extending and consolidating his power among the wild tribes and unknown regions of the Far East."

—A. H. Sayce, *Introduction to the books of Ezra, Nehemiah and Esther*, ch. 1, 3.—See also JEWS: B.C. 604-536; B.C. 537; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 2.—"Cyrus, who was undoubtedly one of the most beneficent of Oriental sovereigns, was succeeded by his son Cambyses, whose extraordinary career presents a marvel of human folly and wickedness. He found Persia entering upon a period of rare prosperity, but requiring to be for a time at rest, in order to consolidate the vast conquests of Cyrus. Cambyses seems, however, to have had his reason affected by coming into possession of such power. He began his reign by organizing an immense armament of armies and fleets against Egypt. [See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 5.] The Egyptians were defeated in a great battle at Pelusium, the gate to their country, and Psammetichus, the king of this unhappy people, was cruelly slain, after Cambyses entered the capital. [See also EGYPT: B.C. 525-332.] . . . No people were ever more harshly treated by a conqueror than the Egyptians were when the hosts of Persia encamped on the banks of the Nile and profaned the majestic temples of Thebes. Having entirely subjugated the country, Cambyses pushed his conquests far to the south, among the burning plains of Nubia, called in those times Æthiopia; the objective point of the expedition was the Temple of Jupiter Ammon, in the southwest, and Æthiopia, in the south, the latter division being under the charge of Cambyses himself. He penetrated as far as Meroë. The former army vanished in the desert, victims to thirst and the deadly simoon. The latter division was also overcome by hunger, and forced to return. The hardships of this expedition seemed to increase the caprice and cruelty of Cambyses. There was no people so superstitious, so addicted to the most minute religious ceremonies, so absorbed in a profound veneration for the gods or the sacred symbols, as the Egyptians. Cambyses left no means untried to outrage every object they considered sacred. When the people of Memphis were engaged in rejoicing at the appearance of the bull they worshipped as Apis, Cambyses himself slew that sacred animal with a stroke of his poinard. He also gave himself up to the most brutal excesses. In the midst of this career of unbridled debauchery, the tyrant dreamed that his brother Smerdis had conspired against him in his absence from Persia, and seized the throne. Without any confirmation of his dream, Cambyses sent Prexaspis, one of his near officers, to Persepolis, who, without trial or examination, caused the unfortunate Smerdis to be secretly beheaded. When Atossa, the sister and wife of Cambyses, heard of this atrocious deed, she upbraided her husband for his wickedness. He only replied by kicking her so violently in the stomach

that she died. Deciding to return at once to Persia, Cambyzes in turn received a mortal wound from his naked sword while in the act of mounting his horse. Thus the empire of Persia, in a critical period of its existence, was left without a king or any direct heir to the sceptre. But when the news of the death of Cambyzes reached Persia, an extraordinary event occurred. Although a state secret, yet the death of Smerdis appears to have been known to some of the magi. One of them bore a striking resemblance to the murdered brother of Cambyzes, and he now usurped the throne, and for over a year succeeded in avoiding suspicion. But the false Smerdis, . . . kept himself so closely in the ark or citadel of the capital, that Otanes, a Persian nobleman, had his suspicions aroused. Aware that there was a magian who resembled Smerdis, it occurred to Otanes that perhaps Smerdis had been made away with by a conspiracy of the magi, who had thus got the power into their own hands. If this were so then the false Smerdis could be detected, because he had been deprived of his ears. Phaedyma, a daughter of Otanes, had been one of the wives of Cambyzes. When the false Smerdis usurped the throne, he also, according to custom, married the wives of the late king. At the request of her father, Phaedyma felt of the head of the usurper when he was asleep. She thus obtained convincing proof of the true character of him who had so boldly aspired to sit on the throne of Cyrus and Djemsheed. After this revelation a conspiracy of seven nobles connected with leading families of Persia was formed, who speedily murdered the false Smerdis. Persia was again without a ruler. The crisis was desperate. Here was a vast empire composed of many opposing elements and ready to fall to pieces on the first opportunity; while those magnates of the empire who were best fitted to be selected to succeed to the crown were naturally ambitious to grasp the opportunity themselves, and so jealous of their rivals that a civil war, attended with the most disastrous results, seemed exceedingly probable. The difficulty was avoided by a device as ingenious as it was creditable. The seven conspirators agreed to select one from their own number to be possessor of Persia. Various accounts are given of the way in which the election was made. Some records state that they decided to meet at sunrise, and he whose horse should neigh first should be adjudged the winner. Owing to the cunning of the groom of Darius, his horse first gave the auspicious signal, and thus raised him in a moment from a mere subject to absolute ruler of one of the largest of the world's empires. But as Darius was distantly connected with the Achemenian line, the only one of the seven in whose veins coursed the blood royal, it is more likely that the other six preferred to settle the succession on him rather than allow such a prize to one of merely equal rank with themselves. Whatever the cause which led to the selection of Darius, the result of this event proved of great advantage to Persia. The young king, for he was at this time only about thirty years of age, showed himself at once to be a born ruler of men, a great soldier, and an administrator of vast capacity. He was also a man whose ambition seems to have been tempered with patriotism, and, unlike many Oriental monarchs, he did not allow his unlimited power to degenerate into reckless and ruthless cruelty. Darius found the great empire which had come into his hands torn by dissensions, or falling apart for lack of a strong arm to hold its various inharmonious elements together. He set to work with amazing vigor and ability to restore peace

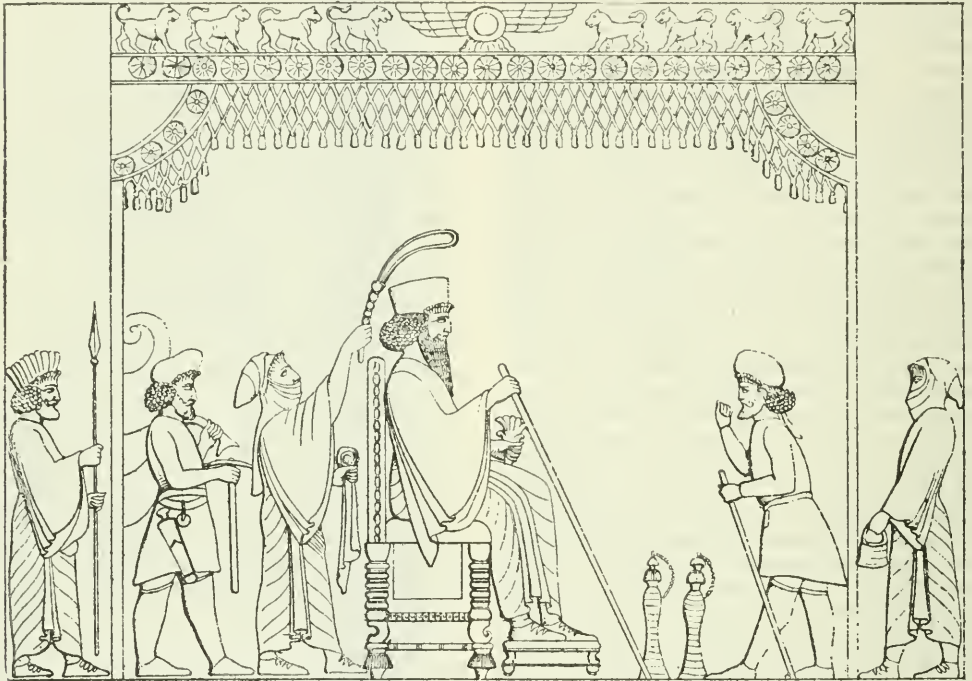
and order, and left behind him a record which stamps him as one of the greatest sovereigns in history."—S. G. W. Benjamin, *Persia*, pp. 98-103.

Also in: A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments*, ch. 7.—Z. A. Kagozin, *Story of Media, Babylon and Persia*, ch. 10-12.

B. C. 521-493.—Reign of Darius I.—Indian and Scythian expeditions.—Ionian revolt and its suppression.—Aid given to the insurgents by Athens.—"Darius I., the son of Hystaspes, is rightly regarded as the second founder of the Persian empire. [See also SATRAP.] His reign is dated from the first day of the year answering to B. C. 521; and it lasted 36 years, to Dec. 23, B. C. 486. . . . Throughout the Behistun Inscription Darius represents himself as the hereditary champion of the Achaemenids, against Gomates and all other rebels. . . . It is 'by the grace of Ormazd' that he does everything. . . . This restoration of the Zoroastrian worship, and the putting down of several rebellions, are the matters recorded in the great trilingual inscription [in Persian, Median and Assyrian] at Behistun, which Sir Henry Rawlinson dates, from internal evidence, in the sixth year of Darius (B. C. 516). [See PHRLOGY: 13.] . . . The empire of which Darius became king embraced, as he says, the following provinces: 'Persia, Susiana, Babylonia, Assyria, Arabia, Egypt; those which are of the sea (the islands), Saparda, Ionia, Media, Armenia, Cappadocia, Parthia, Zarangia, Aria, Chorasmia, Bactria, Sogdiana, Gandaria, the Sacae, Sattagydia, Arachotia, and Media: in all twenty-three provinces.' . . . All the central provinces constituting the original empire, from the mountains of Armenia to the head of the Persian Gulf as well as several of those of the Iranian table-land, had to be reconquered. . . . Having thus restored the empire, Darius pursued new military expeditions and conquests in the true spirit of its founder. To the energy of youth was added the fear that quiet might breed new revolts; and by such motives, if we may believe Herodotus, he was urged by Queen Atossa—at the instigation of the Greek physician, Democedes—to the conquest of Greece; while he himself was minded to construct a bridge which should join Asia to Europe, and so to carry war into Scythia. It seems to have been according to an Oriental idea of right, and not as a mere pretext, that he claimed to punish the Scythians for their invasion of Media in the time of Cyaxares. So he contented himself, for the present, with sending spies to Greece under the guidance of Democedes, and with the reduction of Samos. The Scythian expedition, however, appears to have been preceded by the extension of the empire eastward from the mountains of Afghanistan—the limit reached by Cyrus—over the valley of the Indus. . . . The part of India thus added to the empire, including the Punjab and apparently Scinde, yielded a tribute exceeding that of any other province. . . . The Scythian Expedition of Darius occupies the greater part of the Fourth Book of Herodotus. . . . The great result of the expedition, in which the king and his army narrowly escaped destruction, was the gaining of a permanent footing in Europe by the conquest of Thrace and the submission of Macedonia. . . . It was probably in B. C. 508 that Darius, having collected a fleet of 600 ships from the Greeks of Asia, and an army of 700,000 or 800,000 men from all the nations of his empire, crossed the Hellespont by a bridge of boats, and marched to the Danube, conquering on his way the Thracians within, and the Getæ beyond, the Great Balkan. The Danube was crossed by a bridge formed of the vessels of the Ionians, just

above the apex of its Delta. The confusion in the geography of Herodotus makes it as difficult as it is unprofitable to trace the direction and extent of the march, which Herodotus carries beyond the Tanais (Don), and probably as far north as 50° lat. The Scythians retreated before Darius, avoiding a pitched battle, and using every stratagem to detain the Persians in the country till they should perish from famine." Darius retreated in time to save his army. "Leaving his sick behind, with the campfires lighted and the asses tethered, to make the enemy believe that he was still in their front, he retreated in the night. The pursuing Scythians missed his line of march, and came first to the place where the Ionian ships bridged the Danube. Failing to persuade the Greek generals to break by the same act both the bridge and the yoke of Darius, they marched back to encounter

cal party applied for aid to Aristagoras, the tyrant of Miletus, who persuaded Artaphernes to send an expedition against Naxos. The Persian commander, incensed by the interference of Aristagoras on a point of discipline, warned the Naxians, and so caused the failure of the expedition and ruined the credit of Aristagoras, who saw no course open to him but revolt. . . . With the consent of the Milesian citizens, Aristagoras seized the tyrants who were on board of the fleet that had returned from Naxos; he laid down his own power; popular governments were proclaimed in all the cities and islands; and Ionia revolted from Darius (B.C. 501). Aristagoras went to Sparta . . . and tried to tempt the king, Cleomenes, by displaying the greatness of the Persian empire; but his admission that Susa was three months' journey from the sea ruined his cause. He had better success at Athens;



DARIUS THE GREAT, RECEIVING A DELEGATION .

Bas-relief at Persepolis

the Persian army. But their own previous destruction of the wells led them into a different route; and Darius got safe, but with difficulty, to the Danube. . . . The Hellespont was crossed by means of the fleet with which the strait had been guarded by Megabazus, or, more probably, Megabyzus; and the second opportunity was barred against a rising of the Greek colonies. . . . He left Megabazus in Europe with 80,000 troops to complete the reduction of all Thrace. [Megabazus not only executed this commission, but reduced the kingdom of Macedonia to vassalage before returning to his master, in 506 B.C.]—P. Smith, *Ancient history of the East*, bk. 3, ch. 27.—"Darius returned to Susa, leaving the western provinces in profound peace under the government of his brother Artaphernes. A trifling incident lighted the flame of rebellion. One of those political conflicts, which we have seen occurring throughout Greece, broke out in Naxos, an island of the Cyclades (B.C. 502). The exiles of the oligarchi-

cal party knew that Artaphernes had been made their enemy by Hippias. They voted twenty ships in aid of the Ionians, and the squadron was increased by five ships of the Eretrians. Having united with the Ionian fleet, they disembarked at Ephesus, marched up the country, and surprised Sardis, which was accidentally burnt during the pillage. Their forces were utterly inadequate to hold the city; and their return was not effected without a severe defeat by the pursuing army. The Athenians re-embarked and sailed home, while the Ionians dispersed to their cities to make those preparations which should have preceded the attack. Their powerful fleet gained for them the adhesion of the Hellespontine cities as far as Byzantium, of Caria, Caunus, and Cyprus; but this island was recovered by the Persians within a year. The Ionians protracted the insurrection for six years. Their cause was early abandoned by Aristagoras, who fled to the coast of Thrace and there perished. . . . The fate of the revolt turned at

last on the siege of Miletus. The city was protected by the Ionian fleet, for which the Phoenician navy of Artaphernes was no match. But there was fatal disunion and want of discipline on board, and the defection of the Samians gave the Persians an easy victory off Ladé (B. C. 495). Miletus suffered the worst horrors of a storm, and the other cities and islands were treated with scarcely less severity. This third subjugation of Ionia inflicted the most lasting blow on the prosperity of the colonies (B. C. 493). Throughout his narrative of these events, Herodotus declares his opinion of the impolicy of the interference of the Athenians. The ships they voted, he says, were the beginning of evils both to the Greeks and the barbarians. When the news of the burning of Sardis was brought to Darius, he called for his bow, and shot an arrow towards the sky, with a prayer to Areamazda for help to revenge himself on the Athenians. Then he bade one of his servants repeat to him thrice, as he sat down to dinner, the words, 'Master, remember the Athenians.' Upon the suppression of the Ionian revolt, he appointed his son-in-law Mardonius to succeed Artaphernes, enjoining him to bring these insolent Athenians and Eretrians to Susa.—P. Smith, *History of the World: Ancient*, v. 1, ch. 13.—See also GREECE: B. C. 500-493: Rising of Ionians, etc.

ALSO IN: G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 4, pt. 2, ch. 33-35.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 2, ch. 14.

B. C. 509.—Alliance solicited.—Subjection refused by the Athenians. See ATHENS: B. C. 509-506.

B. C. 493.—Annexation of part of India by Darius. See INDIA: B. C. 600-327.

B. C. 492-491.—First expedition against Greece.—Its failure.—Preparations of the king for subjugation of the Greeks. See GREECE: B. C. 492-491; ATHENS: B. C. 492-479.

B. C. 490-479.—Wars with the Greeks. See GREECE: B. C. 490: Persian Wars, to B. C. 479.

B. C. 480-405.—From Xerxes I to Artaxerxes II.—Disastrous invasion of Greece.—Loss of Egypt.—Recovery of Asia Minor.—Decay of the empire.—"Xerxes I, who succeeded Darius, B. C. 486, commenced his reign by the reduction of Egypt, B. C. 485, which he entrusted to his brother, Achæmenes. He then provoked and chastised a rebellion of the Babylonians [see BABYLON: Decline], enriching himself with the plunder of their temples. After this he turned his attention to the invasion of Greece [where he experienced the disastrous defeats of Salamis, Plataea, and Mycale (see GREECE: B. C. 480: Persian Wars, etc., to B. C. 479)]. . . . It was now the turn of the Greeks to retaliate on their prostrate foe. First under the lead of Sparta [see GREECE: B. C. 481-479], and then under that of Athens they freed the islands of the Ægean from the Persian yoke, expelled the Persian garrisons from Europe, and even ravaged the Asiatic coast and made descents on it at their pleasure. [See ATHENS: B. C. 479.] For twelve years no Persian fleet ventured to dispute with them the sovereignty of the seas; and when at last, in B. C. 466, a naval force was collected to protect Cilicia and Cyprus, it was defeated and destroyed by Cimon at the Eurymedon. Soon after this Xerxes' reign came to an end. This weak prince, . . . on his return to Asia, found consolation for his military failure in the delights of the seraglio, and ceased to trouble himself much about affairs of State. . . . The bloody and licentious deeds which stain the whole of the later Persian history commence with Xerxes, who suffered the natural penalty of his follies and his

crimes when, after reigning twenty years, he was murdered by the captain of his guard, Artabanus, and Aspamitres, his chamberlain. . . . Artabanus, placed on the throne the youngest son of Xerxes, Artaxerxes I [465 B. C.] . . . The eldest son, Darius, accused by Artabanus of his father's assassination, was executed; the second, Hystaspes, who was satrap of Bactria, claimed the crown; and, attempting to enforce his claim, was defeated and slain in battle. About the same time the crimes of Artabanus were discovered, and he was put to death. Artaxerxes then reigned quietly for nearly forty years. He was a mild prince, possessed of several good qualities; but the weakness of his character caused a rapid declension of the empire under his sway. The revolt of Egypt [460-455 B. C.] was indeed suppressed after a while, through the vigorous measures of the satrap of Syria, Megabyzus; and the Athenians, who had fomented it, were punished by the complete destruction of their fleet, and the loss of almost all their men. [See ATHENS: B. C. 460-455.] . . . Bent on recovering her prestige, Athens, in B. C. 499, despatched a fleet to the Levant, under Cimon, which sailed to Cyprus and laid siege to Citium. There Cimon died; but the fleet, which had been under his orders, attacked and completely defeated a large Persian armament off Salamis, besides detaching a squadron to assist Amyrtæus, who still held out in the Delta. Persia, dreading the loss of Cyprus and Egypt, consented to an inglorious peace [the much disputed 'Peace of Cimon,' or 'Peace of Callias.' [See ATHENS: B. C. 449-446.] . . . Scarcely less damaging to Persia was the revolt of Megabyzus, which followed. This powerful noble . . . excited a rebellion in Syria [447 B. C.], and so alarmed Artaxerxes that he was allowed to dictate the terms on which he would consent to be reconciled to his sovereign. An example was thus set of successful rebellion on the part of a satrap, which could not but have disastrous consequences. . . . The disorders of the court continued, and indeed increased, under Artaxerxes I, who allowed his mother Amestris, and his sister Amytis, who was married to Megabyzus, to indulge freely the cruelty and licentiousness of their dispositions. Artaxerxes died B. C. 425, and left his crown to his only legitimate son, Xerxes II. Revolutions in the government now succeeded each other with great rapidity. Xerxes II, after reigning forty-five days, was assassinated by his half-brother, Secydianus, or Sogdianus, an illegitimate son of Artaxerxes, who seized the throne, but was murdered in his turn, after a reign of six months and a half, by another brother, Ochus. Ochus, on ascending the throne, took the name of Darius, and is known in history as Darius Nothus. He was married to Parysatis, his aunt, a daughter of Xerxes I, and reigned nineteen years, B. C. 424-405, under her tutelage. His reign . . . was on the whole disastrous. Revolt succeeded to revolt; and though most of the insurrections were quelled, it was at the cost of what remained of Persian honour and self-respect. Corruption was used instead of force against the rebellious armies. . . . The revolts of satraps were followed by national outbreaks, which, though sometimes quelled, were in other instances successful. In B. C. 408, the Medes, who had patiently acquiesced in Persian rule for more than a century, made an effort to shake off the yoke, but were defeated and reduced to subjection. Three years later, B. C. 405, Egypt once more rebelled, under Nephertites, and succeeded in establishing its independence. The Persians were expelled from Africa, and a native prince seated himself on the throne of the Pha-

raols. It was some compensation for this loss, and perhaps for others towards the north and north-east of the empire, that in Asia Minor the authority of the Great King was once more established over the Greek cities. It was the Peloponnesian War, rather than the Peace of Callias, which had prevented any collision between the great powers of Europe and Asia for 37 years. Both Athens and Sparta had their hands full; and though it might have been expected that Persia would have at once taken advantage of the quarrel to reclaim at least her lost continental dominion, yet she seems to have refrained, through moderation or fear, until the Athenian disasters in Sicily encouraged her to make an effort. She then invited the Spartans to Asia, and by the treaties which she concluded with them, and the aid which she gave them, reacquired without a struggle all the Greek cities of the coast [412 B.C.]. . . . Darius Nothus died B. C. 405, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Arsaces, who on his accession took the name of Artaxerxes. Artaxerxes II, called by the Greeks Mnemon, on account of the excellence of his memory, had from the very first a rival in his brother Cyrus."—G. Rawlinson, *Manual of ancient history*, bk. 2, sect. 24-30.

B. C. 413.—Tribute again demanded from Greek cities in Asia Minor.—Hostility to Athens.—Subsidies to her enemies. See GREECE: B. C. 413.

B. C. 401-400.—Expedition of Cyrus the Younger.—Retreat of the Ten Thousand.—Cyrus the Younger, so called to distinguish him from the great founder of the Persian empire, was the second son of Darius Nothus, king of Persia, and expected to succeed his father on the throne through the influence of his mother, Parysatis. During his father's life he was appointed satrap of Lydia, Phrygia and Cappadocia, with supreme military command in all Asia Minor. On the death of Darius, 404 B. C., Cyrus found himself thwarted in his hopes of the succession, and laid plans at once for overthrowing the older brother, Artaxerxes, who had been placed on the throne. He had acquired an extensive acquaintance with the Greeks and had had much to do with them, in his administration of Asia Minor, during the Peloponnesian War. That acquaintance had produced in his mind a great opinion of their invincible qualities in war, and had shown him the practicability of forming, with the means which he commanded, a compact army of Greek mercenaries which no Persian force could withstand. He executed his plan of gathering such a column of Greek soldiers, without awakening his brother's suspicions, and set out upon his expedition from Sardes to Susa, in March 401 B. C. As he advanced, finding himself unopposed, the troops of Artaxerxes retreating before him, he and his Asiatic followers grew rash in their confidence, and careless of discipline and order. Hence it happened that when the threatened Persian monarch did confront them, with a great army, at Cunaxa, on the Euphrates, in Babylonia, they were taken by surprise and routed, and the pretender, Cyrus, was slain on the field. The Greeks—who numbered about 13,000, but whose ranks were soon thinned and who are famous in history as the Ten Thousand,—stood unshaken, and felt still equal to the conquest of the Persian capital, if any object in advancing upon it had remained to them. But the death of Cyrus left them in a strange situation,—deserted by every Asiatic ally, without supplies, without knowledge of the country, in the midst of a hostile population. Their own comman-

der, moreover, had been slain, and no one held authority over them. But they possessed what no other people of their time could claim—the capacity for self-control. They chose from their ranks a general, the Athenian Xenophon, and endowed him with all necessary powers. Then they set their faces homewards, in a long retreat from the lower Euphrates to the Euxine, from the Euxine to the Bosphorus, and so into Greece. "Although this eight months' military expedition possesses no immediate significance for political history, yet it is of high importance, not only for our knowledge of the East, but also for that of the Greek character; and the accurate description which we owe to Xenophon is therefore one of the most valuable documents of antiquity. . . . This army is a typical chart, in many colours, of the Greek population—a picture, on a small scale, of the whole people, with all its virtues and faults, its qualities of strength and its qualities of weakness, a wandering political community which, according to home usage, holds its assemblies and passes its resolutions, and at the same time a wild and not easily manageable band of free-lances. . . . And how very remarkable it is, that in this mixed multitude of Greeks it is an Athenian who by his qualities towers above all the rest, and becomes the real preserver of the entire army! The Athenian Xenophon had only accompanied the expedition as a volunteer, having been introduced by Proxenus to Cyprus, and thereupon moved by his sense of honour to abide with the man whose great talents he admired. . . . The Athenian alone possessed that superiority of culture which was necessary for giving order and self-control to the band of warriors, barbarized by their selfish life, and for enabling him to serve them in the greatest variety of situations as spokesman, as general, and as negotiator; and to him it was essentially due that, in spite of their unspeakable trials, through hostile tribes and desolate snow-ranges, 8,000 Greeks after all, by wanderings many and devious, in the end reached the coast. They fancied themselves safe when, at the beginning of March, they had reached the sea at Trapezus. But their greatest difficulties were only to begin here, where they first again came into contact with Greeks. [Sparta, then supreme in Greece, feared to offend the great king by showing any friendliness to this fugitive remnant of the unfortunate expedition of Cyrus. The gates of her cities were coldly shut against them, and they were driven to enter the service of a Thracian prince, in order to obtain subsistence. But another year found Sparta involved in war with Persia, and the surviving Cyreans, as they came to be called, were then summoned to Asia Minor for a new campaign against the enemy they hated most.]"—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 5, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: G. Grote, *History of Greece*, ch. 69-71.—Xenophon, *Anabasis*.

B. C. 399-387.—War with Sparta.—Alliance with Athens, Thebes, Corinth and Argos.—Peace of Antalcidas.—Recovery of Ionian cities. See GREECE: B. C. 399-387.

B. C. 366.—Intervention in Greece solicited by Thebes.—Great king's rescript. See GREECE: B. C. 371-362.

B. C. 363.—Founding of Pontus by Ariobarzanes. See MITHRADATIC WARS.

B. C. 351-333.—Control of Phœnicia. See SIDON.

B. C. 340.—Capture of Rhodes. See RHODES, ISLAND OF: B. C. 340.

B. C. 337-336.—Preparations for invasion by Philip of Macedon. See GREECE: B. C. 357-336.

B. C. 336-322.—Influence in Greece. See ATHENS: B. C. 336-322.

B. C. 334-330.—Conquest by Alexander the Great. See MACEDONIA: B. C. 334-330.

B. C. 323-150.—Successors of Alexander.—Empire of Seleucidæ. See MACEDONIA: B. C. 323-316; SELEUCIDÆ.

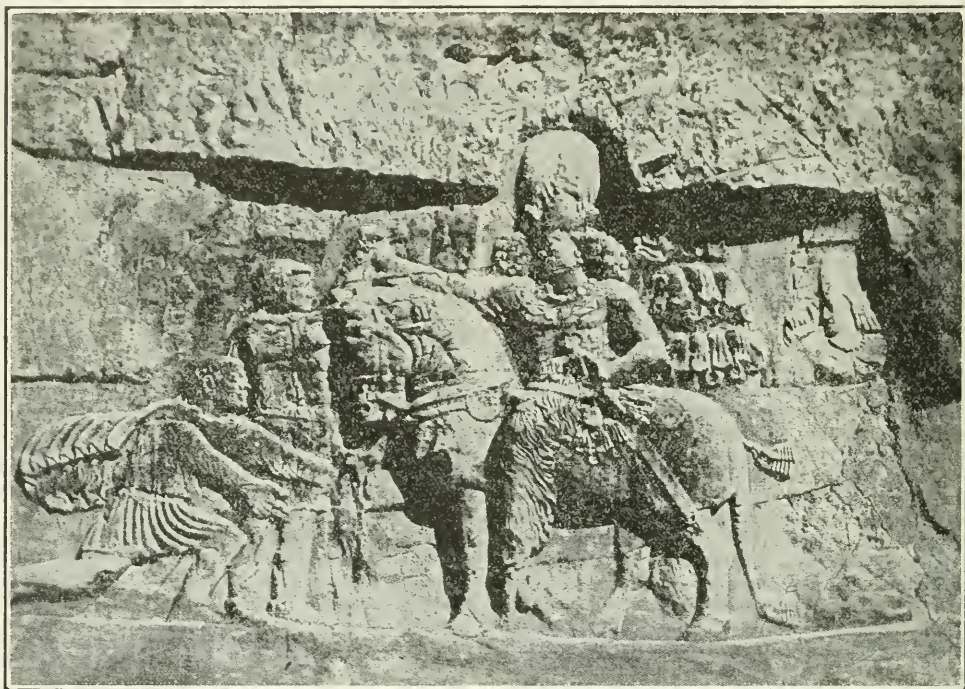
B. C. 150-A. D. 226.—Embraced in Parthian empire.—Recovery of national independence.—Rise of Sassanian monarchy.—“About B. C. 163, an energetic [Parthian] prince, Mithridates I., commenced a series of conquests towards the West, which terminated (about B. C. 150) in the transference from the Syro-Macedonian to the Parthian rule of Media Magna, Susiana, Persia, Babylonia, and Assyria Proper. It would seem that the Persians offered no resistance to the progress of the new conqueror. . . . The treatment of the Persians by their Parthian lords seems, on the whole, to have been marked by moderation. . . . It was a principle of the Parthian governmental system to allow the subject peoples, to a large extent, to govern themselves. These people generally, and notably the Persians, were ruled by native kings, who succeeded to the throne by hereditary right, had the full power of life and death, and ruled very much as they pleased, so long as they paid regularly the tribute imposed upon them by the ‘King of Kings,’ and sent him a respectable contingent when he was about to engage in a military expedition.”—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 1.—“The formidable power of the Parthians . . . was in its turn subverted by Ardshir, or Artaxerxes, the founder of a new dynasty, which, under the name of Sassanides [see SASSANIAN DYNASTY], governed Persia till the invasion of the Arabs. This great revolution, whose fatal influence was soon experienced by the Romans, happened in the fourth year of Alexander Severus [226]. . . . Artaxerxes had served with great reputation in the armies of Artaban, the last king of the Parthians; and it appears that he was driven into exile and rebellion by royal ingratitude, the customary reward for superior merit. His birth was obscure, and the obscurity equally gave room to the aspersions of his enemies and the flattery of his adherents. If we credit the scandal of the former, Artaxerxes sprang from the illegitimate commerce of a tanner’s wife with a common soldier. The latter represents him as descended from a branch of the ancient kings of Persia. . . . As the lineal heir of the monarchy, he asserted his right to the throne, and challenged the noble task of delivering the Persians from the oppression under which they groaned above five centuries, since the death of Darius. The Parthians were defeated in three great battles. In the last of these their king Artaban was slain, and the spirit of the nation was for ever broken. The authority of Artaxerxes was solemnly acknowledged in a great assembly held at Balkh in Khorasan.”—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, v. 1, ch. 8.

A. D. 226-627.—Wars with the Romans.—The revolution in Asia which subverted the Parthian empire and brought into existence a new Persian monarchy—the monarchy of the Sassanides—occurred 226 A. D. The founder of the new throne, Artaxerxes, no sooner felt firm in his seat than he sent an imposing embassy to bear to the Roman emperor—then Alexander Severus—his haughty demand that all Asia should be yielded to him and that Roman arms and Roman authority should be withdrawn to the western shores of the Ægean and the Propontis. This was the beginning of a series of wars, extending through four centuries

and ending only with the Mahometan conquests which swept Roman and Persian power, alike, out of the contested field. The first campaigns of the Romans against Artaxerxes were of doubtful result. In the reign of Sapor, son of Artaxerxes, the war was renewed, with unprecedented humiliation and disaster to the Roman arms. Valerian, the emperor, was surrounded and taken prisoner, after a bloody battle fought near Edessa (260),—remaining until his death a captive in the hands of his insolent conqueror and subjected to every indignity (see ROME: Empire: 192-284). Syria was overrun by the Persian armies, and its splendid capital, Antioch, surprised, pillaged, and savagely wrecked, while the inhabitants were mostly slain or reduced to slavery. Cilic and Cappadocia were next devastated in like manner. Casarea, the Cappadocian capital, being taken after an obstinate siege, suffered pillage and unmerciful massacre. The victorious career of Sapor, which Rome failed to arrest, was checked by the rising power of Palmyra (see PALMYRA). Fifteen years later, Aurelian, who had destroyed Palmyra, was marching to attack Persia when he fell by the hands of domestic enemies and traitors. It was not until 283, in the reign of Carus, that Rome and Persia crossed swords again. Carus ravaged Mesopotamia, captured Seleucia and Ctesiphon and passed beyond the Tigris, when he met with a mysterious death, and his victorious army retreated. A dozen years passed before the quarrel was taken up again, by Diocletian (see ROME: Empire: 284-305). That vigorous monarch sent one of his Cæsars—Galerius—into the field, while he stationed himself at Antioch to direct the war. In his first campaign (297), Galerius was defeated, on the old fatal field of Carrhæ. In his second campaign (297-298) he won a decisive victory and forced on the Persian king, Narses, a humiliating treaty, which renounced Mesopotamia, ceded five provinces beyond the Tigris, made the Araxes, or Aboras, the boundary between the two empires, and gave other advantages to the Romans. There was peace, then, for forty years, until another Sapor, grandson of Narses, had mounted the Persian throne. Constantine the Great was dead and his divided empire seemed less formidable to the neighboring power. “During the long period of the reign of Constantius [337-361] the provinces of the East were afflicted by the calamities of the Persian war. . . . The armies of Rome and Persia encountered each other in nine bloody fields, in two of which Constantius himself commanded in person. The event of the day was most commonly adverse to the Romans.” In the great battle of Singara, fought 348, the Romans were victors at first, but allowed themselves to be surprised at night, while plundering the enemy’s camp, and were routed with great slaughter. Three sieges of Nisibis, in Mesopotamia—the bulwark of Roman power in the East—were among the memorable incidents of these wars. In 338, in 346, and again in 350, it repulsed the Persian king with shame and loss. Less fortunate was the city of Amida (modern Diarbekir), in Armenia, besieged by Sapor, in 350. It was taken, at the last, by storm, and the inhabitants put to the sword. On the accession of Julian, the Persian war was welcomed by the ambitious young emperor as an opportunity for emulating the glory of Alexander, after rivalling that of Cæsar in Gaul. In the early spring of 363, he led forth a great army from Antioch, and traversed the sandy plains of Mesopotamia to the Persian capital of Ctesiphon, reducing and destroying the strong cities of Perisabor and Maogamalcha on his march. Finding Ctesi-

phon too strong in its fortifications to encourage a siege, he crossed the Tigris, burned his fleet and advanced boldly into the hostile country beyond. It was a fatal expedition. Led astray by perfidious guides, harassed by a swarm of enemies, and scantily supplied with provisions, the Romans were soon forced to an almost desperate retreat. If Julian had lived, he might possibly have sustained the courage of his men and rescued them from their situation; but he fell, mortally wounded, in repelling one of the incessant attacks of the Persian cavalry. An officer named Jovian was then hastily proclaimed emperor, and by his agency an ignominious treaty was arranged with the Persian king. It gave up all the conquests of Galerius, together with Nisibis, Singara and other

tory to future conflicts, Anastasius now founded and Justinian afterwards strengthened the powerfully fortified city of Dara, near Nisibis. The value of the new outpost was put to the proof in 526, when hostilities again broke out. The last great Roman general, Belisarius, was in command at Dara during the first years of this war, and finally held the general commands. In 529 he fought a great battle in front of Dara and won a decisive victory. The next year he suffered a defeat at Sura and in 532 the two powers arranged a treaty of peace which they vauntingly called "The Endless Peace"; but Justinian (who was now emperor) paid 11,000 pounds of gold for it. "The Endless Peace" was so quickly ended that the year 540 found the Persian king Chosroes, or



TRIUMPH OF SHAPUR I OVER VALERIAN

Bas relief in stone of Naksch-i-Rustam
(From "L'Art antique de la Perse")

Roman strongholds in Mesopotamia; on which hard terms the Roman army was permitted to recross the Tigris and find a refuge in regions of its own. The peace thus shamefully purchased endured for more than half-a-century. Religious fanaticism kindled war afresh, 422, between Persia and the eastern empire; but the events are little known. It seems to have resulted, practically, in the division of Armenia which gave Lesser Armenia to the Romans as a province and made the Greater Armenia, soon afterwards, a Persian satrapy, called Persarmenia. The truce which ensued was respected for eight years. In the year 502, while Anastasius reigned at Constantinople and Kobad was king of Persia, there was a recurrence of war, which ended, however, in 505, without any territorial changes. The unhappy city of Amida was again captured in this war, after a siege of three months, and 80,000 of its inhabitants perished under the Persian swords. Prepara-

Nushirvan, at the head of an army in Syria ravaging the country and despoiling the cities. Antioch, just restored by Justinian, after an earthquake which, in 526, had nearly levelled it with the ground, was stormed, pillaged, half burned, and its streets drenched with blood. The seat of war was soon transferred to the Caucasian region of Colchis, or Lazica (modern Mingrelia), and became what is known in history as the Lazic War (see LAZICA), which was protracted until 561, when Justinian consented to a treaty which pledged the empire to pay 30,000 pieces of gold annually to the Persian king, while the latter surrendered his claim to Colchis. But war broke out afresh in 572 and continued till 591 (see CANZACA, OR SHIZ, BATTLE OF), when the armies of the Romans restored to the Persian throne another Chosroes, grandson of the first, who had fled to them from a rebellion which deposed and destroyed his unworthy father. Twelve years later

this Chosroes became the most formidable enemy to the empire that it had encountered in the East. In successive campaigns he stripped from it Syria and Palestine, Egypt, Cyrenaica, and the greater part of Asia Minor, even to the shores of the Bosphorus. Taking the city of Chalcedon in 616, after a lengthy siege, he established a camp and army at that post, within sight of Constantinople, and held it for ten years, insulting and threatening the imperial capital. But he found a worthy antagonist in Heraclius, who became emperor of the Roman East in 610, and who proved himself to be one of the greatest of soldiers. It was twelve years after the beginning of his reign before Heraclius could gather in hand, from the shrunken and exhausted empire, such resources as would enable him to turn aggressively upon the Persian enemy. Then, in three campaigns, between 622 and 627, he completely reversed the situation. After a decisive battle, fought December 1, 627, on the very site of ancient Nineveh, the royal city of Dastagerd was taken and spoiled, and the king, stripped of all his conquests and his glory, was a fugitive (see *ROME: Medieval city: 565-628*). A conspiracy and an assassination soon ended his career and his son made peace. It was a lasting peace, as between Romans and Persians; for eight years afterwards the Persians were in their death struggle with the warriors of Mohammed.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 18, 24-25, 40, 42, 46.

318-371.—Conflict with Caucasus. See CAUCASUS: B. C. 323-A. D. 371.

420-440.—Struggles with White Huns. See HUNS, WHITE.

592.—Control of Arabia.—War with Abyssinia. See ABYSSINIA: 6th-16th centuries.

615.—Siege and capture of Jerusalem. See JERUSALEM: 615.

616-628.—Conquest of Egypt. See EGYPT: 616-628.

632-651.—Conquest by Saracens. See CALIPHATE: 632-651; BRIDGE, BATTLE OF.

901-998.—Samanide and Bouide dynasties. See SAMANIDES; CALIPHATE: 815-945.

999-1038.—Under the Gaznevdes. See TURKEY: 999-1183.

1150-1250.—Period of the Atabegs. See ATABEGS.

1193.—Conquest by Khwarezmians. See KHWAREZM: 12th century.

1220-1226.—Conquest by Jenghiz Khan. See MONGOLIA: 1153-1227; KHORASSAN: 1220-1221.

1258-1393.—Mongol empire of the Ilkhans.—Khulagu, or Houlagou, grandson of Jenghiz Khan, who extinguished the caliphate at Bagdad, 1258, and completed the Mongol conquest of Persia and Mesopotamia (see *BAGDAD: 1258*), "received the investiture of his conquests and of the country south of the Oxus. He founded an empire there, known as that of the Ilkhans. Like the Khans of the Golden Horde, the successors of Batu, they for a long time acknowledged the suzerainty of the Khakan of the Mongols in the East."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols*, pt. 1, p. 211.—Khulagu "fixed his residence at Maragha, in Aderbijan, a beautiful town, situated on a fine plain watered by a small but pure stream, which, rising in the high mountains of Sahund, flows past the walls of the city, and empties itself in the neighbouring lake of Oormia. . . . At this delightful spot Hulakoo [or Khulagu] appears to have employed his last years in a manner worthy of a great monarch. Philosophers and astronomers

were assembled from every part of his dominions, who laboured in works of science under the direction of his favourite, Nesser-u-deen. [The title of the Ilkhans, given to Khulagu and his successors, signified simply the lords or chiefs (the Khans). Their empire was extinguished in 1393 by the conquests of Timur.]—J. Malcolm, *History of Persia*, v. 1, ch. 10.—"It was under Sultan Ghazan, who reigned from 1294 to 1303, that Mahometanism again became the established religion of Persia. In the second year of his reign, Ghazan Khan publicly declared his conversion to the faith of the Koran. . . . After Sultan Ghazan the power of the Mongolian dynasty in Persia rapidly declined. The empire soon began to break in pieces. . . . The royal house became extinct, while another branch of the descendants of Hulaku established themselves at Bagdad. At last Persia became a mere scene of anarchy and confusion, utterly incapable of offering any serious resistance to the greatest of Mussulman conquerors, the invincible and merciless Timur."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquest of the Saracens*, lecture 6.

1386-1393.—Conquest by Timur. See TIMUR.

15th-16th centuries.—Domination in Caucasus.

See CAUCASUS: 1400-1737.

1499-1887.—Founding of Sefavean dynasty.—

Triumph of the Sheahs.—Subjugation by Afghans.—Deliverance by Nadir Shah.—Khajar dynasty.—"At an early period in the rise of Islamism, the followers of Mohammed became divided on the question of the succession to the caliphate, or leadership, vacated by the death of Mohammed. Some, who were in majority, believed that it lay with the descendants of the caliph, Moawiyeh, while others as firmly clung to the opinion that the succession lay with the sons of Alee and Fatimeh, the daughter of the prophet, Hassan and Houssein, and their descendants. In a desperate conflict on the banks of the Euphrates, nearly all the male descendants of the prophet were slain [see *CALIPHATE: 680*], and almost the entire Mohammedan peoples, from India to Spain, thenceforward became Sunnees—that is, they embraced belief in the succession of the line of the house of Moawiyeh, called the Ommiades. But there was an exception to this uniformity of belief. The Persians, as has been seen, were a people deeply given to religious beliefs and mystical speculations to the point of fanaticism. Without any apparent reason many of them became Sheahs [or Shiah], or believers in the claims of the house of Alee and Fatimeh. . . . Naturally for centuries the Sheahs suffered much persecution from the Sunnees, as the rulers of Persia, until the 15th century, were generally Sunnees. But this only stimulated the burning zeal of the Sheahs, and in the end resulted in bringing about the independence of Persia under a dynasty of her own race. In the 14th century there resided at Ardebil a priest named the Sheikh Saifus, who was held in the highest repute for his holy life. He was a lineal descendant of Musa, the seventh Holy Imam. His son, Sadr-ud-Deen, not only enjoyed a similar fame for piety, but used it to such good account as to become chieftain of the province where he lived. Junaid, the grandson of Sadr-ud-Deen, had three sons, of whom the youngest, named Ismail, was born about the year 1480. When only eighteen years of age, the young Ismail entered the province of Ghilan, on the shores of the Caspian, and by the sheer force of genius raised a small army, with which he captured Baku. His success brought recruits to his standard, and at the head of 16,000 men he defeated the chieftain of Alamut, the general sent against him,

and, marching on Tabreez, seized it without a blow. In 1499 Ismail, the founder of the Sefavean dynasty, was proclaimed Shah of Persia. . . . The establishment of the Sefavean dynasty also brought about the existence of a Sheah government, and gave great strength to that sect of the Mohammedans, between whom and other Islamites there was always great bitterness and much bloodshed. Ismail speedily carried his sway as far as the Tigris in the southwest and to Kharism and Candahar in the north and east. He lost one great battle with the Turks under Selim II. at Tabreez [or Chaldiran (see TURKEY: 1481-1520)], but with honor, as the Persians were outnumbered; but it is said he was so cast down by that event he never was seen to smile again. He died in 1524, leaving the record of a glorious reign. His three immediate successors, Tahmasp, Ismail II., and Mohammed Khudabenda, did little to sustain



ABBAS I, THE GREAT
 (From an original Persian painting)

the fame and power of their country, and the new empire must soon have yielded to the attacks of its enemies at home and abroad, if a prince of extraordinary ability had not succeeded to the throne when the new dynasty seemed on the verge of ruin. Shah Abbass, called the Great, was crowned in the year 1586, and died in 1628, at the age of seventy, after a reign of forty-two years [see TURKEY: 1623-1640]. This monarch was one of the greatest sovereigns who ever sat on the throne of Persia. . . . It was the misfortune of Persia that the Sefavean line rapidly degenerated after the death of Shah Abbass. . . . Taking advantage of the low state of the Sefavean dynasty, Mahmood, an Afghan chieftain, invaded Persia in 1722 with an army of 50,000 men. Such was the condition of the empire that he had little difficulty in capturing Ispahan, although it had a population of 600,000. He slaughtered every male member of the royal family except Houssein the weak sovereign, his son Tahmasp, and two grandchildren; all the artists of Ispahan and scores of thousands besides were slain. That magnificent capital has

never recovered from the blow. Mahmood died in 1725, and was succeeded by his cousin Ashraf. But the brief rule of the Afghans terminated in 1727. Nadir Kuli, a Persian soldier of fortune, or in other words a brigand of extraordinary ability, joined Tahmasp II., who had escaped and collected a small force in the north of Persia. Nadir marched on Ispahan and defeated the Afghans in several battles; Ashraf was slain and Tahmasp II. was crowned. But Nadir dethroned Tahmasp II. in 1732, being a man of vast ambition as well as desire to increase the renown of Persia; and he caused that unfortunate sovereign to be made way with some years later. Soon after Nadir Kuli proclaimed himself king of Persia with the title of Nadir Kuli Khan. Nadir was a man of ability equal to his ambition. He not only beat the Turks with comparative ease, but he organized an expedition that conquered Afghanistan and proceeded eastward until Delhi fell into his hands, with immense slaughter [see INDIA: 1662-1748]. . . . He was assassinated in 1747. Nadir Kuli Khan was a man of great genius, but he died too soon to establish an enduring dynasty, and after his death civil wars rapidly succeeded each other until the rise of the present or Khajar dynasty, which succeeded the reign of the good Kerim Khan the Zend, who reigned twenty years at Shiraz. Aga Mohammed Khan, the founder of the Khajar dynasty, succeeded in 1794 in crushing the last pretender to the throne, after a terrible civil war, and once more reunited the provinces of Persia under one sceptre. . . . Aga Mohammed Khan was succeeded, after his assassination, by his nephew Feth Alee Shah, a monarch of good disposition and some ability. It was his misfortune to be drawn into two wars with Russia, who stripped Persia of her Circassian provinces, notwithstanding the stout resistance made by the Persian armies. Feth Alee Shah was succeeded by his grandson Mohammed Shah, a sovereign of moderate talents. No events of unusual interest mark his reign, excepting the siege of Herat which was captured in the reign [of his successor] from the Afghans. He died in 1848, and was succeeded by his son, Nasr-ed-Deen Shah [who was still sovereign in 1877].”—S. G. W. Benjamin, *Story of Persia*, ch. 20.

ALSO IN: C. R. Markham, *General sketch of the history of Persia*, ch. 10-20.—J. Malcolm, *History of Persia*, v. 1, ch. 12-20.—R. G. Watson, *History of Persia*, 1800-1858.

1534-1638.—Rule of Bagdad. See BAGDAD: 1393-1638.

1623-1640.—War with Turkey. See TURKEY: 1623-1640.

1722-1747.—Invasion by Afghans. See AFGHANISTAN: B. C. 330-A. D. 1747.

1736.—Friendship with Georgian Republic. See CAUCASUS: 1736-1799.

1739-1747.—Invasion of India by Nadir Shah.—Conquest of Baluchistan. See INDIA: 1662-1748; BALUCHISTAN: 18th century.

1799-1817.—Early English, French and Russian relations with Persia.—Treaties with England.—Friction with Russia.—“Towards the close of the eighteenth century Tippoo Sultan sent a mission to Persia seeking an alliance, and Marquis Wellesley followed suit, his envoy being a native of Persian extraction. Tippoo fell at Seringapatam in 1799, but the value of Persian friendship once recognized, the Indian Government determined to secure it if possible, and in 1800 Captain (afterwards Sir John) Malcolm arrived from India at the Court of the Shah on a mission, of which the origin and object are thus stated by the envoy himself: ‘The power possessed by its (the Persian)

sovereign of checking the Afghans, who threatened to invade India, and of repelling the ambitious views of France, if ever directed to that quarter, led the governor-general of the British possessions in the East to form an alliance with Feth Ali Khan immediately after he was raised to the throne.' This policy had the temporary success which was desired of diverting the Afghans from their meditated invasion of India, and an impression was made of the power of the English nation, both on the King of Persia and his subjects. . . . Malcolm's first visit was followed almost immediately (1801) by an abortive attempt on the part of Napoleon to establish relations with Persia through the medium of an Armenian merchant. Malcolm meantime had concluded a treaty providing that Persia should lay waste Afghanistan if the latter attacked India, but 'remarkable, chiefly, for the bitterness with which its proscribed the French.' Four years later, war having broken out between France and Russia, Napoleon sent Colonel Romieu to Teheran with definite proposals for an alliance. Romieu died, but in 1806, the Shah having in turn sought his friendship, the Emperor despatched Joubert on the same errand with a happier result; for the latter, after suffering detention and imprisonment on the road, eventually reached Teheran, and returned thence to Europe accompanied by a duly accredited Persian envoy, who followed Napoleon to Tilsit, and there concluded a treaty with him, afterwards ratified at Finkenstein (May 1807). Russia and France were now allies, and the former Power could, of course, offer no objection when General Gardanne was sent with seventy commissioned and non-commissioned officers to drill and instruct the Persian army. In England and in India, however, this proceeding, naturally enough, roused great uneasiness [especially as Malcolm was refused admission to Persia]. . . . By March 1809 the French mission was at Tabriz in a condition of honourable detention, and English influence [was] once more paramount. According to Malcolm, 'The King of Persia had listened to the overtures of Bonaparte in the hope that this mediation or his power would enable him to recover Georgia; but when changes in the conditions of Europe compelled the French Emperor to abandon his designs in Asia, he (the Shah) reverted to his alliance with the English.' Sir Harford Jones concluded a second treaty with the Shah, Feth Ali, soon after his arrival at the capital (March 12th (N.S.) 1809), providing, amongst other things, that in the event of any European forces invading Persia a British force or equivalent subsidy, besides guns, munitions of war, and officers, to an amount and in numbers to be settled later on, would be furnished from India. . . . [A third] Anglo-Persian treaty [made in November, 1814] renewed the agreement as to subsidy, the supply of officers and men, of arms and munitions of war, etc. and most gratuitously provided that 'the limits of Russia and Persia should be determined according to the admission of Great Britain, Persia, and Russia.' But quarrels soon arose in regard to the payment of the subsidy, and in 1815 all British non-commissioned officers were ordered by their Mission to leave the country. D'Arcy, Hart, and some other commissioned officers remained, and the last-named acquired and maintained a position of extraordinary influence in Persia, until his death by cholera in 1830. Meantime the rupture between France and Russia in 1812 had materially altered the position of affairs. England, though still desirous of maintaining her friendship with Persia, could no longer openly aid the latter in her disputes or conflicts with Russia,

and the British officers in the service of the Shah were forbidden to take any part in actual warfare. . . . It can hardly be denied that Russia had more than once ample ground for distrust and anger based upon the presence and activity of English agents, avowed or unavowed, at the Persian Court and in the ranks of the Persian army. Nevertheless we have Paskievitch's emphatic testimony in favour of English policy. 'I care not to inquire into the motives which led the late commander-in-chief in Georgia to misrepresent during ten years to H. I. M. and the Ministry our relations with Persia, and even with England in those parts. But if the English have enormous influence in the East, it is because they have constantly and warmly taken to heart the interests of those who have sought their protection, politically. I see by the official correspondence, now before me, that since our embassy of 1817, so meagre in useful results, and up to the last rupture, it was imputed as a crime to the English that they sought the friendship of that one of the Shah's sons who has always shown partiality for Europeans; and it was a matter of offense that Abbas Mirza failed to prefer ourselves, who refuse him even the title of heir to his father's throne, solemnly guaranteed to him by the treaty, to a nation which supplied him with money and arms, and with officers to drill his troops.'—J. F. Baddeley, *Russian conquest of the Caucasus*, pp. 176-181.

19th century.—Russian influence. See ASIA: 1500-1900.

1837.—Siege of Herat. See INDIA: 1836-1845.

1844-1850.—Persecution of Babis. See BABISM.

1856-1857.—War with English.—Renunciation of claims to Herat and Afghanistan. See AFGHANISTAN: 1842-1869.

1896.—Assassination of the shah.—False charges against the Babis.—Punishment of alleged accomplices.—"Nasir'u'd-Din Shah, the fourth king of the Qajar dynasty, succeeded to the throne of Persia on Dhu'l-Qa'da 22, A.H. 1264 (September 20, A.D. 1848), and would therefore enter on the fiftieth year of his reign on . . . May 6, 1896. Great preparations had been made to celebrate his Jubilee, . . . when, only three days before these celebrations were to have taken place, the world was startled by the news of his assassination. . . . The Crown Prince, or *Wali-ahd*, Muzaffar'u'd-Din Mirza, was instantly summoned by telegraph from Tabriz, where he was proclaimed Shah on the morrow of his father's death; and shortly afterwards he was peaceably crowned at Tihiran. . . . Suspicion, which had at first (unjustly enough) fallen on the Babis, soon fell on Sayyid Jamal'u'd-Din, on another of his disciples, Mirza Aqa Khan, and on Shaykh Ahmad of Kirman and Hajji Mirza Hasan Khan *Khabirul-Mulk*, and the extradition of these four was demanded by the Persian from the Turkish government. The three last-named were finally surrendered to the Persian authorities, and were secretly put to death at Tabriz."—E. G. Brown, *Persian revolution*, pp. 50, 11-12.—See also BABISM.

1899.—Represented at first Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Constitution.

1904.—Telegraphic communication with India.—In 1904 telegraphic communication was opened between Teheran and India. This was an important event politically as well as commercially for British safety in India has always depended on knowledge of what is happening in the neighboring countries.

1905-1907.—Beginnings of revolutionary movement.—Shah Muzaffar-ed-Din.—Taking of

"bast," and its effect.—Extortion of a constitution and election of a representative assembly.—Death of the shah.—In 1907, popular demands compelled the shah to grant a written Constitution. The following account of conditions and events which opened, attended and followed the constitutional revolution have been derived, partly from official correspondence of the period between the British legation at Teheran (or Tehran) and the foreign office at London, as published in *Blue Book Cd. 4581*, 1909, and partly from letters and despatches to the leading journals of London and New York. The shah, Muzaffar-ed-Din, who came to the throne in 1896, on the assassination of his father, Nâsr-ed-Din was credited with a desire to reform the government of his kingdom, and made considerable effort to that end in the early years of his reign; but the adverse forces controlling his court were too strong for him, and he seems to have yielded to them completely at last. He was surrounded by a corrupt ring which lived on the spoils of government, and piled debt upon debt. Under the last of the grand viziers (Atabegs, or Atabeks) who ruled Persia in his name before the outbreak of revolution, "governments were put up for sale, grain was hoarded and sold at extortionate prices, the Government domains were stolen or sold for the benefit of the conspirators, rich men were summoned to Teheran (or Tehran) and forced to disgorge large sums of money, oppression of every sort was countenanced for a consideration; the property, and even the lives, of all Persian subjects were at their mercy. Finally, there was every reason to believe that a conspiracy was on foot to dethrone the foolish and impotent Shah and to oust the Valiahd [heir to the throne]. In their place was to be put the Shooa-es-Sultaneh, the Shah's younger son, who was a by-word even in Persia for extortion and injustice. The policy of the Atabeg and his friends had thus aroused the opposition of all classes in Persia: of the few more or less patriotic statesmen, who knew to what a goal the country was being led; of the priests, who felt that their old power and independence would perish with that of their country; and of the great mass of the population and the mercantile classes, who were the daily victims of the tyranny of their oppressors. In December [1905] the storm broke. The Governor of Teheran, without any just cause, ordered an aged Seyed to be cruelly beaten. A large number of the prominent Mujtehedhs took 'bast' [refuge] in the shrine of Shah Abdul Azim, near the capital." The "taking of 'bast,'" or refuge, in some sanctuary or other place of protection, is an old Persian mode of political protest or demonstration, to command attention to public discontents. In 1848 the chief persons of the empire had taken refuge with the English and Russian legations in order to obtain the exile of a tyrannical minister, Mirza Aghassi, and since then it had been the custom of persons who had grievances against their own government to take refuge under the shelter of a foreign legation. The "Mujtehedhs" mentioned in the above quotation as having resorted to this expedient in December, are the higher and more influential of the Mohammedan priests in Persia, distinguished from the Mullahs or common priests, whose ranks are open to any believer who can read the Koran and who assumes to interpret its laws. The Government used vain endeavors of bribery and intimidation to break up the "bast" at the shrine of Shah Abdul Azim. The refugees had stirred up the whole country by a published statement of grievances, appealing to the patriotism of the people,

and the Shah surrendered to the effect produced. He made promises of a grant of popular representation, and of administrative reforms. By the end of January a promising state of affairs seemed to have been brought about. "The refugees were brought back to Tehran in the Shah's own carriages, escorted by an enthusiastic crowd." But dissensions between the popular leaders and the Mujtehedhs soon arose. "No definite step was taken to give effect to the Shah's promises, except a vague letter promising Courts of Justice and a new Code, and the appointment of a Council to consider the whole question of reforms. In this Council it soon became evident that the Government could control the leaders of the reform movement, and that the sympathies of the great Mujtehedhs were not heartily with the popular movement. All was outwardly quiet in Tehran, but in the provinces the people of Shiraz and Resht had taken violent measures to prevent the reappointment of the Shah's sons as their Governors, and the movement in both cases was successful. In the capital itself the streets and the bazaars were quiet, but every day sermons were preached in the mosques, in which, as one of the popular party said, 'What we hardly dared to think a year ago was openly spoken.' The best-known preacher of Tehran, a Prince of the Imperial house, preached every Friday against the tyrannies and corruption of the Government. An order for his expulsion was issued. The chief Mujtehedhs, incited by the people, pressed the Government to withdraw the measure, and the Government had to yield." In the middle of May the shah had a paralytic stroke and was removed to the country. For some weeks there was a lull in the popular agitation. Then, early in July, the principal Mujtehedhs were roused by the conduct of the grand vizier to a fresh preaching of revolt. On July 11 the vizier ordered the arrest of one of the preachers; a crowd of people attempted to rescue him, and was fired on by the troops. General rioting in the capital ensued, with victory, for a time, on the side of the people; but in the end the government appeared to have won the day. "The town was in the hands of the troops. The popular leaders had fled. The Shah was in the hands of their opponents. For the popular party the outlook was a grave one." In these circumstances the leaders had recourse again to the "bast," and this time in a foreign legation. "On the evening of the 9th fifty Mullahs and merchants appeared at the Legation and took up their quarters for the night. Their numbers soon increased, and on the 2nd September there were about 14,000 persons in the Legation garden. Their conduct was most orderly. The crowd of refugees was organized by the heads of the guilds, who took measures to prevent any unauthorized person from entering the Legation grounds. Tents were put up and regular feeding places and times of feeding were provided for. The expense was borne by the principal merchants. No damage of a wilful character was done to the garden, although, of course, every semblance of a bed was trampled out of existence, and the trees still bear pious inscriptions cut in the bark. Colonel Douglas, the Military Attaché, kept watch over the Legation buildings, but no watch was needed. Discipline and order were maintained by the refugees themselves. The Government sent answers to the popular demands, which they requested Mr. Grant Duff [the British minister] to read to the people. The Government communications were received with derision. At last there appeared to be no other resource than a personal appeal to the Shah. The people stated firmly that unless their

demands were granted they would remain in the Legation, as it was their only place of safety, and they maintained that until the Shah knew what was the real situation their requests would never receive due consideration. Mr. Grant Duff obtained the consent of His Majesty's Government, and announced to the Minister for Foreign Affairs that he demanded an audience. An audience was fixed for the 30th July. The audience, however, never took place. The Commander of several of the Tehran regiments, on whom the Minister of the Court and the Grand Vizier chiefly depended, made the fatal announcement that his troops would not serve against the people, and that they were on the point of themselves taking refuge in the British Legation. The Court party yielded. The *Sadr Azam* [Grand Vizier] resigned, and the *Azad-ul-Mulk*, head of the *Kajar* tribe [the tribe of the imperial dynasty], proceeded to *Kum* in order to inform the refugee *Mullahs* that the Shah had granted their demands for a National Assembly and for Courts of Justice. The chief difficulty which then confronted Mr. Grant Duff was that the people had entirely lost confidence in their own Government, and declined to treat with them except through the British Representative. When the Government made the announcement of the projected reforms, the people answered that they would not accept the promise of the Government unless it was confirmed and guaranteed by the Government of the King of England. This was naturally impossible. Acting under instructions, Mr. Grant Duff informed the refugees that he could do no more for them, and entirely declined to guarantee the execution of the Shah's Decrees. The Government then attempted to come to an arrangement direct. It failed. The popular leaders rejected the Shah's Decrees as vague or inadequate, and where posted up in the city they were torn down and trampled on. In this extremity the Government again appealed to Mr. Grant Duff and begged him for his assistance. At his suggestion a meeting took place at the residence of the new Grand Vizier, the late Minister for Foreign Affairs, between the Government and the popular leaders. After a long discussion, at which Mr. Grant Duff took no part except when questioned, an agreement was arrived at, and an amended Rescript published which definitely promised a National Representative assembly [in the Persian language a *Mejlis* or *Medjliss*] with legislative powers. The Rescript was read out in the British Legation to the assembled refugees and was received with enthusiasm. . . . On the night of the 16th the *Mujteheds* returned amid popular plaudits, and on the 18th a grand meeting was held in the Palace precincts as a sort of earnest of the National Assembly." The court party, however, had only suffered an appearance of defeat. It spent the next week "in gradually paring down all the Shah's promises, and in the production of a Rescript in which the original project of the Constitution was hardly recognizable. The late Grand Vizier, who had lingered in the neighborhood, suddenly returned to his country seat near the Shah's residence, and the Shah absolutely refused to sign the Regulations for the Assembly. The popular excitement was intense. Notice was served on Mr. Grant Duff that the people would again take refuge in the Legation, if necessary, by force. About twenty-five of the leaders actually did take up their quarters there. It seemed as if the disturbances were about to break out anew." But now the Russian minister came into coöperation with Mr. Grant Duff, in representations to the shah that overcame

the evil influences by which he was swayed. Regulations for the election of delegates to the Assembly were now signed; but fresh difficulties arose from the refusal of provincial governors to carry them out. These in turn were overcome and the elections were held. "Meanwhile it had been decided, in order to avoid delay, that the Tehran Members of the Council should meet at once, without waiting for the provincial Delegates, and the first session of the new Assembly was opened [October 7, 1906] by the Shah himself, in the presence of the priests, the Court, and the foreign representatives. . . . The Assembly soon showed its power. It refused absolutely to consent to the Anglo-Russian advance [of a preferred loan] on the ground that the public revenues ought not to be pledged to foreigners. It announced its intention of instituting reforms, especially in the finances of the country, and providing itself the necessary funds for carrying on the Government by founding and endowing a National Bank. But, before taking any steps of this nature, it insisted on having a signed Constitution. A Committee was nominated to consider the terms of the Constitution, and, in consultation with a Committee named by the Government, a Constitution was drawn up and submitted to the Chamber." It did not satisfy the popular demand and scenes of confusion followed; but in the end it was amended and approved, and, on January 1, 1907, the important instrument, ratified by the shah and by the *valiahd*—the heir to the crown—was delivered to the assembly and received with joy. One week later, January 8, the shah died.

1907.—Anglo-Russian convention. See *ANGLO-RUSSIAN AGREEMENT OF 1907*.

1907.—Represented at second Hague conference. See *HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907*.

1907-1908.—New shah, Mohammed Ali.—Reactionary policy.—Hostility between shah and assembly.—Intrigues and riots in Ispahan.—Attempted assassination of the shah.—His temporary victory.—*Muzaffar*'d-Din Mirza "was succeeded by his son Muhammad Ali Mirza, who was duly crowned on Jan. 19, [1907] and whose second son, Sultan Ahmad Mirza, was proclaimed *Wali'ahd* (Crown-Prince) on Jan. 25. That the new Shah should dislike the Constitution and regard the *Majlis* with suspicion and aversion was perhaps natural enough, for he had looked forward to exercising the same autocratic and irresponsible powers as his predecessors had been wont to enjoy. . . . He manifested this dislike by not inviting the Deputies to be present at his Coronation. . . . This omission, the first of a series of slights upon the *Majlis* by the Shah, was greatly resented by the deputies, and their anger was increased by the refusal of the responsible Ministers to appear in the House and answer questions. For it was provided by the Constitution that, though the Ministers were to be nominated by the Shah, they were to be responsible to the Assembly, and that without its consent no tax should be imposed, no expenditure incurred, and no foreign loan or concession allowed. Now at this juncture not only did the responsible Ministers absent themselves from the Assembly, but the raising of a fresh loan of £400,000 in equal moieties from Russia and England, on certain conditions not made public, was still in contemplation. The project for this loan had been drafted in Russia and the draft had been approved by England, while the Shah's one object was to obtain money, regardless of Persia's future well-being. But at the last moment the Assembly, which nobody seems to have taken into account, came to the rescue and absolutely refused to sanc-

tion this transaction, which the *mullas*, with a wise and far-sighted patriotism, denounced as the final sale of Persia's independence. So convinced was the Prime Minister that the people were in earnest that he refused to go forward with the matter, understanding that if he did so his life would not be safe. And although he still refrained from appearing in the Assembly in person, he caused the other Ministers, . . . to be present at its deliberations."—E. G. Browne, *Persian revolution*, pp. 133, 134.—"The leading feature of the reform movement, in the spring of 1907, was the development of intense jealousy of everything and everybody foreign, irrespective of nationality. This feeling reached its climax in the end of February, when the Mejliss procured the dismissal of the two principal Belgian officials of the Customs Department. . . . The various non-Islamic elements of the population suffered some persecution, and many Chaldeans from the west left the country, while considerable numbers of Jews emigrated to Palestine. Parsis were murdered, without punishment being inflicted on the culprits. Parties in the Mejliss were violently divided on the subject of religious equality, the clericals loudly maintaining the necessity for the maintenance of Mohammedan supremacy. A prominent divine of Isfahan, and a champion of the new movement, went so far as to suggest that Europeans even should be forced to adopt habits and customs more consonant with the respect due by them to Moslems. It was a *seyd* of Shiraz, however, who most aptly epitomised the Persian idea of liberty. In a fit of enthusiasm this worthy man raced down a street shouting 'Long live Freedom,' punctuating his cries by sticking his knife into the scholars of a Jewish school. . . . Meanwhile there arose in Teheran a Press that for unbridled license in the discussion of things and people could not have been rivalled. Vituperation was its strong point. . . . The establishment of numerous secret societies, commonly called *anjumans*, was another influence for evil. The *anjumans* became all-powerful in the capital, and in reality dictated to the Mejliss. . . . Ostensibly established for the promotion of constitutional aims, these societies became instruments for the gratification of personal spite and revenge, and for the collection of money by threats, besides being revolutionary, if not anarchistic, to the core. Ending of the Kajar dynasty was, notoriously, the aim of their more extreme members. . . . Disorder in the provinces was easily stirred up by judicious expenditure, and the blame was attributed to dissatisfaction with the new style of government. Each side fomented disturbances with the object of discrediting the cause of the other. Meanwhile the Shah's intrigues and the foolishness of the Mejliss were having their due effect throughout the country. One of the troubles of Persia is that most of its mountainous regions are inhabited by nomad and semi-nomad tribes of turbulent and lawless character. These wild people were usually held in check by the policy of setting tribe against tribe and chief against chief. What the Persian lacks in resolution is made up for in craft, and the Government had generally been successful in controlling within reasonable limits these disturbing elements. The tribesmen understood that they were regarded in Teheran as troublesome children, and they maintained their reputation by continual acts of disobedience, followed in due season by remorseful submission. It was a great game in which the Shah never over-harrassed his faithful subjects, while the subjects themselves knew better than to go too far. Behind the diplomacy of the Govern-

ment there was always the whole power of the Empire, a poor enough thing in itself, but overwhelming when employed against a single tribe. Now, however, the dangerous effect of the mushroom press of Teheran was being reflected among the tribes, while the weakness of the central government, due to the conflict between the Shah and Mejliss, was becoming apparent in . . . local government. Disorder rose to the surface and there was no strong hand to suppress it. . . . Throughout the year 1907 the situation in the provinces gradually went from bad to worse. Isfahan, Shiraz, Yezd, Meshed, and Kermanshah, besides many other less important places, underwent periods of lawlessness, during which authority was completely set at naught. Trade was paralyzed by the occupation of the caravan routes by organized freebooters, among whom the Bakhtiari were conspicuous. Several cases of robbery of Europeans took place, and the Imperial Bank manager at Shiraz was fired at, and narrowly escaped with his life. . . . Relations between the Shah and the Mejliss reached a crisis in the middle of December. The Shah having declined to accede to a request for the dismissal of certain reactionaries, the Cabinet sent in their resignations on the 14th. Next day the ministers were summoned to the palace, where, immediately on arrival, they were arrested. The servant of the Prime Minister, Nasr-ul-Mulk, an Oxford graduate and a G. C. M.G., ran to the British Legation and reported that his master was to be executed in a few hours, whereupon Mr. Marling sent the Oriental Secretary to interview the Shah. The Shah disclaimed any intention of injuring Nasr-ul-Mulk, who, along with the rest of the Ministers, was allowed to leave the palace. . . . Meantime the Mejliss appeared to be completely cowed by the action of the Shah. The militant Nationalists who, armed to the teeth, bravely defended the Parliament House in time of peace now showed no signs of life, and the Shah could have occupied the buildings if he had wanted, and there and then ended the Mejliss and resumed his powers as an autocrat. Whether it was that he . . . had not really intended the execution of the Ministers, or that his pusillanimity was just as great as his opponents, and he merely lacked the nerve to do what he wished, cannot be said for certain. In any case one perceives a lack of determination in all concerned. The Shah proving irresolute, and the British intervention on behalf of the Ministers having hardened Nationalist hearts, the Baharistan garden, which contained the Parliament House, and the adjacent Siparsalar mosque, were 'slowly' occupied by armed members of the *anjumans*, until by night there was said to be assembled 3,000 armed men ready to defend the Mejliss. . . . No fighting took place, and the Shah eventually gave way all along the line, agreed to dismiss the obnoxious reactionaries, and himself swore . . . on the Koran to be faithful to the Constitution. . . . On 28th February [1908] a determined [but unsuccessful] attempt was made upon the life of the Shah. . . . During the spring there was a lull in disorders throughout the country, though official reports denied the existence of any real improvement. Popular dissatisfaction with the Mejliss began to grow, for its failure to improve the situation, and the patent fact that it was being exploited by self-interested parties, caused a revulsion in public feeling. When early in June [1908] the Shah made a sudden exit from the palace within the town and took up his quarters in the Bagh-i-Shah, outside the city walls, it was generally supposed he was hatching plans for a *coup*.

The Nationalists were also busy, and a commission representing all the *anjumans* elaborated a scheme of defence. Thousands of armed men rallied round the *Mejliss* . . . and on the 22nd the *Mejliss* . . . decided to send an ultimatum to the Shah. The initiative was taken by the other side, however, and early the next morning the city was startled by the roar of cannon and the sound of heavy firing. . . . With the exception of one place the country took the Shah's *coup* quietly, and . . . there appears to have been a good deal of relief at the disappearance of the *Mejliss*, so discredited had it become in its later days. The Teheran *anjumans* vanished like pricked bubbles, and the flamboyant press was utterly blotted out. The Powers made it clear to the Shah, however, that they would not tolerate recriminatory measures against the Constitutionalists. Representation had the effect of inducing the Shah to promise another *Mejliss*, and to grant an amnesty, the latter applicable to all political offenders."—D. Fraser, *Persia and Turkey in revolt*, pp. 30-41, 45.

1908-1909.—Final hostilities between the shah and supporters of the constitution.—Tabriz, the center of a revolutionary movement.—Entrance of the Bakhtiari into the struggle.—Siege of Tabriz and relief by the Russians.—Capture of Teheran by the nationalists and Bakhtiari.—Deposition of the shah.—Son enthroned.—When in June, 1908, the shah had established his authority at Teheran, Tabriz became the center of popular opinion on the side of the constitutionalists, or nationalists, and the main seat of their strength. Fighting began there on June 23, simultaneously with the conflict at Teheran, and continued intermittently and indecisively throughout July and August, at the end of which time the nationalists were said to be 10,000 strong. On September 24 the royalists began a bombardment of the town, with five guns, to which the nationalists responded vigorously with four. October 10 the nationalists assumed the offensive, attacking the camp of the besiegers, routing their cavalry, and securing possession of a desirable bridge. On September 24, under pressure from the representatives of Great Britain and Russia, the shah decreed that a *Mejlis* (national assembly) "composed of religious and proper persons, will, by the help of God and the favor of the 12th Imam, be convoked by us for the 19th Shavval"—that is, November 14—and that a law of elections should be made known by October 27. The latter date passed without producing the promised election law and no elections followed in November; but on the 8th of the later month the shah's partisans organized a "demonstration" at Teheran against the Constitution, on the strength of which the mendacious sovereign replied to British and Russian remonstrances against his faithlessness by saying that "a large section of the population regarded a constitutional régime as contrary to their religion." Presently, on November 22 he issued a rescript proclaiming that the Ulema had declared such an institution as a parliament to be contrary to Islam and therefore he would not convoke it. Early in 1909 the revolt first organized at Tabriz became rife in many parts of the nominal empire of the shah, both north and south. On January 25 *The Times of India* stated that "the Caspian littoral is being lost to the Shah. . . . Then in the far south, almost on the Gulf littoral, the Nationalists of Laristan have thrown off all semblance of the Shah's authority. Recently it was stated that the Bakhtiaris had risen in revolt, and had looted Isfahan. . . . Communications between Bushire and Shiraz . . . have been interrupted

for many months." Before the end of March the nationalists were in control of the ports of Bender Abbas ad Bushire on the Persian gulf. On March 30 the following went to the London *Times* from Teheran: "In spite of numerous defections to the Nationalists side during the last fortnight, the situation at Teheran remains practically unaltered. . . . The bazaars remain partially closed, but the business of the town proceeds without interruption. From outside there is nothing to apprehend for the present. The Bakhtiari have made no sign, though their position has been rendered materially more secure by the recent espousal of Nationalism by the most notable family at Shiraz. From Resht the revolutionaries continue to launch remonstrance, warning, and anathema at the Shah, but they are too wise to march on the capital without a lead from elsewhere. . . . A section of the Nationalists [in Tabriz] advocate negotiating with the besiegers, but Satar Khan has decided to continue his resistance." On April 20 the shah yielded to the insistence of the British and Russian legations that he should allow an armistice at Tabriz of six days and the importation into the town of sufficient food for that period. Meantime a detachment of Russian Cossacks, under General Snarsky, had crossed the frontier into Persia, and was marching to Tabriz with supplies. This Russian relief expedition, approved by the British government, reached the beleaguered city without resistance on April 30, and its presence brought the conflict at that point to an end. A correspondent of *The Times*, who had been in Tabriz throughout the siege, taking some leadership in the defence (in company with a teacher attached to the American Mission's high school, Mr. Baskerville, who met death in the fighting) and who gave, two months later, a graphic narrative of the experience, said in concluding it: "Tabriz was ultimately saved by the coming of the Russians. Their entry into the town was the direct cause of the opening of the roads, the dispersal of the disappointed armies of the Shah, the promulgation of the Constitution, and the appointment of a Constitutionalist Ministry. It saved Tabriz from a surrender which could not otherwise have been delayed for three days longer, and thereby it averted the complete collapse of the Constitutional movement." With victory at Tabriz snatched from him, the Shah ostensibly threw up his hands. On May 5 it was announced that he had fixed July 19 for the election of a representative Assembly. This revival of promises failed, however, to arrest the revolutionary movement. On May 7, the nationalists expelled a royal force from Kazvin—less than a hundred miles from Teheran—and declared their intention to march on Teheran. The framing of a new electoral law, to the satisfaction of an electoral committee of the nationalists, was finished on June 6, and the shah's signature to it was expected in a few days. High hopes were placed on the coming of Nasr-ul-Mulk, the exiled statesman at Paris, who had been solicited to accept the prime ministry, and who seemed slow to take the proffered honor. But the wrecked structure of constitutional government could not so easily be set in motion. The revolutionaries at Kazvin became threatening again, and were in motion toward Teheran before the end of June, while the Bakhtiari began a simultaneous advance. On June 20th the Russian government issued orders "to assemble a considerable force at Baku, to be held in readiness in case of a *coup de main* against the Persian capital." Meantime the new electoral law had been signed, but not promulgated, "owing to the prevailing excitement,"

it was said. The Russian and British legations attempted mediation between the Sipahdar who commanded the revolutionaries, and the shah, to check the former's advance, but his demands made their intervention hopeless. The shah's forces pushed out to intercept the on-coming revolutionaries, encountered them on July 11, eighteen miles west of Teheran, and fighting went on at a distance from the city for two days; but forces which slipped between the defensive lines made their way into the capital on the morning of July 13, and there was fighting in the streets until the 16th. The shah then sought refuge at the Russian legation, and the Russian officers of the Persian Cossacks, besieged in their barracks, made terms with the Nationalist leaders. Four days later the Persian situation was stated to the British House of Commons by the secretary of state for foreign affairs, Sir Edward Grey, as follows: "The Shah, after taking refuge in the Russian legation, abdicated, and his son, Sultan Ahmed Mirza [a young child] has been proclaimed Shah by the Nationalist Committee under the regency of Azad-ul-Mulk, head of the Kajar tribe, pending the convocation of Parliament. The commanders of the Fedai and Bakhtiari, as temporary chiefs of the Persian Government, have accepted the services of the Persian Cossack brigade under their Russian officers, on condition that the latter are completely under the orders of the Minister of War. This arrangement was ratified at a meeting between the commanders and Colonel Liakhoff. Teheran is quiet, and the Persian Cossacks are already fraternizing with the Fedai. The Sipahdar has been appointed Minister of War, and the Sirdar Assad Minister of the Interior." On July 17 the provisional government gave notice to the Anglo-Russian legations of the selection of the new Shah, and asked that he should be delivered to their keeping; whereupon, wrote *The Times* correspondent, "M. Sablin announced the request to the Shah, who replied that he thought his mother would not consent. The Shah then took M. Sablin to his mother and an affecting scene ensued. Both the mother and father broke down at the thought of parting with their favourite son and offered their second son in his place. M. Sablin replied that the selection had been made by the people and that he had no voice in the matter. The boy wept bitterly in sympathy with his parents and declined to leave his mother. Finally their Majesties were persuaded to agree. On receiving the Shah's assent, the necessary proclamation was immediately promulgated and it was arranged that the Regent and a Nationalist deputation would receive the little Shah." At Teheran, affairs settled quickly into quiet, but disorders were prolonged in various parts of the provinces, being especially serious at Shiraz. On September 9 the deposed shah left the shelter of the Russian legation and journeyed, with his queen, four younger children and several friends, under Russian escort, to a residence in Russia, at Odessa, which was his choice. Persia was still waiting for the able and much trusted constitutionalist statesman, Nasr-ul-Mulk, to return from his exile at Paris and accept the offered premiership in the government; but on September 21 the report went out that he had definitely declined the post. He returned to Persia, however, in October. On October 11 the Russian government made known that it had decided to withdraw the greater part of the troops it had been keeping at Tabriz. A new Mejliss, for which the regent had ordered elections, was assembled on November 15. On December 7 the Mejliss unanimously approved the

proposals of the government with regard to borrowing abroad and the employment of Europeans in executive capacities for the reorganization of the finance department.

1908 (October).—Deposed shah in exile.—Protocol between Persian government and British and Russian governments regarding his status and affairs.—"Mahomed Ali, so recently Shah of Persia, early in October took up residence in the palace at Odessa. . . . His debts, amounting to rather more than £300,000, had been taken over by the Persian Government; and, on the day prior to his departure from Teheran, a protocol had been signed by the British and Russian representatives on the one hand, and the Persian Government on the other, in which occurred the following provisions:—'Article 1. His Majesty, Mahommed Ali Mirza, having declared that he had delivered to the Persian Government all jewels and other Crown property which was in his possession, the Persian Government, after having drawn up a list of all the jewels and other objects received, will present to the two Legations a list of what is missing and of what has been changed, and the two legations will obtain from Mahomed Ali Mirza precise explanations, with all possible details, as to the fate of these jewels and other objects, and, should any of them be found in the possession of his Majesty himself, or of persons in 'bast (sanctuary), at the Russian legation, or the details furnished be inexact, the two legations will do all in their power to obtain the restitution of these objects. Article 2.—If, from July 16th, 1909, it shall be proved before the tribunals of the two Legations that his Majesty Mahomed Ali Mirza has sold, pledged, or caused the disappearance, from that date, of jewels or objects of the Crown, the value of these objects shall be deducted from his pension by the Persian Government if it be found impossible to restore the objects themselves.' Article 3 provides for the delivery of documents relating to the Crown jewels deposited as surety with banks or other loan establishments, or with private persons for money advanced to his Majesty, so that the Persian Government shall be able, at its pleasure, to redeem the said jewels. Article 4 provides that all personal debts of the ex-Shah will be transferred to the account of the Persian Government. Article 5 provides that he should hand over to the Persian Government all his personal property. Article 6 provides that the Persian Government should allow him an annual pension of 100,000 toman. Article 8 provides for his departure from Teheran for abroad forty-eight hours after the signing of the protocol. 'Article 11. The two representatives engage themselves to give to his Majesty Mahomed Ali Mirza serious injunctions that he should abstain in the future from all political agitation against Persia, and the Russian Imperial Government promises on its side to take all efficacious measures not to allow such disturbing proceedings on his part. If his Majesty Mahomed Ali Mirza leaves Russia, and if he is proved to the satisfaction of the two Legations from a country other than Russia to have caused political agitations against Persia, the Persian Government will have the right to stop paying his pension.'"—A. Hamilton, *Prospect in Persia* (*Fortnightly Review*, Jan., 1910).

1909 (January).—Earthquake in Luristan.—Seismographs in many parts of the world gave token of a violent earthquake on January 23, 1909; but three weeks passed before the locality of the shock was learned. It proved to have been centered in western Persia, in the mountainous province of Luristan, and to have been heavily destruc-

tive of life. Its greatest severity was reported to have been in a region at two days journey from Burujurd. Many villages were wholly or partly destroyed, several having been completely engulfed, and the loss of life is estimated to have been between 5000 and 6000 people.

1910.—German interest in Persia.—Accord of Potsdam.—Railway projects.—In 1910 an agreement with respect to German railway projects in Persia was reached between Germany and Russia. "The Accord of Potsdam, as it is called, was made in the form of a note presented by the Russian Government to Germany, and accepted by her. Russia declared that she would in no way oppose the realization of the project of the Bagdad railway up to the Persian Gulf, and that she would construct to the border of Persia a railway to join a spur of the Bagdad railway from Sadije to Khanikin. In return for this, Germany was to promise not to construct railway lines outside of the Bagdad railway zone, to declare that she had no political interest in Persia, and to recognize that 'Russia has special interest in Northern Persia from the political, strategic, and economic points of view.' The German Government was to abandon any intention of securing a concession for a trans-Persian railway. On the other hand, Russia promised to maintain in Northern Persia the 'open door,' so that German commercial interests should not be injured. . . . The Potsdam stipulations brought prominently before Europe the possible significance of Germany's free hand in Anatolian and Mesopotamian railway constructions. It also aroused interest in the possibility of an all-rail route from Calais to Calcutta, in which all the Great Powers except Italy would participate. The trans-Persian and all other railway schemes in Persia came to nothing. Between 1872 and 1890 twelve district railway projects had received concessions from the Persian Government. One of these, the Reuter group, actually started the construction of a line from the Caspian Sea to the Persian Gulf. A French project for a railway from Trebizond to Tabriz had gained powerful financial support. All these schemes were frustrated by Russian diplomacy. In 1890, Russia secured from the Persian Government the exclusive right for twenty-one years to construct railways in Northern Persia. Needless to say, no lines were built. Russia had all she could do with her trans-Siberian and trans-Caucasian schemes."—H. A. Gibbons, *New map of Europe*, pp. 92-93.—See also PERSIAN GULF.

1910-1911.—Request for American financial administrators.—Appointment of W. Morgan Shuster.—Constructive work.—Dismissal forced by Russia.—Russian ultimatums.—"During the months of November and December, 1910, the idea had been discussed among the deputies of the Medjlis of securing finance administrators from the United States in the hope that officials who were free from any European influence would be able to accomplish some practical results in the reorganization of the archaic and chaotic treasury of Persia. . . . When, shortly afterwards, the Persian Government did request that the American State Department should lend its assistance to secure the services of five American financial experts, the British Government was asked whether the objections previously expressed by Russia to Americans going to Persia for this task were shared by England. The British reply was that such had been the view of their Government, but that the objections no longer existed. The Russian Government was then obliged either to object openly to the employment of American citizens as such, or to use smooth diplomatic language and allow

the matter to proceed. On February 2, 1911, the Medjlis approved the terms of our contracts by a large majority and amid great enthusiasm. We [W. Morgan Shuster and staff] went to Persia, therefore, in good faith, and in the natural belief that the two powers having (to use their own language) 'special interests' there offered no objection to the fair and honest accomplishment of our task. . . . It seemed perfectly obvious to us that no headway at all could be made toward straightening out Persia's financial affairs unless full powers to deal with the chaotic situation were conferred by proper authority upon those to be charged with the task. My purpose in drafting the law of June 13, 1911, was to establish a central organization to be known as the office of the Treasurer-general of Persia, which should be responsible for and have charge of the collection and of the disbursement of all revenues and Government receipts, from whatever source derived—an office which should make and authorize all payments, for whatever purpose, in behalf of the central Government of Persia. Up to that time, collections of money had been made not only by the officials of the Ministry of Finance, but by certain departments of the Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs, of the Ministry of Justice, of the Ministry of the Interior, of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and by the Passport Bureau of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. In like manner, these different government departments had been expending, without supervision or control, such funds as they were able to collect. . . . As it was, despite the handicaps under which those charged with the new law labored, and despite the abnormal conditions of war and disorder into which Persia was plunged but a few weeks after this law was passed, during the eight months of our work in Teheran a large proportion of the taxes stated to be due were collected both at the capital and throughout the provinces, the extraordinary expenses incident to the attempt of Muhammad Ali Mirza to regain the throne were promptly met, the salaries of the diplomatic representatives of Persia abroad were sent them for the first time in several years, all foreign obligations and the current salaries of the different ministries were promptly paid, and a complete and accurate record of every receipt and expenditure was kept in the central office of the Treasurer-general."—W. M. Shuster, *Strangling of Persia*, pp. 3, 4, 6, 24.—"Unfortunately for the success of his mission, Mr. Shuster from the first adopted an attitude which, whether justified or not, was certain to bring him into opposition with Russia. Firmly convinced of the injustice of the Anglo-Russian Convention, he carried his opinions to the extent of refusing even to call upon the British and Russian Ministers. However technically correct this may have been in view of his opinions, it must be admitted that in following this course he debarred himself from the opportunities for informal personal discussions which in a small community may so often be of the greatest value in clearing away difficulties and misunderstandings. Thus from the beginning there was latent opposition to the Treasurer-general [W. M. Shuster] upon the part of Russia. The first serious clash was occasioned by the former desiring to appoint as chief of the proposed Treasury Gendarmerie, Major Stokes, a British officer, who was beyond question the most suitable man available in view of his experience and qualifications. As, however, it was contemplated that the new force should operate throughout Persia, it is hardly surprising that Russia should oppose the contemplated appointment.

That objection should be taken to the appointment of a British officer to a high executive position within the Russian sphere can hardly occasion wonder, and was, indeed, to be anticipated from the beginning. Had it been proposed to appoint a Russian officer to a similar position in the British sphere, a protest upon . . . [the part of Great Britain] would almost certainly have followed. The British Foreign Office, in the first instance, offered no opposition to the loan of Major Stokes' services, but thereafter, as the result of Russian representations, adopted an entirely different attitude, and absolutely refused to sanction the proposed appointment."—J. M. Balfour, *Recent happenings in Persia*, pp. 100-101.

On November 29, at noon the Russian government presented to Persia its second ultimatum [concerning Mr. Shuster], demanding its acceptance within the space of just forty-eight hours. The language of this remarkable document is important enough to be quoted in full: "In the course of our interview on Friday (November 24) I had the honor of explaining to Your Excellency the reasons which impelled the Imperial Government of Russia to put several further proposals before the Persian Government, and I have been waiting for my Government's instructions on the subject. Those instructions have now reached me and I have the honor to make on behalf of the Russian Government the following proposals: (1) The dismissal of Mr. Shuster and Mr. Lecoq; the status of the other persons who have been invited into service by Mr. Shuster will be determined in accordance with the second proposal. (2) An undertaking by the Persian government not to engage in the service of Persia foreign subjects without obtaining the consent of the Russian and British legations. (3) The payment by the Persian government of an indemnity to defray the expenses of the present despatch of troops to Persia. The amount and manner of such compensation will be fixed after the receipt of the Persian government's reply."—W. M. Shuster, *Strangling of Persia*, pp. 166-167.—The following day Mr. Shuster received formal notice of dismissal from the shah and decided to return to the United States.

1911-1923.—Office of treasurer-general.—"It will be remembered that Mr. [W. M.] Shuster was invested with what were little less than dictatorial powers. After his elimination at the instance of Russia, he was succeeded as Treasurer-General by a Belgian official. While the Majlis had been content to invest Mr. Shuster with unusual powers, it was by no means prepared to agree to these being exercised by any official who happened to occupy the post which he had held. For the time being it was not possible to alter the position, since one of the first acts of Russia when she intervened in 1911 had been to dissolve the Majlis. When, however, during the war a new Majlis found itself free to act, it took the opportunity of framing a law for the constitution of the Ministry of Finance, which greatly diminished the importance of the appointment in question. . . . The consequence is that Persian finances are to-day [1922] controlled by an organization which, while adequate to provide in theory for all possible contingencies, is either unduly involved or unnecessary for practical purposes. As a consequence staffs have been inflated to a grotesquely excessive degree, and departments are fully staffed which have never been called upon to carry out their functions. . . . The department whose duty it was to deal with the budget had never functioned, for the good and sufficient reason that there had never been a budget for it to deal with. The na-

tional debt department readily undertook to provide a full statement of the foreign debt, but upon receipt this proved to stop prior to the war. The feelings of the officials concerned appeared to be . . . hurt at the idea that they should be expected to be conversant with the debt incurred during the war. . . . The department which was supposed to examine the accounts of the various Ministries was practically in a state of suspended animation, since the latter seemed to have a rooted objection to rendering accounts in anything under three or four years. . . . Under such circumstances any financial adviser who is not invested with practically despotic powers must certainly fail, as both Mr. Shuster and Mr. Armitage-Smith [the British controller of finance] found by experience. The Persian is delighted to have an adviser, particularly if he is able to arrange credits for him, but he objects most strongly to that adviser interfering in administration or attempting to effect reforms."

—J. M. Balfour, *Recent happenings in Persia*, pp. 130-138, 155.—On September 29, 1921, the British controller of Persian finance was withdrawn from Persia. A year later, August 15, 1922, a contract was signed between the United States and Persia in which the former undertook to send an administrator-general of finances once again to Persia. Accordingly Dr. Millspaugh sailed to take up the appointment. He has already come into conflict with Reza Khan. "Reza Khan, the War Minister has introduced in the Majlis, a bill for compulsory military service for the building up of the Persian army to such strength as will insure the respect of her neighbours. That the country cannot afford a large army is a consideration that carries no weight with Reza Khan, whom not even the Financial Minister, Dr. Millspaugh, can control, and who insists that the money will have to be found even if all the government departments, with the sole exception of the Ministry of War, have to be closed down."—*New York Times Current History*, July, 1923, p. 707.

1914-1916.—Part in the World War.—Neutrality violated by Russians and Turks.—Fighting on Turkish territory.—Germany favored by industrial regions.—Shah induced to join Allies.—In the outbreak of the World War in 1914 the shah declared the neutrality of Persia, but during 1915 and 1916 fighting between the Russians and the Turks took place in the north, the Russians having Tabriz as their base and the Turks operating from Bagdad via Kermanshah. In southern Persia, the British organized a force of gendarmerie under the command of General Sir Percy Sykes. German propaganda was very successful among the Bakhtiari tribes of industrial Persia. "The Bakhtiaris' sympathies were undoubtedly German, but fortunately their interests are bound up with [those of the Allies] . . . for there is a great argument in dividends, and the Khans are shareholders in two operating companies controlled by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company. Their income from the wells alone probably exceeds all their combined revenue of State, and it is yearly increasing. . . . The Bakhtiaris, whatever their political sympathies, helped . . . [the Allies] through the early spring troubles in 1915. But the crisis in the autumn was much more serious. The Hun Jehad was spreading south. The Shah was on the point of leaving Teheran. The Bakhtiari representative at Isfahan had been won over, and German emissaries were continually with the Khans in their summer quarters at Chiga-kor, pressing them to come to a decision. . . . It seemed the result of masterly diplomacy that with no visible emblem of power the Germans were able to per-

suade the Persians that they were bound to win the war, and that they were stronger than the Russians and the British, whose legions were on the spot. But the campaign was made easy for them by the Persians hatred of Russia, and in a lesser degree of Great Britain; by the belief, among the tribesmen at least, that the Germans, if not Mahometans, were the champions of Islam; and by a lavish and reckless expenditure of gold on a scale that we had never contemplated. . . . In two days, perhaps one, Persia would have been engulfed, if the Russian troops had not reached Kazvin within a day or two's march of the capital. Their arrival just turned the scale. The young Shah was on the point of joining the hostile confederates at Ispahan when the British and Russian Ambassadors persuaded him to stay and save his country."—E. Candler, *In the Persian oil fields* (*Living Age*, June 21, 1919).—See also WORLD WAR: 1915: VII. Persia and Germany; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 3; d, 4; d, 7.

1916.—Railroad opened from Julfa to Tabriz.—In order to send troops and war material more easily from Russia into Persia, the railroad from Julfa on the Russian border to Tabriz was completed in 1916

1917-1918.—Famine.—American relief.—After the collapse of imperial Russia in 1917, Persia suffered from widespread famine in the northern area which was the Russian sphere of influence. The American committee for Armenian and Syrian relief extended their work to include Teheran and spent over \$2,000,000 in alleviating conditions. In appreciation of this the shah in 1918 subscribed \$100,000 to the fourth Liberty loan.

1918.—Military operations.—Turkish activities.—Bolshevism. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: b; b, 7.

1919 (May).—Persian demands at the peace conference.—"Persia, on account of her Russian and British spheres of influence and German propaganda with Turkish aid at Teheran, played a potential rather than an active rôle in the war, but her interests in the settlement at Paris are none the less important to the reconstruction of the Near East. Through Mr. Tagizadeh, a member of the Persian Parliament, she addressed a memorandum to the Peace Conference on May 18 covering her aspirations. This memorandum declared that the occupation of Persian territory by the troops of the Allies . . . [was] no longer necessary; that all illegal, reactionary treaties, obligations, &c., forced upon the Teheran Government in the past should be canceled. (One of the most harmful arrangements . . . [was] declared to be the Anglo-Russian agreements of 1907 and 1916.) After reciting the obligations of the world to Persia, the document . . . [asked] for a loan from the League of Nations—\$100,000,000 for debts and 'State reorganization.'"—*New York Times Current History*, July, 1919, pp. 74-75.

1919 (August).—Anglo-Persian Agreement.—English loan to Persian government.—An agreement between the governments of Great Britain and Persia was concluded on Aug. 9, 1919, including the making of a substantial loan by Great Britain. The agreement and loan were praised as a demonstration of friendship and helpfulness by the advocates of British policy, but in other quarters were sharply criticized as a device for establishing complete British control of Persian affairs. The text follows:

No. I.—Preamble: In virtue of the close ties of friendship which have existed between the two

Governments in the past, and in the conviction that it is in the essential and mutual interests of both in future that these ties should be cemented, and that the progress and prosperity of Persia should be promoted to the utmost, it is hereby agreed between the Persian Government on the one hand, and His Britannic Majesty's Minister, acting on behalf of his Government, on the other, as follows:

1. The British Government reiterate, in the most categorical manner, the undertakings which they have repeatedly given in the past to respect absolutely the independence and integrity of Persia.

2. The British Government will supply, at the cost of the Persian Government, the services of whatever expert advisers may, after consultation between the two Governments, be considered necessary for the several departments of the Persian Administration. These advisors shall be engaged on contracts and endowed with adequate powers, the nature of which shall be the matter of agreement between the Persian Government and the advisers.

3. The British Government will supply, at the cost of the Persian Government, such officers and such munitions and equipment of modern type as may be adjudged necessary by a joint commission of military experts, British and Persian, which shall assemble forthwith for the purpose of estimating the needs of Persia in respect of the formation of a uniform force which the Persian Government proposes to create for the establishment and preservation of order in the country and on its frontiers.

4. For the purpose of financing the reforms indicated in clauses 2 and 3 of this agreement, the British Government offer to provide or arrange a substantial loan for the Persian Government, for which adequate security shall be sought by the two Governments in consultation in the revenues of the customs or other sources of income at the disposal of the Persian Government. Pending the completion of negotiations for such a loan the British Government will supply on account of it such funds as may be necessary for initiating the said reforms.

5. The British Government fully recognizing the urgent need which exists for the improvement of communications in Persia, are prepared to co-operate with the Persian Government for the encouragement of Anglo-Persian enterprise in this direction, both by means of railway construction and other forms of transport; subject always to the examination of the problems by experts and to agreement between the two Governments as to the particular projects which may be most necessary, practicable and profitable.

6. The two Governments agree to the appointment forthwith of a joint Committee of experts for the examination and revision of the existing Customs Tariff with a view to its reconstruction on a basis calculated to accord with the legitimate interests of the country and to promote its prosperity. (Signed at Teheran, August 9, 1919.)

No. II.—Preamble: Contract between the British Government and the Persian Government with reference to an agreement concluded this day between the said Governments. It is agreed as follows:

Article 1. The British Government grant a loan of £2,000,000 sterling to the Persian Government, to be paid to the Persian Government as required in such instalments and at such dates as may be indicated by the Persian Government after the

British Financial Adviser shall have taken up the duties of his office at Teheran, as provided for in the aforesaid agreement.

Art. 2. The Persian Government undertakes to pay interest monthly at the rate of 7 per cent. per annum upon sums advanced in accordance with article 1 up to the 20th March, 1921, and thereafter to pay monthly such amount as will suffice to liquidate the principal sum and interest thereon at 7 per cent. per annum in twenty years.

Art. 3. All the revenues and Customs receipts assigned in virtue of the contract of the 8th May, 1911, for the repayment of the loan of £1,250,000, are assigned for the repayment of the present loan with continuity of all conditions stipulated in the said contract, and with priority over all debts other than the 1911 loan and subsequent advances made by the British Government. In case of insufficiency of the receipts indicated above the Persian Government undertakes to make good the necessary sums from other resources, and for this purpose the Persian Government hereby assigns to the service of the present loan, and of the other advances above mentioned, in priority and with continuity of conditions stipulated in the aforesaid contract, the Customs receipts of all other regions, in so far as these receipts are or shall be at its disposal.

Art. 4. The Persian Government will have the right of repayment of the present loan at any date out of the proceeds of any British loan which it may contract for. (Signed at Teheran, August 9, 1919.)

1920.—Granted free passage to Black sea. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF (1920): Part XI. Ports, waterways and railways.

1921-1922.—End of British sphere of influence.—British troops were maintained in Persia for two years after the armistice, but owing to criticism at home of the expense (\$100,000,000 in two years) "on Jan. 18 [1921] the British decided to withdraw their troops from Northern Persia; the Cossack division followed suit. The effect was to paralyse trade and fill with dread the bazaars of Teheran. The Premier, Mochir-ed-Dowieh, threatened to resign, the Shah to abdicate. Then the merchants rallied and suggested that the proposed treaty with the Soviet did not really affect the country as a whole, but only the northern portion, which, before the war, had been the Russian sphere, where now the Bolsheviks wished to establish a military base for movements to the east and southeast, but not to the south. So the Premier and the Shah decided to remain."—*New York Times Current History*, Mar., 1921, p. 512.

—On February 20, 1921, Reza Khan sometimes called the "strong man of Persia" marched on Teheran in order to protect it from Soviet attack. "To abrogate the treaty with Great Britain was the first act of the new Government installed at Teheran by the coup d'état of General Reza Khan, leader of the Persian Cossacks. . . . On April 9, Zia-ed-Din, the new Premier, entertained foreign officials at a dinner in Teheran and explained the foreign policy of his Government, as some of his guests had taken offense at the abrupt language employed in the published programme. He declared that the relations with Great Britain were now completely cordial, owing to the 'disappearance' of the Anglo-Persian agreement, which 'had bred clouds of misunderstanding.' Persia, he continued, depended on sincerely good relations with Russia and England. In addition she turned to America, who had ever opposed the Anglo-Persian pact, for agricultural and to France for legal advisers, and she also contemplated employ-

ing Belgians and Swedes."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1921, pp. 526-527.—At the time when the Anglo-Persian agreement was concluded (1907), "Persia was being defended and financed by Great Britain. By the autumn of 1920 the situation had changed in every respect. The Meshed force had gone, as had that in the Caucasus. The Caspian flotilla was in the hands of the Bolsheviks. The Kazvin force was to depart in the spring, and, owing to the restraining orders under which its commander acted, had suffered seriously in prestige, and had been compelled to fall back before the Bolsheviks . . . and to evacuate Ghilan. Lastly, the subsidies to Government and individuals alike had ceased. The consequence was that Persia found herself abandoned to her own resources, and left to the tender mercies of the Bolsheviks, deprived alike of military and financial aid. When there was nothing to be hoped for from the British Government, and the ratification of the Agreement could only result in incurring the resentment of the Moscow Government, it would have been pure folly to attempt to comply with Lord Curzon's demands for ratification. In such circumstances Lord Curzon's statements that he was the best friend that Persia possessed only resulted in provoking an outburst of fury, derision, and contempt throughout the country, where he is considered to be Persia's greatest enemy and would-be oppressor. Why, then, did he press so strongly for ratification? There would appear to be only two explanations: either he utterly failed to understand the situation, or the British Government desired to be free of the Agreement, while throwing the onus of repudiation upon Persia."—J. M. Balfour, *Recent happenings in Persia*, p. 133.—During the whole of the summer of 1922 a wave of anti-British feeling swept through the country terminating in the signing of a treaty with Soviet Russia in which Persia undertook, in the event of a war between Persia and England, to allow forces to attack Irak (Mesopotamia) through Persia.

1922.—Represented at Genoa congress of oriental peoples. See GENOA CONGRESS OF ORIENTAL PEOPLES.

See also ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Persia; ETHICS: Persia; PHILOLOGY: 13; 14; 23; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Asia: Persia and India; MYTHOLOGY: Arabian and Persian; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Near East; PAINTING: Asiatic; TEMPLES: Stage of culture, etc.; MUSIC: Ancient: B. C. 2000-A. D. 1200; SCULPTURE: Western Asia.

ALSO IN: V. Chirol, *Middle Eastern question*.—W. P. Cresson, *Persia*.—G. N. Curzon, *Persia and the Persian question*.—S. Hedin, *Overland to India*.—A. V. W. Jackson, *Persia, past and present*.—A. Moore, *Orient express*.—G. Rawlinson, *History of ancient Persia*.—E. C. Sykes, *Persia and its people*.—P. M. Sykes, *Ten thousand miles in Persia*.—C. J. Wills, *Land of lion and sun*.

PERSIA, Constitution of (1906).—A Constitution for Persia was signed by the shah, Muzafer-ed-Deen, December 30, 1906, of which the following is, in part, the text:

In the name of God the all Merciful! Whereas by our Firman of the 5th August, 1906, we commanded the constitution of a National Assembly [Majlis] for the progress and welfare of the State and nation, the strengthening of the foundations of the kingdom, and the carrying out of the laws of Islam; and whereas, in accordance with the clause by which it is provided that, as each individual member of the State has a right

to take part in the superintendence and decision of public affairs, we therefore have permitted the election and appointment of Deputies on behalf of the nation; and whereas the National Assembly has been opened through our gracious benevolence, we have decreed the following Articles of constitutional Regulations for the National Assembly, including the duties and business of the Assembly and its limitations and relations toward Government Departments:

Institution of the assembly

[Articles 1-14 declare the National Assembly to be "composed of members elected at Tehran and in the provinces"; their place of meeting to be at Teheran; their number 160, but may if necessary be increased to 200; their term of service two years; they are "representative of the whole Persian nation", the Tehran deputies to have "the option of instituting the Assembly and starting discussion and debates," and "their decisions by majority during the absence of the provincial deputies will be valid and are to be carried out." The Assembly itself is given the right to fix the time of its recess and its sitting; its members cannot be proceeded against by any person; its proceedings must be public and open to newspaper reporting, but false reporting shall be punished.]

Duties of the assembly, its limitations and rights

Art. 15. The National Assembly has the right to discuss truthfully and sincerely all matters it considers to be desirable in the interests of the State and nation to investigate; and, subject to the approval of a majority, to submit them, in the enjoyment of the utmost safety and confidence, with the approval of the Senate, to His Imperial Majesty the Shah, through the first person of the Government, for His Majesty's signature, and to be then put into execution.

Art. 16. In general, all laws necessary for the strengthening of the Government and kingdom, and the regulation of State affairs, and for the Constitution of Ministries, must receive the sanction of the National Assembly.

Art. 17. The necessary Bills for making new laws, or for the alteration, amplification, or cancellation of existing laws, will, when desirable, be prepared by the National Assembly to be submitted to His Imperial Majesty the Shah for signature with the approval of the Senate, and to be then put into execution.

Art. 18. The regulation of financial matters, the modification of the Budget, the alteration of the arrangement of taxation, the refusal or acceptance of impositions, as well as the inspections which will be undertaken by the Government, will be done with the approval of the Assembly.

Art. 19. The Assembly will have the right, for the purpose of reforming financial matters and facilitating the relations of the Governors and the apportioning of the provinces of Persia, and the reappointment of Governors, after the Senate has given its approval, to demand from the Government authorities that the decision arrived at should be carried out.

Art. 20. The Budget of each Ministry must be finished for the succeeding year in the last half of each year, and must be ready fifteen days before the 20th March.

Art. 21. Should it be necessary with regard to the constitutional laws of the Ministries to make a new law, or to alter or cancel existing laws, it

will be done with the consent of the National Assembly, whether its necessity be first pointed out by the Assembly or by the responsible Minister.

Art. 22. Whenever a part of the revenue or property of the Government or State is to be sold, or a change of frontier or border becomes necessary, it will be done with the approval of the National Assembly.

Art. 23. Without the approval of the National Assembly no concession whatever for the formation of Companies or Associations shall be granted by the Government.

Art. 24. Treaties, Conventions, the granting of concessions, monopolies, either commercial, industrial, or agricultural, whether the other party be a native or a foreigner, can only be done with the approval of the National Assembly. Treaties which it may be in the interests of the Government or nation to keep secret are excepted.

Art. 25. All Government loans of any nature whatsoever, whether internal or foreign, will be made with the knowledge and approval of the National Assembly.

Art. 26. The construction of railways or roads, whether the cost be defrayed by the Government, by Associations or Companies, whether native or foreign, can only be undertaken with the approval of the National Assembly.

Art. 27. Should the Assembly find in any place a fault in the laws or an irregularity in their fulfilment, it will draw the attention of the responsible Minister to the same, and he will have to give the necessary explanations.

Art. 28. Should a Minister, in contravention of one of the laws which have received the Imperial sanction, by misrepresentations obtain the issue of a written or verbal order from His Imperial Majesty the Shah, and excuse himself thereby for his delay and negligence, he will by law be responsible to His Imperial Majesty the Shah.

Art. 29. Whichever Minister who in a matter or matters should not be able to answer for his actions in accordance with the laws approved by His Imperial Majesty, and if it should be apparent that he has broken the law and transgressed the stipulated limitations, the Assembly will petition His Imperial Majesty for his dismissal, and when his fault has been determined by the Courts of Justice he will not again be allowed to serve the Government.

Art. 30. The National Assembly has the right whenever it considers it desirable to make petitions direct to His Imperial Majesty by the means of a body composed of the President and six Members elected by the six classes. The time for the audience must be arranged for through the Minister of Court.

Art. 31. The Ministers have the right to be present at the sittings of the National Assembly, and to sit in the place set apart for them, and to hear the debates of the Assembly; and should they think it necessary, they may ask the President for permission to speak and give the necessary explanations for the discussion and investigation of affairs.

Art. 32. Any individual member of the public may make a statement of his case, or complaints or criticisms, to the office of the Assembly, and, if the matter concerns the Assembly itself, a satisfying answer will be given to him; but should the matter concern one of the Ministries, it will be sent to that Ministry for investigation, and in order that a satisfying answer be given.

Art. 33. New laws which are necessary will be prepared at the responsible Ministries, and will

be given to the National Assembly by the responsible Minister or by the Sadr Azam, and after receiving the approval of the Assembly will receive His Imperial Majesty's sign-manual and be put into execution.

Art. 34. The President of the Assembly can, if necessary, of his own initiative or by the desire of ten Members of the Assembly or of a Minister, form a Secret Committee, without the presence of newspaper reporters or spectators, composed of a number of persons chosen from among the Members of the Assembly, at which the other Members of the Assembly will not have the right to attend. The result of the deliberations of the Secret Committee can, however, only be put into execution when the Secret Committee in the presence of three-quarters of the persons elected accept the point at issue by a majority of votes, and if the matter be not passed by the Secret Committee, it will not be stated in the Assembly and will remain secret.

Art. 35. Should the Secret Committee be instituted by the President of the Assembly, he has the right to inform the public of any part of it he thinks fit; but if the Secret Committee is instituted by a Minister, the publication of the debate can only be subject to that Minister's permission.

[Articles 36-42 are regulative of the transaction of business between the Assembly and the Ministries of the Government in matters of debate, inquiry, action on bills, etc.]

Institution of the Senate

Art. 43. Another Assembly, called the Senate, will be constituted, composed of sixty Members, whose sittings will coincide, after its constitution, with those of the National Assembly.

Art. 44. The Regulations of the Senate must receive the approval of the National Assembly.

Art. 45. The Members of the Assembly will be chosen from among the enlightened, intelligent, orthodox, and respectable persons of the State, thirty persons on behalf of His Imperial Majesty, of whom fifteen from among the inhabitants of Tehran and fifteen from the inhabitants of the provinces, and thirty persons on behalf of the nation, of whom fifteen persons elected by the people of Tehran and fifteen persons elected by the people of the provinces.

Art. 46. After the constitution of the Senate all affairs must receive the approval of both Assemblies. If those affairs are initiated by the Senate or by the body of Ministers, they must first be determined in the Senate and passed by a majority, and then be sent to the National Assembly for approval; but affairs initiated in the National Assembly will, on the contrary, pass from that Assembly to the Senate, with the exception of financial matters, which will be the prerogative of the National Assembly, and the Senate will be informed of the arrangements made by the Assembly regarding these affairs in order that the Senate should make its observations on the same to the National Assembly, which is, however, at liberty, after the necessary investigations, either to accept or to refuse the proposals of the Senate.

Art. 47. So long as the Senate is not constituted affairs will require only the approval of the National Assembly and the sign-manual of His Imperial Majesty to be put into execution.

[Article 48 provides for the constituting of a "third assembly," composed of an equal number of members from the National Assembly and the Senate, to deal with cases in which those two

bodies are in disagreement, and for the ultimate dissolution of the National Assembly, preparatory to the election of a new one, in case no settlement of the disagreement is reached.

Article 49 allows the new Teheran deputies then elected to begin their labors, outside of the points at issue, as soon as they are ready.]

The conclusion of the Constitution is as follows:

Art. 50. During each term of election—that is to say, during two years—a general election will not be called more than once.

Art. 51. It is decreed that the Sovereign who succeeds us should protect these limitations and Articles, which aim at the strengthening of the State and of the foundations of the kingdom, and the protection of justice and contentment of the nation, which we have decreed and put into execution, and which they must look upon as their duty to fulfil.

In the month of Zilkade the Unclean, 1324.

O God the Almighty!

The Constitutional Laws of the National Assembly and the Senate, containing fifty-one Articles, are correct.

14th of the month of Zilkade, 1324 (30th December, 1906).

In the handwriting of Muzaffer-ed-Deen Shah:

It is correct.

(Sealed) Valiahd (Mohammed Ali Shah).

(Sealed) Mushir-ed-Dowleh (the Grand Vizier).

Constitutional law, as passed by the National Assembly and signed by the shah on October 8, 1907.—One hundred and seven articles "to complete the fundamental laws of the Constitution of Persia" were "added to the constitutional law" by the signature of the shah on December 30th, 1906. The first two are as follows:

Article 1. The official religion of Persia is the branch of the Twelve Imams of the Shia Sect of Islam. The Sovereign of Persia must be of, and contribute to the spread of, this religion.

Art. 2. The National Assembly has been founded by the help of the Twelfth Imam, the bounty of His Islamic Majesty, the watchfulness of the Mujtehedes and the common people. The laws passed by it must never to all ages be contrary to the sacred precepts of Islam, and the laws laid down by the Prophet. It is obvious that the decision as to whether the laws passed by the Assembly are in opposition to the precepts of Islam rests with the Ulama. It is therefore officially decreed that for all ages a Committee composed of five persons, who shall be Mujtehedes and religious doctors, and who also must be acquainted with the requirements of the times, shall be elected in the following manner: The Ulama and doctors of Islam who are recognized by the Shias as the centre of imitation shall make known to the National Assembly the names of twenty of the Ulama possessing the above-mentioned qualities. The National Assembly shall, by agreement on casting of lots, elect five of them or more, according to the requirements of the age, and admit them as members. This Committee shall discuss and thoroughly investigate the Bills brought in by the National Assembly, and reject every one of these Bills which is contrary to the sacred precepts of Islam, in order that it may not become law. The decision of this Committee is final. This Article will not be liable to change until the advent of the Twelfth Imam.

[Articles 3-7 relate to boundaries of the King-

dom, its capital, its flag, protection of the lives and property of foreigners, and the integrity of the Constitution.

Articles 8-25 are in the nature of a "bill of rights," affirming equality of rights to all; immunity from arbitrary arrest, punishment, exile or sequestration of property; freedom of "the study of teaching of arts, letters and sciences" "except in so far as they are forbidden by the Sheri"; freedom of publication for all "except heretical works"; freedom of "societies and associations which do not provoke religious or civil strife"; inviolability of postal and telegraphic communications, except under authority of law. All primary and secondary schools are placed under the direction and surveillance of the Ministry of Education.

Articles 26-29 define, as follows:]

Powers of the realm

Art. 26. The powers of the realm spring from the people. The Constitutional Law defines the method of using those powers.

Art. 27. The powers of the realm are divided into three parts:—

Firstly, legislative power, whose province it is to make and amend laws. This power emanates from His Imperial Majesty the Shah, the National Assembly, and the Senate. Each one of these three sources possesses the right of originating laws; but their passing is conditional to their not being contrary to the laws of the Sheri, and to the approval of the two Assemblies, and to their receiving the Imperial signature. But the making and approval of laws relating to the revenue and expenditure of the realm belong to the National Assembly alone. The interpretation and commentary of laws is the peculiar duty of the National Assembly.

Secondly, the judicial power, which consists in the distinguishing of rights. This power belongs to the Sheri Tribunals in matters appertaining to the Sheri, and to the Courts of Justice in matters appertaining to the civil law ("urf").

Thirdly, the executive power, which rests with the Sovereign. That is to say, the Laws and Decrees will be executed by the Ministers and Government officials in the name of His Imperial Majesty in the manner defined by law.

Art. 28. The three above-mentioned powers shall always be differentiated and separated from one another.

Art. 29. The particular revenues of each province, department, and commune shall be regulated by the Provincial and Departmental Assemblies in accordance with their own particular laws.

[Articles 30-34 define the status of the members of the National Assembly.]

Rights and powers of the crown

[Articles 35-57 set forth the rights and powers of the Crown. The sovereignty of Persia is declared to be "a trust which, by the grace of God, has been conferred on the person of the Sovereign by the people." The succession is vested in Muhammed Ali Shah Kajar and his descendants; the Crown Prince to be "the eldest son of the Sovereign whose mother is a Persian and a princess." Provision is made for the election by a joint committee of the Senate and the National Assembly on the succession of a minor, who cannot govern personally till his age is eighteen. The powers of the sovereign are thus defined:]

Art. 43. The Sovereign cannot, without the

approval and sanction of the National Assembly and the Senate, interfere in the affairs of another country.

Art. 44. The Sovereign is absolved from all responsibility. The Ministers of State are responsible in all matters.

Art. 45. All the Decrees and Rescripts of the Sovereign shall only be put into execution when they have been signed by the responsible Minister, who is responsible for the accuracy of the contents of that Firman or Rescript.

Art. 46. The dismissal and appointment of Ministers are by order of the Sovereign.

Art. 47. The conferring of commissions in the army and orders and honorary distinctions, with due observance of law, is vested in the person of the Sovereign.

Art. 48. The Sovereign has the right, with the approval of the responsible Minister, to choose the important officials of the Government Departments, either at home or abroad, except in cases excepted by law. But the appointment of the other officials does not concern the Sovereign, except in cases defined by law.

Art. 49. The issuing of Firmans for the execution of laws is one of the rights of the Sovereign, but he may not delay or suspend the execution of those laws.

Art. 50. The supreme command of the military and naval forces is vested in the person of the Sovereign.

Art. 51. The declaration of war and the conclusion of peace rest with the Sovereign.

Art. 52. Treaties which, in accordance with Article 24 of the Constitutional Law of the 14th Zilaadeh, 1325 (30th December, 1906), must be kept secret, must, on the removal of this necessity, and provided that the interests and security of the country demand it, be communicated by the Sovereign to the National Assembly and the Senate, with the necessary explanations.

Art. 53. The secret clauses of any Treaty cannot annul the public clauses of that Treaty.

Art. 54. The Sovereign can summon the National Assembly and the Senate to an extraordinary Session.

Art. 55. Coins shall be struck, according to law, in the name of the Sovereign.

Art. 56. The expenses of the Imperial household must be defined by law.

Art. 57. The powers and prerogatives of the Sovereign are only such as have been defined by the existing constitutional laws.

[Articles 58-70 relate to the Ministers, who must be Mussulmans and native Persian subjects, princes of the first rank not eligible. They are severally and jointly responsible to both Assemblies. Commands of the sovereign cannot divest them of responsibility, which is to be defined by law. The Assembly or the Senate can accuse and prosecute them for offenses before the High Court of Appeal.]

Judicial tribunals

[Judicial tribunals of the kingdom are the subject of Articles 71-89. "The Supreme Court of Justice and the subsidiary Courts" are declared to be "the official centres to which all suits must be referred, and judgment in matters appertaining to the Sheri rests with the fully qualified Mujte-heds." Suits relating to political rights concern the Courts of Justice, excepting those which are excepted by law. No Court of Law can be instituted except by law. One Court of Appeal for the whole Kingdom is to be instituted at the Capital. The sittings of all tribunals shall be

public, except in cases when the tribunal judges that this would be prejudicial to order or decency. "The Presidents and the members of the Courts of Justice will be chosen in the manner decreed by the law of the Ministry of Justice, and will be appointed by virtue of a royal Firman." No judge may be suspended, temporarily, or permanently, without a trial or proof of offence. Military tribunals will be instituted according to a special law.]

Miscellaneous

[Provincial Assemblies of elected representatives are provided for in Articles 90-93.]

Articles 94-103 have relation to finances. They declare that no taxes may be levied or exemptions from them allowed except by law; that no favor to individuals shall be shown in taxation; that nothing shall, on any pretext, be demanded from the people, otherwise than by law; and provision is made for the creation of a State Accounts Department, to be chosen by the National Assembly.

The last four articles relate to the army, which is required to be in all particulars under regulation of law. "The army vote must pass the National Assembly every year."]

PERSIA, Royal road of. See ROYAL ROAD OF ANCIENT PERSIA.

PERSIAN GULF: Great Britain's interest.—Russian and British conflicts.—Anglo-Russian Agreement of 1907.—Berlin to Bagdad railway.—Relation to World War.—Because of its position as a maritime highway to India and the East, the Persian gulf has been the center of diplomatic intrigue since the beginning of the twentieth century. "Englishmen, looking for trade, visited . . . [the gulf] in the reign of Elizabeth. In its early days the East India Company established a party at Bunder Abbas, and fought stoutly with Dutch and Portuguese rivals for the better part of two centuries. An Indian navy first began the survey of the Gulf, and looked to its lighting. For fifty years . . . [the British] hunted down the pirates and cleared out their strongholds on the Pirate Coast; . . . protected Persia against those who would have deprived her of a seaboard; . . . policed the waters; . . . suppressed slavery and gun-running; . . . wrestled with the plague, and introduced the rudiments of sanitation in the marshy estuaries."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war*, v. 5, p. 108.—Between 1900 and 1907 the chief rival of Great Britain in Persia and hence in the gulf, was Russia, and conflicts arose on this subject. These conflicts ended in the Anglo-Russian Agreement whereby Russia recognized Great Britain's special interest in the gulf. (See ANGLO-RUSSIAN AGREEMENT OF 1907.)—"The delimitation of the zones was sharply attacked by Lord Curzon, Earl Percy, and other Imperialist critics as unduly favourable to Russia. The Government replied that the treaty must be judged as a whole, that the safety of India was fully secured, and that the removal of dangerous differences was well worth the price that it had cost."—G. P. Gooch and J. H. B. Masterman, *Century of British foreign policy*, p. 75.—Meanwhile Germany "saw a chance of finding [in Mesopotamia] a field for exploitation which would make it for Germany what Egypt was to Britain and Morocco to France. German professors told excited audiences that a thousand years ago the land had supported six million people, and that what had once been might be again. If Germany won a foothold on the Gulf, not only would she have the exploiting of Mesopotamia, but she would

have weakened the British hold upon India. . . . Her trump card was the Bagdad railway. In 1899 a German company, backed by the Deutsche Bank, obtained a concession from the Porte to build a railway from Konieh, then the terminus of the little Anatolian railway, to Bagdad and Basra on the Persian Gulf. The concession was made valuable by a Turkish guarantee of the interest on the cost of construction at the rate of £700 per kilometre per annum. Britain awoke somewhat late in the day to the political purport of the new railway, and a diplomatic conflict began which was still in progress at the outbreak of war."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war*, v. 5, pp. 110-111.

1914.—British control. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: i.

PERSIAN LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY: 13; 14; 23.

PERSIAN LITERATURE: Early Persian poets of note: Firdausi, Sadi, Hafiz, and Omar Khayyam.—"A distinguished Oriental scholar of Columbia University says, 'The title of Persian literature to a place among the great literatures of the world is a recognized one, and it is in this domain, perhaps, that Persia makes the greatest claim upon our interest. In age the *Avesta* and the old Persian inscriptions carry us back at least to the sixth century before Christ, and possibly earlier; the Pehlevi literature belongs to the Sassanian period from the third to the sixth century after Christ; and the modern Persian began within the last thousand years. It sprang up a century or two after the Arab conquest as a renaissance movement with the revival of the old national feeling; and this period is certainly the most interesting of all. Some knowledge of Firdausi, Sadi, and Hafiz belongs to true culture, and Omar Khayyam has become an English classic through Fitzgerald's version. The less-known names of the romantic poets Nizami, the dervish Jalal Ad Din Rumi, and the mystic Jami (died in 1492), the last classic poet of Persia, should be mentioned as deserving to be known to lovers of literature. . . . The names of Firdausi, Omar Khayyam, Sadi and Hafiz are world renowned. . . . Firdausi wrote the *Shah-nama*, or the 'Story of the Kings,' in which he collected legends of Persian monarchs and heroes from the earliest ages—as early as 3485 B. C. . . . He was born in the Tenth century, in Tus, a town of northeast Persia, in the province of Khorasan. He married at the age of twenty-eight and lived ninety-two years. The story of *Shah-nama* is briefly this: The last of the Sassanian kings, Yezdijard, collected all the chronicles and traditions connected with Persia and her sovereigns, and had them put together to form the book known as *Syoral Mulk* or the *Bostanama*. In the tenth century a Persian history was ordered to be prepared by the Sassanian king Monsur. Almori wrote it in prose while Dakiki began the same in verse but was assassinated by a slave after he had written only 2000 verses. So in later years the work was entrusted to the poet Unsori at an old age. Poet Unsori became feeble and they turned the work over to Firdausi to do the whole in verse. He wrote the work in such a style that he is called the Homer of the East. . . . There is probably no Persian poet so well known today as Omar Khayyam. He is read from east to west, translated in almost every language. . . . Eight centuries ago Omar delighted in the rose and nightingale, and his thoughts on life and death are as fresh today as they were in the time of Nizam-ul-Mulk. His was a great soul seeking for a knowledge of God

and eternity, wondering of God and his mighty handiworks. He lived a beautiful and useful life, for the pleasures of this world he cared naught. His teaching for usage of grape juice was to purify the surroundings of Naishapur. The clay waters of his home town were not healthy, fevers were numerous in his time, so as a physician, Omar commended the people to drink grape juice. Omar was not a drunkard, . . . and it must be admitted by those who have made a study of the *Rubaiyat* that . . . [he] appeals [more] strongly for spiritual things . . . than he does for the material things. . . . The *Gulistan* is a collection of stories. It teaches lessons of morality, policy and wisdom. It is a work next to the *Koran*, and is a moral guide to the Persian youth. [If one were to listen to a conversation in Persian, even if he knew nothing of the language, it would not be long before he could detect] the name of Sadi. 'Sadi guft,' or 'Sadi says,' is used very frequently. . . . At the finishing of the famous 'Rose Garden' the pure soul of Sadi, like a phoenix, spread its wings and fled from its earthly prison. . . . Hafiz was born during the golden age of Persian poetry in his beloved city of Shiraz in the first part of the fourteenth century and died according to the inscription on his tomb in 1388. Hafiz was his poetical name and signified that he knew by heart the *Koran*, his real name being Shamsud-Din-Mohammed, which means Son of Faith. There is very little accurate knowledge of his early life. At one time he became a teacher of the *Koran* in a college in Bagdad, and here the poet read from his own verses, the fame of which drew great numbers of pupils to him. . . . Hafiz left no complete volume of his works like Shakespeare. They were collected after his death. They are 573 ghazels or odes, 42 aphorisms, 79 quatrains and several kasidas and other forms. The principal themes of his odes are love, wine and roses, but these themes all have a secondary interpretation and a moral significance. . . . He was a 'Persian of the Persians.'—Y. B. Mirza, *Iran and the Iranians*, pp. 194-196, 206, 210, 215-216.—"If we confine our attention to Persian literature in the narrower sense of the expression, meaning only what is written in the Persian language, the field which we survey is undoubtedly less rich and varied than if we include the Arabic literature produced by Persians. Yet even then it is a literature of which any nation might be proud, especially in the domain of poetry, more particularly mystical poetry. It is almost impossible to estimate the comparative values of different literatures, since, apart from personal bias, few people are really conversant with more than two or three literatures; but few critics would deny that in any equitable list of the really great poets of the world in all ages, Persia would certainly be represented by two or three names at least. Indeed it is rather a case of *embarras de richesses*; if there had been far fewer poets and each one had written far less, they would have been more diligently read and more highly appreciated. Thus the *Mystical Mathnawi* of Jalalu'd-Din Rumi contains some 20,000 verses; the *Shahnama*, or 'Epic of the Kings' of Firdawsi, 60,000; and the poetical works of 'Attar at least 70,000. Naturally the same level of excellence is not always maintained, and it becomes almost impossible for the most diligent reader to be sure that he has discovered the finest passages in one of these prolific writers, let alone the endless procession of others who extend through the last thousand years. For it is certainly an error to imagine, as some pretend, that no first-class poetry has been produced in Persia since the time of

Jami, i. e. since about A.D. 1500. Some at least of the poets of our own time are of a very high order, and the political Revolution of 1906 brought into being a new school of poets and a new style of poetry possessed of real merit and originality. . . . A very florid and to us distasteful prose prevailed under Tamerlane and his successors, with whom it passed into India and there continued. From that debased style too many Europeans . . . have formed their ideas of Persian prose literature, but a far finer and simpler style prevailed in Persia from the eleventh to the fourteenth century and again from the sixteenth century down to the present day. In particular there are some excellent historical, biographical, and ethical works, books of travels and treatises on politics, while the last few years have seen the development of an admirable journalistic style."—E. G. Browne, *Persian constitutional movement*, pp. 8-9.—"It is impossible to fix a definite date at which Modern Persian literature may be said to have begun. Probably Persian converts to Islam began to write their language in the Arabic character very soon after the Arab Conquest—that is to say, some time in the eighth century of our era. The first attempts of this sort were probably mere memoranda and notes, followed, perhaps, by small manuals of instruction in the doctrines of Islam. Fragmentary utterances in Persian, and even brief narratives, are recorded here and there in the pages of early Arabic writers, and these at least serve to show us that the Persian of late Sassanian and early Muhammadan times was essentially the same as that with which we meet in the earliest monuments of Modern Persian literature."—E. G. Browne, *Literary history of Persia*, p. 11.

PERSIAN SIBYL. See SIBYLS.

PERSIUS (Aulus Persius Flaccus) (34-62 A.D.), Roman poet and satirist. See LATIN LITERATURE: A.D. 14-117.

PERTH, city of Scotland, capital of the county of the same name, on the Tay river.

1559.—Reformation riot. See SCOTLAND: 1558-1560.

1715.—Headquarters of Jacobite rebellion. See SCOTLAND: 1715.

PERTH, Five articles of. See SCOTLAND: 1618.

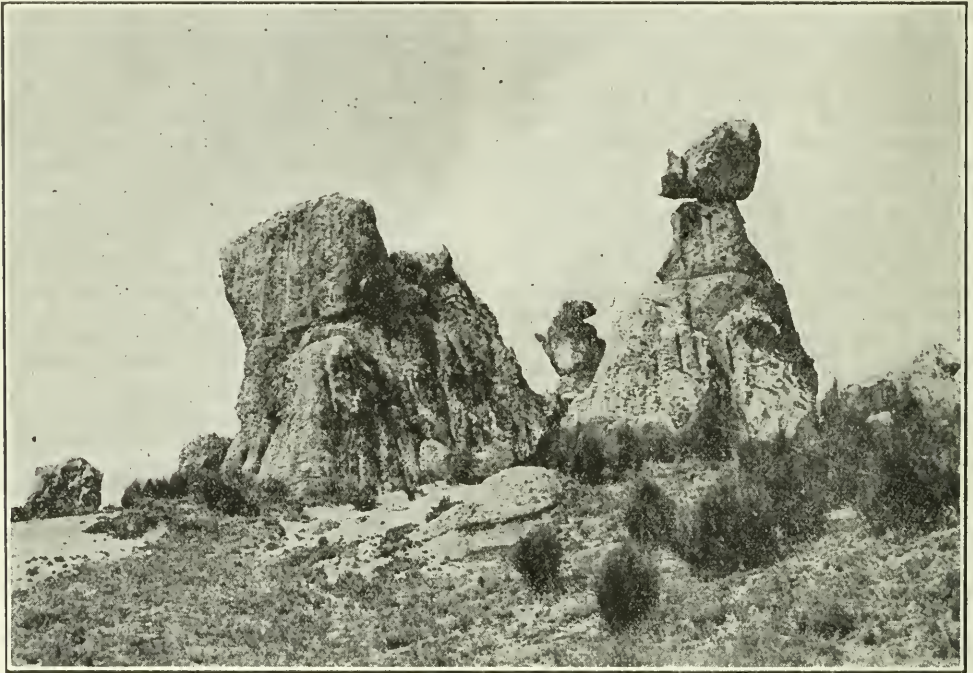
PERTHES, name of three villages of France in the Aisne region, scenes of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: i, 8, iii; i, 9.

PERTINAX, Publius Helvius (126-193), emperor of Rome, 193. See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

PERU: Geographical description.—**Area.**—**Population.**—**Climate.**—**Resources.**—"The Republic of Peru is situated on the western side of the continent of South America. [It covers an area of 722,461 square miles.] To the north lie Ecuador and Colombia, to the east Brazil and Bolivia, to the south Chile; on the west, her seaboard is washed by the Pacific Ocean. [See LATIN AMERICA: Map.] . . . Physically the country falls naturally into three zones, of which the central or mountainous zone may be further subdivided into three 'belts,' differing in height and character. (1) The coast zone, that farthest to the west, is a practically rainless strip extending from the extreme north to the extreme south of Peru, and scarcely exceeding 60 miles in width at any point; (2) the zone of the sierras, or Andine region, follows the north-west to south-east line of the Andes crests throughout the country, and its uplands broaden out, especially in the south, to form the great tableland on which Lake Titicaca is situated, the mean height being from 11,000 to 12,000

feet above sea-level; (3) beyond the region of the sierras lies the montaña zone or river and forest zone. Roughly speaking, the coastal zone occupies about a tenth of the republic, the sierras a fourth part, and the montaña occupies the remaining thirteen-twentieths of the whole—though it is this zone which is in question through boundary disputes.”—E. C. Vivian, *Peru*, pp. 1-3.—“This vast territory, . . . much of which is as yet unsettled and almost unknown, is divided into twenty three departments, two maritime provinces, and the constitutional province of Callao. These, in turn, are subdivided into 113 provinces and 893 districts. . . . [The total population of Peru in 1922 was 4,620,200.] The climate of Peru varies as much as do that country’s geographical characteristics, and to speak about the Peruvian climate as a whole would involve the use of more

[See also LATIN AMERICA: Agriculture.] Very few minerals are not found in Peru. Peruvian miners are the Indians of the mountains, while the capital and the managerial talent for the development of the mines are generally furnished by foreigners. A few factories of cotton and woolen goods have been established at Arequipa and Lima. Other manufactures are beverages, cigars, cigarettes, chocolate, and ‘Panama hats.’ Official statistics show that in 1914 Peru exported animal products which amounted to 750,518 libras. The three most important items in that category were the wool of sheep, alpaca wool, and various kinds of hides. In 1914 Peru exported vegetable products which amounted to 4,894,699 libras, the most valuable items being sugar, cotton, rubber, rice, cacao, and straw hats. In that year Peru exported mineral products, largely copper and silver, which



MONOLITHS FORMING A NATURAL GATEWAY INTO THE ROCK FOREST OF PERU

comprehensive terms than are found even in a meteorological vocabulary. Nothing can be more tropical than the climate of the miasmatic swamps of the Montaña region; nothing more arctic in its severity than the cold of the snow-clad peaks of the Andes; nothing more arid than the desolate plains of the Puna, or the rainless quebradas of the lower Cordilleras. . . . Although the sun has often great power during the middle hours of the day in the Peruvian coastal zone, the nights and early mornings are always cool, and often, in the winter, decidedly chilly. This is due, in great measure, to the cold Antarctic current, . . . [known as Humboldt’s current], which flows up the whole length of the Peruvian coast.”—*West Coast Leader, Peruvian Year Book*, 1921, pp. 21-22.—“The chief occupation in Peru is agriculture. Scattered through the coastal region are numerous plantations of cotton and sugar cane. Cereals and potatoes are raised upon the Andean plateau. Cacao, coffee, and crude rubber are the chief products of the wooded eastern slopes of the Andes,

amounted to 3,073,865 libras. The unit of monetary value is the libra, a beautiful gold coin—legally the equivalent of ten soles—which has served alike as the basis of internal trade and international exchange.”—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations*, p. 353.

Origin of name.—“There was a chief in the territory to the south of the Gulf of San Miguel, on the Pacific coast, named Biru, and this country was visited by Gaspar de Morales and Francisco Pizarro in 1515. For the next ten years Biru was the most southern land known to the Spaniards; and the consequence was that the unknown regions farther south, including the rumored empire abounding in gold, came to be designated as Biru, or Peru. It was thus that the land of the Yncas got the name of Peru from the Spaniards, some years before it was actually discovered.”—C. R. Markham, *Narrative and critical history of America*, v. 2, ch. 8.

Also in: A. Helps, *Spanish conquest in America*, bk. 6, ch. 2.

Paternal despotism of the Incas.—“The bulk of the population [of Peru] is composed of the aboriginal Indians, the natives who had been there from time immemorial when America was discovered. The central tribe of these Indians was that of the Yncas, inhabiting the region in the Sierra . . . [known] as the Cuzco section. Such a country was well adapted for the cradle of an imperial tribe. . . . The Ynca race was originally divided into six tribes, whose lands are indicated by the rivers which formed their limits. Of these tribes the Yncas themselves had their original seat between the rivers Apurimac and Paucartampu, with the lovely valley of the Vilcamayu bisecting it. The Canas dwelt in the upper part of that valley up to the Vilcañota Pass, and on the mountains on either side. The Quichuas were in the valleys round the head waters of the Apurimac and Abancay. The Chancas extended from the neighbourhood of Ayacucho (Guamanga) to the Apurimac. The Huancas occupied the valley of the Xauxa up to the saddle of the Cerro Pasco, and the Rucanas were in the mountainous region between the central and western cordilleras. These six tribes eventually formed the conquering Ynca race. Their language was introduced into every conquered province, and was carefully taught to the people, so that the Spaniards correctly called it the ‘Lengua General’ of Peru. This language was called Quichua, after the tribe inhabiting the upper part of the valleys of the Pachachaca and Apurimac. Their territory consisted chiefly of uplands covered with long grass, and the name has been derived from the abundance of straw in this region. . . . The name was given to the language by Friar San Tomas in his grammar published in 1560, who perhaps first collected words among the Quichuas and so gave it their name, which was adopted by all subsequent grammarians. But the proper name would have been the Ynca language. The aboriginal people in the basin of Lake Titicaca were called Collas, and they spoke a language which is closely allied to the Quichua. . . . The Collas were conquered by the Yncas in very remote times, and their language, now incorrectly called Aymara, received many Quichua additions; for it originally contained few words to express abstract ideas, and none for many things which are indispensable in the first beginnings of civilized life. One branch of the Collas (now called Aymaras) was a savage tribe inhabiting the shores and islands of Lake Titicaca, called Urus. . . . The Ynca and Colla (Aymara) tribes eventually combined to form the great armies which spread the rule of Ynca sovereigns over a much larger extent of country. . . . In the happy days of the Yncas they cultivated many of the arts, and had some practical knowledge of astronomy. They had domesticated all the animals in their country capable of domestication, understood mining and the working of metals, excelled as masons, weavers, dyers, and potters, and were good farmers. They brought the science of administration to a high pitch of perfection, and composed imaginative songs and dramas of considerable merit. . . . The coast of Peru was inhabited by a people entirely different from the Indians of the Sierra. There are some slight indications of the aborigines having been a diminutive race of fishermen who were driven out by the more civilized people, called Yncas. . . . The Yncas conquered the coast valleys about a century before the discovery of America, and the Spaniards completed the destruction of the Ynca people.”—C. R. Markham, *Peru*, ch. 3.—“In the minuter mechanical arts, both [the Aztecs of Mexico and

the Incas of Peru] showed considerable skill; but in the construction of important public works, of roads, aqueducts, canals, and in agriculture in all its details, the Peruvians were much superior. Strange that they should have fallen so far below their rivals in their efforts after a higher intellectual culture, in astronomical science, more especially, and in the art of communicating thought by visible symbols. . . . We shall look in vain in the history of the East for a parallel to the absolute control exercised by the Incas over their subjects. . . . It was a theocracy more potent in its operation than that of the Jews; for, though the sanction of the law might be as great among the latter, the law was expounded by a human lawgiver, the servant and representative of Divinity. But the Inca was both the lawgiver and the law. He was not merely the representative of Divinity, or, like the Pope, its vicegerent, but he was Divinity itself. The violation of his ordinance was sacrilege. Never was there a scheme of government enforced by such terrible sanctions, or which bore so oppressively on the subjects of it. For it reached not only to the visible acts, but to the private conduct, the words, the very thoughts of its vassals. . . . Under this extraordinary polity, a people advanced in many of the social refinements, well skilled in manufactures and agriculture, were unacquainted . . . with money. They had nothing that deserved to be called property. They could follow no craft, could engage in no labor, no amusement, but such as was specially provided by law. They could not change their residence or their dress without a license from the government. They could not even exercise the freedom which is conceded to the most abject in other countries, that of selecting their own wives. The imperative spirit of despotism would not allow them to be happy or miserable in any way but that established by law. The power of free agency—the inestimable and inborn right of every human being—was annihilated in Peru.”—W. H. Prescott, *History of the conquest of Peru*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 5.—See also AMERICA: Prehistoric; ANDESIANS; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Inca area; RACE PROBLEMS: Previous to 1900.

ALSO IN: *Standard natural history* (J. S. Kingsley, ed., v. 6, pp. 215-226).—J. Fiske, *Discovery of America*, v. 2, ch. 9.—E. J. Payne, *History of the New World called America*, v. 1, bk. 2.

Empire of the Incas.—“The Inca empire had attained its greatest extension and power precisely at the period of the discovery by Columbus, under the reign of Huayna Capac, who, rather than Huascar or Atahualpa, should be called the last of the Incas. . . . From their great dominating central plateau, the Incas had pressed down to the Pacific, on the one hand, and to the dense forests of the Amazonian valleys on the other. Throughout this wide region and over all its nations, principalities, and tribes, Huayna Capac at the beginning of the 16th century ruled supreme. His empire extended from four degrees above the equator to the 34th southern parallel of latitude, a distance of not far from 3,000 miles; while from east to west it spread, with varying width, from the Pacific to the valleys of Paucartambo and Chuquisaca, an average distance of not far from 400 miles, covering an area, therefore, of more than one million square miles, equal to about one-third of the total area of the United States, or to the whole of the United States to the eastward of the Mississippi River. . . . [It extended over modern Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile and part of Argentina.] In the islands of Lake Titi-

caca, if tradition be our guide, were developed the germs of Inca civilization. Thence, it is said, went the founders of the Inca dynasty, past the high divide between the waters flowing into the lake and those falling into the Amazon, and skirting the valley of the river Vilcanota for more than 200 miles, they established their seat in the bolson [valley] of Cuzco. . . . It is not only central in position, salubrious and productive, but the barriers which separate it from the neighboring valleys are relatively low, with passes which may be traversed with comparative ease; while they are, at the same time, readily defensible. The rule of the first Inca seems not to have extended beyond this valley, and the passes leading into it are strongly fortified, showing the direction whence hostilities were anticipated in the early days of the empire, before the chiefs of Cuzco began their career of conquest and aggregation, reducing the people of the bolson of Anta in the north, and that of Urcos in the south. . . . The survey of the monuments of Peru brings the conviction that the ancient population was not nearly so numerous as the accounts of the chroniclers would lead us to suppose. . . . But a small portion of the country is inhabitable, or capable of supporting a considerable number of people. The rich and productive valleys and bolsons are hardly more than specks on the map; and although there is every evidence that their capacities of production were taxed to the very utmost, still their capacities were limited. The ancient inhabitants built their dwellings among rough rocks, on arid slopes of hills, and walled up their dead in caves and clefts, or buried them among irreclaimable sands, in order to utilize the scanty cultivable soil for agriculture. They excavated great areas in the deserts until they reached moisture enough to support vegetation, and then brought guano from the islands to fertilize these sunken gardens. They terraced up every hill and mountain-side, and gathered the soil from the crevices of the rocks to fill the narrow platforms, until not a foot of surface, on which could grow a single stalk of maize or a single handful of quinoa, was left unimproved. . . . It would be safe to estimate the population under the Inca rule at . . . perhaps somewhere between ten and twelve millions; notwithstanding Las Casas, the good, but not very accurate, Bishop of Chiapa tells us that, 'in the Province of Peru alone the Spaniards killed above forty millions of people.'—E. G. Squier, *Peru*, ch. 1.—According to the tradition of the Incas, the foundations of the empire were laid about the year 1200, when Manco Capac and his wife Mama Occllo, children of the sun, appeared in the bolson or valley of Cuzco saying that their father, the sun, had sent them to instruct the people. "In the name of Ticiviriracocha, and of the Sun and of the other gods, Manco Capac laid the foundations of the new city. The original and beginning of it was a small stone house with a roof of straw that Manco Capac and his women built, to which they gave the name of Curicancha, meaning the place of gold. This is the place where afterwards, stood that celebrated and most rich temple of the sun, and now a monastery of monks of the order of San Domingo."—*Chronicle of Pedro de Leon* (tr. by C. R. Markham), pt. 2, p. 22.—"We are supposed to have the names of the successors of Manco Capac, who were Sinchi Rocca, Lloque Yupanqui, and Mayta Capac in the thirteenth century, but we know very little of what they did or what progress was made by the tribe under them. It is said, however, that, in the period of their official lives, the Cuzcans began to estab-

lish a tribal predominance in the *bolson*, by 'drawing in the surrounding tribes rather by peaceful means than by conquest,' which probably means that they confederated with the neighboring tribes for purposes of warfare defensive and offensive. They thus established the highest form of government known to the Indians at that time and laid the foundations of the future Incariate. The accession of Capac Yupanqui probably marks the completion of this confederation and the beginning of aggressive operations beyond the *bolson*. . . . Capac Yupanqui, who succeeded Mayta Capac about the beginning of the Fourteenth Century, was successful in finding pretexts for war, and conquered the tribes of the west as far as the pass of Vilcanote, overlooking the Titicaca basin. Inca Rocca, the next Inca, is said to have given his attention to internal improvements, which would seem to imply that the development of the Incariate had begun, and that Cuzco was becoming wealthy. Yahuar Huacac, the seventh Inca, was unfortunate and the period of his rule was disastrous. His successor bore the name of the Peruvian deity, Uira Cocha, and began a wonderful series of conquests which, within a century and a half, extended the Incariate over half of the western part of South America. By the conquest of the Collas he annexed to the Cuzcan Incariate the whole of the Titicaca basin, once the seat of the Piruas, but at that time occupied by tribes of shepherds being too high and cold for successful agriculture. There were copper mines in the region capable of furnishing materials for weapons and tools for the Cuzcans superior to those to which they had been accustomed. As a result of these conquests a system of colonization began, to be subsequently developed into what were called *mitimaes*, and these led to commercial enterprises whereby maize and cotton raised in one part of the country could be exchanged for the wool, potatoes, live-stock and copper of the higher regions. Uira Cocha also annexed the tribes of the Yucay valley, and then turned his attention to the Chancas, who were at the head of a great confederation of tribes beyond the Apurimac river. But while his military operations in that direction were incomplete, he died. He was succeeded by Urco, who, being defeated by the Chancas, was deposed by the tribal council, thus furnishing evidence that the office of Inca was still elective and had not passed beyond the control of the council of the tribe. The Chancas came within sight of Cuzco and the decisive battle in the history of the Incariate was fought on the heights above that famous seat of the Incas. Urco's younger brother, Yupanqui, had there gathered warriors from all parts of the territory already subject to the Cuzcans, and his brilliant victory over the Chancas gained for him the election to the office of Inca, from which his brother was deposed. He assumed, then or after his further victories, the title of Pachacutec (he who changes the world). The memory of the great battle between the Cuzcans and the Chancas was fresh in the popular mind, a century and a half later, when the Europeans arrived in the country, and as they passed over this ancient battlefield, they saw the stuffed skins of the vanquished Chancas set up as memorials by the roadside. In the process of 'changing the world,' Yupanqui subdued the Huancas, allies of the Chancas, and thus extended the Incariate to the shores of the Pacific. It was also in accordance with his programme of changing the world that the *mitimaes* were fully developed and applied, as a stroke of policy on the part of the Inca and for

the relief of the overcrowded portions of the Incariate. We are told by Pedro Cieza de Leon, in a book published in Seville in 1553, that, 'as soon as a province was conquered (by the Cuzcans), ten thousand to twelve thousand men were ordered to go there with their wives; but they were always sent to a country where the climate resembled that from whence they came.' . . . The Pachacutec was succeeded by Tupac Yupanqui, who completed the subjugation of the coast valley tribes, and extended his conquests south as far as the River Maule, three hundred miles beyond the site of the present city of Santiago in Chile. In that region the tribes are said to have retained their autonomy after the ancient manner, and became allies of the Cuzcans rather than their subjects. To the north of what is now the boundary between Peru and Ecuador dwelt tribes which were loosely attached members of a confederacy headed by the Caras of Quito. Their resistance to the warriors of Tupac was brief, and he was able to make these tribes the military base of a great war against Quito. In 1455 he won a great battle over the Caras. On the coast he extended his conquests to the Gulf of Guayaquil and returned to Cuzco in 1460. He died three years later, while in the midst of preparations to wipe Quito out of existence. . . . In 1430 Hualcopo became Shiri, and upon him was imposed the task of opposing the military operations of the Cuzcan Inca, Tupac Yupanqui. It is alleged that the victory of Tupac Yupanqui, in 1455, left sixteen thousand Cara warriors dead upon the field of battle. Hualcopo retired first to Riobamba and then to a well fortified position further north and nearer to Quito. From this position Tupac Yupanqui was unable to drive him. He died in the same year that Tupac Yupanqui died, and was succeeded by Cacha, the fifteenth, and, as it proved, the last Shiri. He was a warrior and devoted the first years of his official life to recovering what his predecessor had lost to the Cuzcans. Huayna Capac was the successor of Tupac Yupanqui. He was delayed in resuming his predecessor's campaigns against the Caras, by the necessity of conducting some military operations in the south. Returning thence in due time victorious, he devoted the remainder of his life to the conquest of Quito. He first reduced to absolute obedience the tribes of the Gulf of Guayaquil, whom his predecessor had left half independent, and extended his conquests on the northern shore nearly as far as the equator. Some of the tribes he exterminated. Having thus here and elsewhere secured lines of communication, he advanced against Quito. The Caras under Cacha fought stubbornly, but were overthrown in one battle after another, and was finally defeated, and their Shiri was slain. Huayna Capac entered Quito in triumph. The Caranquis, a warlike people living north of Quito, were overwhelmed and exterminated. Tradition states that twenty-four thousand Caranquis were massacred, and their bodies were thrown into the lake which now bears the name of Yahuarcocha (the pool of blood). . . . The times of Huayna Capac were undoubtedly the Golden Age of the Peruvians and present to best advantage the opportunity for our study of what is often very carelessly called their civilization. We would speak more accurately if we called it a study of their culture, or of their institutions."—A. H. Noll, *Peruvians*, pp. 10, 21-26, 28.—Huayna Capac died in 1525 and gave the north of the country to his son, Atahualpa, and the south to another son, Huascar. The strife between these two sons contributed to the

ease with which the Incas were overcome by the Spaniards.

1200-1527.—Ancient culture.—Agriculture.—Craftsmanship.—Social and political organization.—Religious ceremonies.—In Peru, South American culture reached its highest development for here, through agriculture, a larger population could be supported than in the hunting areas. The culminating civilization in Peru was that of the empire of the Incas, which the Spaniards found on their arrival. "The Peruvians were primarily agriculturists, and though the valleys were extremely fertile, yet throughout the greater part of the country cultivation was carried on under difficulties. Large tracts of the interior were situated at such an altitude that maize could not ripen there, and, under ordinary circumstances, were unable to support a large population. On the rainless coast agriculture was, normally, only possible in the neighbourhood of the rivers, none too numerous, which had their sources in the mountains; and their fertilizing influence extended but a short distance from their actual banks. Where the climate was favourable, the very uneven nature of the country, and the steepness of the mountain-slopes, rendered special measures necessary for the retention of the soil, and here too arrangements had to be made for irrigation. [See also AGRICULTURE: Beginnings of plant cultivation.] For agricultural purposes a threefold division of the land was made. Certain tracts throughout the empire were reserved for the Sun, and the revenues from these were devoted to the maintenance of the temples and ministers of the state religion. Part of the remainder was divided among the population at large according to their needs; and the rest was royal property. Each head of a family received a plot for himself, with additional plots for each child. When a son married, he took over the control of that portion which his father had received at his birth, but when a daughter married, her portion lapsed to the state. If the population of a neighbourhood increased, part of the crown-lands passed into their hands. The cultivation of the land, like everything else, was controlled by special officials, and the inhabitants of the village laboured in common. The local 'church-lands' received the first attention, and next the lands apportioned for the use of the villagers. Even here a certain precedence was observed, in that the fields of the widows, aged and sick, came first. . . . The aqueducts of Peru constitute a feature which has deservedly moved the wondering admiration of the early chroniclers. By their means alone was the coast enabled to support the large population which existed there before the Spanish conquest; and it is owing to the fact that the Spaniards failed to maintain the system that large tracts of country, formerly reclaimed from the desert, are now abodes of utter desolation. Many of these aqueducts and reservoirs on the coast dated from pre-Inca times, but the Inca did much to extend the range of their utility. [See also AQUEDUCTS: Peruvian.] . . . A large variety of crops was cultivated throughout the empire, but, where the climate allowed, maize, of several kinds, formed the staple produce. In the loftier altitudes of the interior, however, maize could not be grown, but the hardy quinoa, a kind of buckwheat, took its place. Here, too, the potato flourished as well as in the lower country, and the oca, another tuber, was also of economical importance where it could be grown. . . . The most highly-prized product of Peruvian agriculture was the coca. . . . The leaves were chewed, together with lime or

bone-ash, and were held in such estimation that they were reserved for the Inca. Large plantations were prepared, especially in the eastern province, and were tended with the greatest care. . . . Coca figured as an offering in most religious ceremonies. But the Peruvians were also a pastoral people, and their flocks . . . [of llamas and alpacas, both of which they had domesticated], were of the greatest importance to them. . . . Of the various products of Peruvian craftsmanship the pottery is the most important archaeologically. . . . The remarkable regularity and gracefulness of some of the forms in which the vases were moulded . . . bear witness to the masterly skill with which the primitive potter handled his material. Undoubtedly the early inhabitants of Truxillo and the neighborhood take the premier place as workers of clay. . . . The basis of the Peruvian social system was the family, and the people were divided into a number of *ayllu*, or lineages; at Cuzco these *ayllu* were divided into two groups, living in different parts of the city, and called respectively Hanan-Cuzco and Hurin-Cuzco ('Upper Cuzco' and 'Lower Cuzco'). The origin of this two-fold division is obscure, and is explained differently by different authors. Manco Capac, Lloque Yupanqui, and Inca Roca have respectively been credited with the arrangement, while Montesinos makes it date from as far back as the fifth reign of his early list. It is probable that it was of early date, since it was not peculiar to the Inca. . . . While the Inca state was yet small, the primitive communistic system continued in operation without much supervision; but as the empire grew, and tribe after tribe was added to it, an official class gradually sprang into existence, whose duty it was to see, not only that every man performed his share of work but also that the products of united labour were fairly distributed. The idea of constant supervision, . . . was neither new nor distasteful to the Peruvians. Individual freedom meant nothing to them, and obedience to a superior was a habit. . . . Of the growth of the huge bureaucracy which the Spaniards found in Peru, little can be said, but it is probable that it only began to be evolved from the primitive communism when, under Pachacuti, the policy of effective conquest and colonial expansion was seriously inaugurated. Later its ramifications extended to every hamlet of the empire. The latter, for the purposes of administration, was divided into provinces, each ruled by an hereditary *Curaça* who had power to impose local by-laws in accordance with the customary code of the Inca. Under the *Curaça* was a hierarchy of officials, ranging from sub-chiefs to subordinate inspectors whose responsibility was limited to the supervision of no more than ten heads of families. A strict census was kept of the population and resources of each province, and the returns were sent regularly to Cuzco. In accordance with the census, tribute was imposed, and, as money was a thing unknown in Peru, all tribute was in kind. Of this tribute the most minute records were kept, and the system by which the imperial accounts were registered deserves a short description. No form of writing can be proved to have existed under the Inca. . . . But if they had no form of writing, the Peruvians had invented a very serviceable substitute, the *quipus*. These *quipus* were cords on which were made knots of almost infinite multiplicity. For the purposes of reckoning, each form of knot represented a different number, and each string a different subject; to some of the strings, subordinate strings were attached serving as footnotes,

and the strings forming one set of accounts were arranged as a fringe along a master-string. An indication of the nature of the objects enumerated was furnished by the colour of each string, and the combinations of colours and types of knots gave an almost endless variety to the uses to which this method of recording could be put. It is even said that events were recorded by means of the quipus, and the statement is not incredible, since the system was in the hands of professional accountants, Quipucamayoc, who gave their whole lives to its study and elaboration. [See also QUIPU.] . . . The question of the disposal of the dead was of great importance throughout Peru, since . . . some form of ancestor-worship was practised throughout, both on the coast and in the Sierra. Belief in the continued existence of the soul after decease was found practically everywhere, though the accounts of its fate varied locally. . . . The custom, almost universally prevalent, at any rate in early times, of interring the favourite wives and even retainers with important individuals, also bears witness to a belief in the continued existence of the soul. At the same time, by a natural confusion of thought, the actual body was regarded as in some way sentient, since frequent offerings of food and especially drink were made at the tombs, and the mummies were brought out at stated intervals and ceremonial feasts were held in their honour. There is no evidence that any preservative preparation was injected into the body . . . after death. Its preservation was due mainly to the dry atmosphere of the coast and the higher sierra. . . . The actual form of grave differed according to locality. In the highlands natural caverns, often enlarged by artificial means, were employed as mausolea, and the bodies were arranged in a seated position round the walls or in niches. Many of these mortuary caves are situated in the face of some inaccessible cliff, and the dead must have been lowered there by means of ropes. The entrance was always carefully concealed with masonry. In many parts of Peru, especially in the neighborhood of Cuzco, occur outcropping rocks which have been carved with stairways, seats, and all manner of intricate channels leading from small reservoirs. . . . Important ceremonies took place in all the provinces at the death of the reigning Inca, a feature of which was the recitation by selected poets of all the feats performed by the deceased, and which were renewed at stated intervals for a whole year. A peculiar custom connected with the demise of a ruler was the following: His palace with all its contents, including the gold and silver furniture, was left exactly, as it was at his death, and did not pass into the possession of his successor; even the staff of servants, it is said, was still maintained. This custom accounts in a large measure for the great quality of gold which the Spaniards found in Peru at their arrival, since each Inca was obliged to supply himself with an entirely new outfit of the utensils necessary to his rank. . . . The subject of the religion or religions of Peru is one of great complexity. . . . Most of the early chroniclers, some of whom were of Inca descent, give valuable information concerning the beliefs and ceremonies of the people, and the writings of the early missionaries are of the highest importance in this respect. In its main outlines the religion as found by the Spaniards was fairly homogeneous in character throughout Peru. . . . but very great differences existed in the quality of the beliefs, and, from the cultural standpoint, those of the present population differed from those held by the educated Inca as widely as the primi-



PERUVIAN ANTIQUES

1. Border of cotton towel with woven ornament. 2 and 3. Bags of richly ornamented woolen material. 4 and 5. Peruvian grave tablets. 6. Part of gorgeous garb of a mummy, in Gobelin style. 7. Fragment of richly ornamented woolen cloth. The faces are stencilled in green on a brown background. 8 and 9. Woolen head bands. 10 and 11. Grave tablets. 12 and 13. Clay vessels. 14 and 15. Small saucer-like clay trays, with human figures as handles. 16. Work basket of sedge. 17. Cotton braid, with design in Gobelin style.

tive village cults of India from the highest tenets of Hinduism. Of the creator-gods, the name of Uiracocha [was] the deity worshipped by the rulers of the pre-Inca empire who came from the Collao. Uiracocha is closely connected with Tiahuanaco, the megalithic site at the south end of Lake Titicaca. . . . To him is attributed the creation of the sun and moon, and he held power over lightning and thunder. After the creation he travelled northwards through the country in the guise of an elderly man with a long beard, and performed various miracles with the aid of a magic staff, finally disappearing over the sea in the neighbourhood of Porto Viejo. The latter part of the myth probably represents the conquest of the country by his worshippers. His full name is given as Con Ticsi Uiracocha, and appears to be derived from some language other than the Quichua dialect, which was the official tongue of the Inca empire at the time of the Spanish conquest. In other parts of the Collao this creator who held power over the heavenly bodies was known as Tonapa and Tarapaca, and his cult seems to have extended as far south as the north-west provinces of the Argentine Republic. The Quichua name for the creator was Pachacamac (the 'Soul of the Universe'), and this Pachacamac was identified with Uiracocha. . . . The beliefs concerning the supernatural powers varied according to the status of the individual. Huayna Capac, we are told, harboured doubts concerning the divinity of the Sun itself, since he remarked that it was obliged to perform an appointed journey, presumably at the bidding of some higher power; and some of the prayers to Uiracocha, which luckily have been preserved, bear witness to the spirituality of the religious beliefs held, at any rate by the ruling class."—T. A. Joyce, *South American archaeology*, pp. 117-119, 121-122, 193-194, 100-103, 144-146, 149-151, 160.

15th century.—Conquest of Quito. See ECUADOR: Aboriginal kingdom of Quito.

1450.—Invasion and conquest of northern Chile. See CHILE: 1450-1535.

1524-1527.—Discovery and exploration by Verazano. See AMERICA: 1524-1528.

1528-1531.—Commission and preparations of Pizarro.—"In the spring of 1528, Pizarro and one of his comrades, taking with them some natives of Peru and some products of that country, set out [from Panama] to tell their tale at the court of Castile. Pizarro . . . found the Emperor Charles V. at Toledo, and met with a gracious reception. . . . His tales of the wealth which he had witnessed were the more readily believed in consequence of the experiences of another Spaniard whom he now met at court, the famous conqueror of Mexico. Yet affairs in Spain progressed with proverbial slowness, and it was not until the expiry of a year from the date of his arrival in the country that the capitulation was signed defining the powers of Pizarro. By this agreement he was granted the right of discovery and conquest in Peru, or New Castle, with the titles of Captain-general of the province and Adelantado, or lieutenant-governor. He was likewise to enjoy a considerable salary, and to have the right to erect certain fortresses under his government, and, in short, to exercise the prerogatives of a viceroy. Almagro was merely appointed commander of the fortress of Tumbez, with the rank of Hidalgo; whilst Father Luque became bishop of the same place. . . . Pizarro, on his part, was bound to raise within six months a force of 250 men; whilst the government on theirs engaged to furnish some assistance in the purchase of artillery

and stores. [Thus commissioned, Pizarro left Seville in January, 1530, hastening back to Panama, accompanied or followed by four half-brothers, who were destined to stormy careers in Peru. Naturally, his comrade and partner Almagro was ill pleased with the provision made for him, and the partnership came near to wreck; but some sort of reconciliation was brought about, and the two adventurers joined hands again in preparations for a second visit to Peru, with intentions boding evil to the unhappy natives of that too bountiful land. It was early in January 1531 that Pizarro sailed southward from the Isthmus for the third and last time.]—R. G. Watson, *Spanish and Portuguese South America*, v. 1, ch. 6-7.

1531-1533.—Pizarro's conquest.—**Treacherous murder of Atahualpa.**—"Pizarro sailed from Panama on the 28th of December, 1531, with three small vessels carrying one hundred and eighty-three men and thirty-seven horses. In thirteen days he arrived at the bay of San Mateo, where he landed the horses and soldiers to march along the shore, sending back the ships to get more men and horses at Panama and Nicaragua. They returned with twenty-six horses and thirty more men. With this force Pizarro continued his march along the sea-coast, which was well peopled; and on arriving at the bay of Guayaquil, he crossed over in the ships to the island of Puna. Here a devastating war was waged with the unfortunate natives, and from Puna the conqueror proceeded again in his ships to the Peruvian town of Tumbez. The country was in a state of confusion, owing to a long and desolating war of succession between Huascar and Atahualpa, the two sons of the great Ynca Huayna Capac, and was thus an easy prey to the invaders. Huascar had been defeated and made prisoner by the generals of his brother, and Atahualpa was on his way from Quito to Cusco, the capital of the empire, to enjoy the fruits of his victory. He was reported to be at Caxamarca, on the eastern side of the mountain; and Pizarro, with his small force, set out from Tumbez on the 18th of May, 1532. . . . The first part of Pizarro's march was southward from Tumbez, in the rainless coast region. After crossing a vast desert he came to Tangarara, in the fertile valleys of the Chira, where he founded the city of San Miguel, the site of which was afterwards removed to the valley of Piura. The accountant Antonio Navarro and the royal treasurer Riquelme were left in command at San Miguel, and Pizarro resumed his march in search of the Ynca Atahualpa on the 24th of September, 1532. He detached the gallant cavalier, Hernando de Soto, into the sierra of Huancabamba, to reconnoitre, and pacify the country. De Soto rejoined the main body after an absence of about ten days. The brother of Atahualpa, named Titu Atauchi, arrived as an envoy, with presents, and a message to the effect that the Ynca desired friendship with the strangers. Crossing the vast desert of Sechura, Pizarro reached the fertile valley of Motupe, and marched thence to the foot of the cordilleras in the valley of the Jequetepeque. Here he rested for a day or two, to arrange the order for the ascent. He took with him forty horses and sixty foot, instructing Hernando de Soto to follow him with the main body and the baggage. News arrived that the Ynca Atahualpa had reached the neighbourhood of Caxamarca about three days before, and that he desired peace. Pizarro pressed forward, crossed the cordillera, and on Friday, the 15th of November, 1532, he entered Caxamarca with his whole force. Here he found excellent accommodation in the large masonry buildings, and

was well satisfied with the strategic position. Atahualpa was established in a large camp outside, where Hernando de Soto had an interview with him. Atahualpa announced his intention of visiting the Christian commander, and Pizarro arranged and perpetrated a black act of treachery. He kept all his men under arms. The Ynca, suspecting nothing, came into the great square of Cusco in grand regal procession. He was suddenly attacked and made prisoner, and his people were massacred. The Ynca offered a ransom, which he described as gold enough to fill a room twenty-two feet long and seventeen wide, to a height equal to a man's stature and a half. He undertook to do this in two months, and sent orders for the collection of golden vases and ornaments in all parts of the empire. Soon the treasure began to arrive, while Atahualpa was deceived by false promises, and he beguiled his captivity by acquiring Spanish and learning to play at chess and cards. Meanwhile Pizarro sent an expedition under his brother Hernando, to visit the famous temple of Pachacamac on the coast; and three soldiers were also despatched to Cusco, the capital of the empire, to hurry forward the treasure. They set out in February, 1533, but behaved with so much imprudence and insolence at Cusco as to endanger their own lives and the success of their mission. Pizarro therefore ordered two officers of distinction, Hernando de Soto and Pedro del Barco, to follow them and remedy the mischief which they were doing. On Easter eve, being the 14th of April, 1533, Almagro arrived at Caxamarca with a reinforcement of 150 Spaniards and 84 horses. On the 3rd of May it was ordered that the gold already arrived should be melted down for distribution; but another large instalment came on the 14th of June. An immense quantity consisted of slabs, with holes at the corners, which had been torn off the walls of temples and palaces, and there were vessels and ornaments of all shapes and sizes. After the royal fifth had been deducted, the rest was divided among the conquerors. The total sum of 4,605,670 ducats would be equal to about £3,500,000 of modern money. After the partition of the treasure, the murder of the Ynca was seriously proposed as a measure of good policy. The crime was committed by order of Pizarro, and with the concurrence of Almagro and the friar Valverde. It was expected that the sovereign's death would be followed by the dispersion of his army, and the submission of the people. This judicial murder was committed in the square of Caxamarca on the 20th of August, 1533. Hernando de Soto was absent at the time, and on his return he expressed the warmest indignation. Several other honorable cavaliers protested against the execution. Their names are even more worthy of being remembered than those of the heroic sixteen, who crossed the line on the sea-shore at Gallo."—C. R. Markham, *Pizarro and the conquest and settlement of Peru and Chili (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 2, ch. 8)*.

ALSO IN: W. H. Prescott, *History of the conquest of Peru, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 1-8*.—J. Fiske, *Discovery of America, v. 2, ch. 10*.

1533-1548.—Fighting of Spanish conquerors over the spoils.—"The feud between the Pizarros and the Almagros, which forms the next great series of events in American history, is one of the most memorable quarrels in the world. . . . This dire contest in America destroyed almost every person of any note who came within its influence, desolated the country where it originated, prevented the growth of colonization, and changed

for the worse the whole course of legislation for the Spanish colonies. Its effects were distinctly visible for a century afterward. . . . There were no signs, however, of the depth and fatality of this feud between the Pizarros and Almagros at the period immediately succeeding the execution of Atahualpa. That act of injustice having been perpetrated, Pizarro gave the royal borla [a peculiar head-dress worn by the reigning Incas, described as a tassel of fine crimson wool] to a brother of the late Inca [who died two months later, of shame and rage at his helpless position], and set out from Cassamarca on his way to Cusco. It was now time to extend his conquests and to make himself master of the chief city of Peru." After a slight resistance, the Spaniards entered "the great and holy city of Cusco," the capital of the Incas, on the 15th of November, 1533. According to the Spanish descriptions it was a remarkable city, constructed with great regularity, having paved streets, with a stone conduit of water running through the middle of each, with grand squares and many splendid palaces and temples. "In Cusco and its environs, including the whole valley which could be seen from the top of the tower, it is said that there were 'a hundred thousand' houses. Among these were shops, and store-houses, and places for the reception of tribute. . . . The great Temple of the Sun had, before the Spaniards rifled Cusco, been a building of singular gorgeousness. The interior was plated with gold; and on each side of the central image of the Sun were ranged the embalmed bodies of the Incas, sitting upon their golden thrones raised upon pedestals of gold. All round the outside of the building, at the top of the walls, ran a coronal of gold about three feet in depth." For three years the Spaniards held undisturbed possession of Cusco, reducing it to the forms of a Spanish municipality, converting the great Temple of the Sun into a Dominican monastery and turning many palaces into cathedrals and churches. In the meantime, Fernando Pizarro, one of the four brothers of the conqueror, returned from his mission to Spain, whither he had been sent with full accounts of the conquest and with the king's fifth of its spoils. He brought back the title of Marquis for Francisco, and a governor's commission, the province placed under him, to be called New Castile. For Pizarro's associate and partner, Almagro, there was also a governorship, but it was one which remained to be conquered. He was authorized to take possession and govern a province, which should be called New Toledo, beginning at the southern boundary of Pizarro's government and extending southward 200 leagues. This was the beginning of quarrels, which Pizarro's brothers were accused of embittering by their insolence. Almagro claimed Cusco, as lying within the limits of his province. Pizarro was engaged in founding a new capital city near the coast, which he began to build in 1535, calling it Los Reyes, but which afterwards received the name of Lima; he would not, however, give up Cusco. The dispute was adjusted in the end, and Almagro set out for the conquest of his province (Chile), much of which had formed part of the dominions of the Inca, and for the subduing of which he commanded the aid of a large army of Peruvians, under two chiefs of the royal family. A few months after this, in the spring of 1536, the nominally reigning Inca, Manco, escaped from his Spanish masters at Cusco, into the mountains, and organized a furious and formidable rising, which brought the Spaniards, both at Cusco and Los Reyes, into great peril, for many months. Before the revolt

had been overcome, Almagro returned, unsuccessful and disappointed, from his expedition into Chile [see CHILE: 1535-1724] and freshly determined to assert and enforce his claim to Cusco. It is said that he endeavored, at first, to make common cause with the Inca Manco; but his overtures were rejected. He then attacked the Inca and defeated him; marched rapidly on Cusco, arriving before the city April 18, 1537; surprised the garrison while negotiations were going on and gained full possession of the town. Fernando and Gonzalo, two brothers of the Marquis Pizarro, were placed in prison. The latter sent a force of 500 men, under his lieutenant Alvarado, against the intruder; but Alvarado was encountered on the way and badly beaten. In November there was a meeting brought about, between Pizarro and Almagro, in the hope of some compromise, but they parted from it in sharper enmity than before. Meantime, the younger Pizarro had escaped from his captivity at Cusco, and Fernando had been released. In the spring of 1538 Fernando led an army against the Almagristas, defeated them (April 6, 1538) in a desperate battle near Cusco and entered the city in triumph. Almagro was taken prisoner, subjected to a formal trial, condemned and executed. The Pizarros were now completely masters of the country and maintained their domination for a few years, extending the Spanish conquests into Chile under Pedro de Valdivia, and exploring and occupying other regions. But in 1541, old hatreds and fresh discontents came to a head in a plot which bore fruit in the assassination of the governor, the Marquis Pizarro, now past 70 years of age. A young half-caste son of old Almagro was installed in the governorship by the conspirators, and when, the next year, a new royally commissioned governor, Vaca de Castro, arrived from Spain, young Almagro was mad enough to resist him. His rebellion was overcome speedily and he suffered death. Vaca de Castro was superseded in 1544 by a viceroy, Blasco Nuñez Vela, sent out by the emperor, Charles V., to enforce the "New Laws," lately framed in Spain, under the influence of Las Casas, to protect the natives, by a gradual abolition of the "repartimientos" and "encomiendas."—A. Helps, *Spanish conquest in America*, v. 4, bk. 17-18.

ALSO IN: W. H. Prescott, *History of the conquest of Peru*.

1539-1541.—Gonzalo Pizarro's expedition to the head waters of the Amazon and Orellana's voyage down the great river. See AMAZON RIVER: Discovery and naming.

1544-1548.—Audiencia Real.—Death of Gonzalo Pizarro.—"In 1544 was instituted the *Audiencia Real* [see AUDIENCIAS]; it was about this time that the first viceroy of Peru appears upon the scene. Blasco Nuñez de Vela who had been appointed to take over the government from Cristobal Vaca de Castro, the successor of Pizarro, distinguished himself by his extreme cruelty; so much so that the *Audiencia* headed by Gonzalo Pizarro, the one remaining brother of Francisco Pizarro, resolved to imprison him and send him to Spain; but he was able to escape, and landed at Tumbez, where he gathered together an army to attack Gonzalo Pizarro, who defeated and killed him at Afiaquito. Gonzalo Pizarro was counseled to proclaim independence and make himself king of Peru. Consternation reigned in Spain at these events. A lawyer named La Gasca was sent to restore order, with powers to grant a general pardon; but he soon found that the turbulent Spaniards could only be dominated by force. Gonzalo Pizarro and Francisco de Carbajal were taken

prisoners at Saxahuaman, and were beheaded at Cuzco. Thus, with the death of the last of the group of 'conquistadores,' finally peace was restored. La Gasca returned to Spain after having founded the city of La Paz, to-day the principal metropolis of Bolivia, and the second viceroy, Antonia de Mendoza, definitely initiated the rule of the viceroys. Through the *Audiencia Real*, the Royal Court of Appeal, the 'New Laws' formulated for the government of the country commenced to be enforced. These laws, made in Spain, were just and merciful toward the poor Indians, but the action of the 'conquistadores' and viceroys was such as to completely defeat their purpose; it being their custom when receiving an order from the Spanish government to say: 'We obey, but we do not comply,' a cryptical phrase which has become famous in Spanish. For this reason it is an error to reproach the Spanish nation for the cruelties practised upon the Indians which were perpetrated by only a few of her sons blinded by cupidity and ambition; and much less to blame that country for the fanaticism of some of the friars, when it should be remembered that one of them, Father Las Casas, inspired by a feeling of the purest Christianity, wrote the celebrated 'Letters from the Indies,' which raised in Spain a wave of indignation in favor of the Indians."—*West Coast Leader, Peruvian Year Book*, 1921, pp. 29-30.

1550-1816.—Under the Spanish viceroys.—Vicissitudes of Spanish rule.—Diversion of viceroyalty.—Career of General O'Higgins.—Preparation for revolt.—Ecclesiasticism.—Treatment of Indians.—Growth of liberal ideas.—"After Gonzalo Pizarro's death a peaceful viceroy arrived in Peru, sprung from one of the noblest families of the peninsula. This was Don Antonio de Mendoza. . . . Don Antonio died in 1551, after a very brief enjoyment of his power; but from this date, during the whole period of the rule of kings of the Austrian House, the Peruvian Viceroyalty was always filled by members of the greatest families of Spain. . . . At an immense distance from the mother country, and ruling at one time nearly the whole of South America, including the present republics of Venezuela, New Granada, Ecuador, Peru, Chile, Bolivia, and La Plata, the court of the Viceroys was surrounded by regal pomp and magnificence. . . . The archbishop of Lima ranked next to the viceroy, and filled his post during his absence from the capital. . . . It was not long after the conquest before the inquisition, that fearful engine of the despotic power of Spain, was established in Peru. . . . The Indians were exempted from its jurisdiction in theory, but whether, in practice, this unfortunate and persecuted people always escaped may be considered as doubtful. It was only in the beginning of the nineteenth century, and shortly before the commencement of the war of independence, that this fearful tribunal was abolished." Under the senseless government of Philip II. the seeds of decay and ruin were planted in every part of the Spanish empire. "Though receiving from the silver mines of Peru and Mexico the largest revenue of any sovereign in Europe, his coffers were always empty, and of \$35,000,000 received from America in 1595, not one rial remained in Spain in 1596. . . . Then followed the reigns of his worthless descendants and their profligate ministers; and fast and heedlessly did they drive this unfortunate country on the high road to ruin and poverty. On the establishment of the Bourbon kings of Spain in 1714, a more enlightened policy began to show itself in [the Audiencias and in] the various



PIZARRO BEFORE CHARLES V

measures of government; and the trade to the colonies, which had hitherto been confined by the strictest monopoly, was slightly opened. At this time, the commerce of Peru and Mexico was carried on by what was called the 'flota,' consisting of three men-of-war and about fifteen merchant vessels, of from 400 to 1,000 tons. Every kind of manufactured article of merchandise was embarked on board this fleet, so that all the trading ports of Europe were interested in its cargo, and Spain itself sent out little more than wines and brandy. The flota sailed from Cadiz, and was not allowed to break bulk on any account during the voyage. Arriving at Vera Cruz, it took in, for the return voyage, cargoes of silver, cocoa, indigo, cochineal, tobacco, and sugar; and sailed to the rendezvous at Havannah, where it awaited the galleons from Porto Bello, with all the riches of Peru. The galleons were vessels of about 500 tons; and an immense fair, which collected merchants from all parts of South America, was commenced at Porto Bello on their arrival." About the middle of the 18th century, "a marked change appears to have come over the colonial policy of Spain; and the enlightened government of the good Count Florida Blanca, who was prime minister for 20 years, introduced a few attempts at administrative reform, not before they were needed, into the colonial government. The enormous viceroyalty of Peru, long found to be too large for a single command, was divided; and viceroys were appointed in La Plata and New Granada, while another royal audience was established at Quito. The haughty grandees of Spain also ceased to come out to Peru; and in their places practical men, who had done good service as captains-general of Chile, were appointed viceroys, such as Don Manuel Amat, in 1761, and Don Agustin Jaurequi, in 1780. At last Don Ambrosio O'Higgins, whose father was a poor Irish adventurer, who kept a little retail shop in the square at Lima, became viceroy of Peru, and was created Marquis of Osorno. . . . His son, the famous General O'Higgins was one of the liberators of Chile. O'Higgins was followed in the viceroyalty by the Marquis of Aviles, and in 1806, Don José Abascal, an excellent ruler, assumed the reins of government. . . . But the rule of Spain was drawing to a close. The successor of Abascal, General Pezuela, was the last viceroy who peacefully succeeded. . . . Many things had tended to prepare the minds of the Creole population for revolt. The partial opening of foreign trade by Florida Blanca, the knowledge of their own enslaved condition, obtained through the medium of their increasing intercourse with independent states, and, finally, the invasion of the mother country by Napoleon's armies, brought popular excitement in South America to such a height that it required but a spark to ignite the inflammable materials." —C. R. Markham, *Cuzco and Lima*, ch. 9.—"By 1632 the intolerable condition of the Indians had reached a point which attracted notice. These unfortunate people were exploited in every conceivable sense; the exactions and abuses directed against them coming equally from priest as from layman. In 1664 some alleviation of their lot was brought about by regulations promulgated by the viceroy, Santistevan. The monopoly of Spanish commerce on the west coast began to be destroyed, both British and French traders acquiring trade rights by the signing of the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713; and this marked a period in which aversion to Spanish rule and methods among the colonists became deepened. Certain conciliatory measures, such as the giving the titles of

nobility to various prominent colonists by the viceroys Antonio Manso and Manuel Amat, were initiated; but it was too late to arouse any spirit of friendship for the Bourbon dynasty or for Spain. In 1746 an appalling earthquake destroyed Lima, whilst a tidal wave swept away the port of Callao. In 1776 the continued exactions against the long-suffering people, in the form of taxes and restrictions, began to bear some natural effect, and some insurrection broke out, notwithstanding which, the Council of the Indies continued their ceaseless demands upon the colonists. It was seen, however, that the territory governed from the viceroyalty of Peru, at Lima, was too large for practicable supervision. New Granada, with a capital at Bogota, had already been separated, and in 1776 Buenos Ayres was also made the seat of a viceroy, including the territory now belonging to Bolivia. The crushing abuse of the Indians by forced labour in mines and factories [see PEONAGE: Introduction by Spaniards], had seriously diminished the populations of the provinces surrounding the principal mining and agricultural regions. The people were at such a stage that death seemed preferable to their condition; and when a leader arose in the person of Tupac Amaru, a descendant of the Incas who had remained in the valley of Vilcamayo since the murder of their leader by Toledo, they broke out into rebellion, and the whole of the interior of Peru was quickly aflame. Various battles were fought, and successes gained by the people; all excepting the whites declaring common cause. But, unfortunately, the insurrection failed at length, and Tupac was executed with the most savage brutality at Cuzco, in May 1781. . . . Some reforms were made in the treatment of the Indians after the events above described, and . . . considerable scientific, geographical, and literary advance [was] gained under the viceroys Jauregui, De la Croix, Taboada and others, including Don Francisco Gil—the latter the most enlightened of the whole succession of Peruvian rulers—during the years 1780 to 1790. [Under Gil] the coast was partly surveyed, a nautical school established, newspaper printed, statistics compiled, maps and surveys made, botanical studies of the flora carried out—all those matters which, theoretically, the Spaniards are enthusiastic about, but which they have, in practice, generally left other nations to do. . . . At the close of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth century, commences the growth of liberal and revolutionary ideas in Peru. These were first nourished in the centres of learning of Lima and Arequipa, until the nobility, and even the ladies of Lima, were imbued with the awakening spirit. Secret clubs began to meet, arrests followed, and a popular movement began to assume form. On September 1813, when news of the abolition of the Inquisition in Spain was received in Lima, there was an outbreak and the Holy Office, its archives, prisons and instruments of torture, were destroyed amid general rejoicing. . . . Peru, remained for a while loyal to the crown of Spain, but the cry of independence was raised at Cuzco in August 1814 by [Pumacagua, a native chief, and] a number of prominent Peruvians, some of whom were men of good birth, and feeling became unanimous for throwing off the Spanish yoke. Against their banded forces marched General Ramirez, but the patriots retreated over the snowy Cordillera from Arequipa. Ramirez received a letter from Pumacagua, the aged leader of the Peruvians, asking him for whom he was fighting, seeing that Ferdinand VII. of Spain had been sold to the French. Ramirez, however, with

a force of thirteen hundred well-disciplined men, armed with muskets, would waste no words with them, and Pumacagua, disposing only of eight hundred soldiers and unarmed Indians, stood up for battle. The Peruvians were routed, the guns captured, and large numbers killed, whilst as to the Indians, the Spaniards barbarously cut off their ears and sent them away among their people to tell the tale. Other operations took place both by land and sea, a Spanish squadron being defeated in May 1814 by Captain William Brown, a British seaman commanding revolutionary vessels from the Argentine. An organised rising was planned at Lima, but was frustrated by the arrival of veteran troops from Spain. Bolivia and Chile had been reconquered, Peru was brought under subjection; Buenos Ayres alone remained in freedom. It seemed that Spanish power was to be triumphant; and in July 1816 Pezuela entered



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Lima as Viceroy. It was but a lull before the culminating tempest which should clear the rule of Spain away before it, for events were but leading on to the historic days of Junin and Ayacucho."—C. R. Enock, *Peru*, pp. 61-65.

1579.—Piracies of Drake. See AMERICA: 1572-1580.

1746-1911.—Earthquakes.—"Peru has from time immemorial been subject to earthquake shocks, many of which have been very severe and fatal, as, for instance, the one which in 1746 entirely destroyed Lima, while a tidal wave swept away the port of Callao. Arica and Arequipa were nearly destroyed in 1868, the whole of the Pacific seaboard was again ravaged in 1877, and so recently as 1911 most of the towns and villages in the Department of Apurímac were laid in ruins, over 200 deaths resulting in the capital, Abancay, alone. Minor shocks are of frequent occurrence, the intermittent tremblings of the ground being usually accompanied by loud reports, and often by brilliant illuminations of the sky."—*West Coast Leader, Peruvian Year Book*, 1921, p. 22.

1776.—Separation of viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. See ARGENTINA: 1580-1777.

1820-1826.—Struggle for independence.—Help from Chile and Colombia.—San Martín and Bolívar, the liberators.—The decisive battle of Ayacucho.—"The great struggle for independence in the Spanish provinces of South America had been elsewhere, for the most part, crowned with success before Peru became the theatre for important action. Here the Spaniards maintained possession of their last stronghold upon the continent, and, but for assistance from the neighbouring independent provinces, there would hardly have appeared a prospect of overthrowing the viceregal government. . . . In the month of August, 1820, independence having been established in Chili [see CHILE: 1810-1818], an army of between 4,000 and 5,000 men was assembled at Valparaíso for the purpose of breaking up the royalist strongholds of Peru, and of freeing that province from the dominion of Spain. The command was held by General José de San Martín, the emancipator of Chili, to whose exertions the expedition was mainly attributable. Such vessels of war as could be procured were fitted out and placed under command of Lord Cochrane. In the month following, the whole force was landed and quartered at Pisco, on the Peruvian coast, without opposition from the royalist forces, which retreated to Lima, about 100 miles northward. An attempt at negotiation having failed, the army of invasion was again in motion in the month of October. The naval force anchored off Callao, where, on the night of November 5th, Lord Cochrane [afterwards Lord Dundonald], commanding in person, succeeded in cutting out and capturing the Spanish frigate Esmeralda, which lay under the protection of the guns of the fort, and in company with a number of smaller armed vessels. This exploit is considered as one of the most brilliant achievements of the kind on record. The main body of the Chilean troops was transported to Huará, about 75 miles north of the capital. . . . As San Martín, after some months' delay at Huará, advanced upon Lima, the city was thrown into the utmost confusion. The Spanish authorities found it necessary to evacuate the place. . . . The general [San Martín] entered the city on the 12th of July, 1821, unaccompanied by his army, and experienced little difficulty in satisfying the terrified inhabitants as to his good faith and the honesty of his intentions. All went on prosperously for the cause, and on the 28th the independence of Peru was formally proclaimed, amid the greatest exhibition of enthusiasm on the part of the populace. On the 3d of the ensuing month San Martín assumed the title of Protector of Peru. No important military movements took place during a considerable subsequent period. The fortress at Callao remained in possession of the royalists" until the 21st of September, when it capitulated. "The independent army remained at Lima, for the most part unemployed, during a number of months subsequent to these events, and their presence began to be felt as a burden by the inhabitants. In April, 1822, a severe reverse was felt in the surprise and capture, by Canterac [the viceroy], of a very considerable body of the revolutionary forces, at Ica. . . . An interview took place in the month of July, of this year [1821], between the Protector and the great champion of freedom in South America, Bolívar, then in the full pride of success in the northern provinces. The result of the meeting was the augmentation of the force at Lima by 2,000 Columbian troops. During San Martín's absence the tyranny of his minister, Mon-

teagudo, who made the deputy protector, the Marquis of Truxillo, a mere tool for the execution of his private projects, excited an outbreak, which was only quelled by the arrest and removal of the offending party. In the succeeding month the first independent congress was assembled at the capital, and San Martín, having resigned his authority, soon after took his departure for Chili. Congress appointed a junta of three persons to discharge the duties of the executive. Under this administration the affairs of the new republic fell into great disorder." In June, 1823, the Spanish viceroy regained possession of Lima, but withdrew his troops from it again a month later. Nevertheless, "all hopes of success in the enterprise of the revolution now seemed to rest upon the arrival of foreign assistance, and this was fortunately at hand. Simón Bolívar, the liberator of Venezuela, and the most distinguished of the champions of freedom in South America, had so far reduced the affairs of the recently constituted northern states [see COLOMBIA: 1810-1819; 1819-1830] to order and security, that he was enabled to turn his attention to the distressed condition of the Peruvian patriots. He proceeded at once to the scene of action, and entered Lima on the 1st of September, 1823. . . . He was received with great rejoicing, and was at once invested with supreme power, both civil and military. . . . In February, 1824, an insurrection of the garrison at Callao resulted in the recapture of this important stronghold by the Spaniards, and a few weeks later the capital shared the same fate. The revolutionary congress broke up, after declaring its own dissolution and the confirmation of Bolívar's authority as supreme dictator. This gloomy state of affairs only served to call forth the full energies of the great general. He had under his command about 10,000 troops, the majority of whom were Columbians, stationed near Patavilca. The available forces of the royalists were at this period numerically far superior to those of the patriots." An action which did not become general took place on the plains of Junín, but no decisive engagement occurred until the 9th of December, 1824, "when the decisive battle of Ayacucho, one of the most remarkable in its details and important in its results ever fought in South America, gave a deathblow to Spanish power in Peru. The attack was commenced by the royalists, under command of the viceroy. Their numbers very considerably exceeded those of the patriots, being set down at over 9,000, while those of the latter fell short of 6,000. . . . After a single hour's hard fighting, the assailants were routed and driven back to the heights of Condorcanqui, where, previous to the battle, they had taken a position. Their loss was 1,400 in killed and 700 wounded. The patriots lost in killed and wounded a little less than 1,000." Before the day closed, Canterac, the viceroy, entered the patriot camp and arranged the terms of a capitulation with General Sucre—who had commanded in the battle and won its honors, Bolívar not being present. "His whole remaining army became prisoners of war, and by the terms of the capitulation all the Spanish forces in Peru were also bound to surrender." A strong body of Spanish troops held out, however, in Upper Peru (afterwards Bolivia) until April, 1825, and the royalists who had taken refuge at Callao endured with desperate obstinacy a siege which was protracted until January, 1826, when most of them had perished of hunger and disease. "Bolívar was still clothed with the powers of a dictator in Peru. . . . He was anxious to bring about the adoption by the Peruvians of the civil

code known as the Bolivian constitution, but it proved generally unsatisfactory. While he remained in the country, it is said, 'the people overwhelmed him with professions of gratitude, and addressed him in language unsuitable to any being below the Deity.' A reaction took place notwithstanding, and numbers were found ready to accuse this truly great man of selfish personal ambition."—H. Brownell, *North and South America: Peru*, ch. 12-13.

ALSO IN: Earl of Dundonald, *Autobiography of a seaman, sequel*, ch. 3.—J. Miller, *Memoirs of General Miller*, v. 1-2, ch. 12-27.—T. Sutcliffe, *Sixteen years in Chile and Peru*, ch. 2-3.

1825-1826.—Founding of republic of Bolivia in Upper Peru.—Bolivian constitution.—"Bolívar reassembled the deputies of the Congress of Lower Peru, February 10, 1825, and in his message to that body resigned the dictatorship, adding, 'I felicitate Peru on her being delivered from whatever is most dreadful on earth; from war by the victory of Ayacucho, and from despotism by my resignation. Proscribe for ever, I entreat you, this tremendous authority, which was the sepulchre of Rome.' On the same occasion he also said; 'My continuance in this republic is an absurd and monstrous phenomenon; it is the approbrium of Peru'; with other expressions equally strong; while at the same time, at the pressing solicitation of the Congress, he consented, notwithstanding his many declarations of reluctance, to remain at the head of the republic. Nothing could exceed the blind submissiveness of this Congress to Bolívar. After investing him with dictatorial authority for another year, they voted him a grant of a million of dollars, which he twice refused, with a disinterestedness that does him the greatest honor. . . . Liberality of feeling, and entire freedom from rapacity of spirit, must be admitted as prominent traits in his character. After continuing in session about a month, the Congress came to a resolution, that as they had granted absolute and unconditional power to Bolívar, in regard to all subjects, whether legislative or executive, it was unnecessary, and incompatible with his authority, that they should continue to exercise their functions; and they accordingly separated. Bolívar, being left without check or control in the government, after issuing a decree for installing a new Congress at Lima the ensuing year, departed from Lima in April, for the purpose of visiting the interior provinces of Upper and Lower Peru."—C. Cushing, *Bolívar and the Bolivian constitution* (*North American Review*, Jan. 1830).—"The dictator then set out on a triumphal tour. Traveling along the coast to Arequipa, he reached Cuzco on the 26th of June, and La Paz, in upper Peru, on the 18th of August. On October 5th, he was at Potosí, and in November at Chuquisaca. The whole tour was one continued ovation. In traveling across the basin of Lake Titicaca, Bolívar was met by a deputation of Indians headed by Chuqui-huanca, the chief of Azangaro, who delivered the following eloquent address of welcome:—'It pleased God to form a great empire out of savages, and He created Manco Capac. The people sinned and He delivered them up to Pizarro. After three centuries of expiation He has taken compassion on their sufferings, and has sent you. You, then, are the fulfiller of the design of providence, and no former deeds appear equal to those which have been done by you. You have liberated five nations. In the great destiny to which they are called, they will raise your fame higher still. As the ages roll on, your

glory will increase, as the shade lengthens when the sun goes down.' At the furthest point of his tour southward, Bolívar created a new nation. In August, 1825, a general assembly had met at Chuquisaca, and decreed that Upper Peru should be a separate and independent republic, with the name of Bolivia in honor of the dictator. [See BOLIVIA: 1825-1826; LATIN AMERICA: 1778-1824.] Upper Peru had been part of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres since 1770. Situated in the heart of the Andes, at vast distances either from Lima or Buenos Ayres, its independence seemed desirable. Although isolated by its mountains, those very mountains contained the richest silver and copper mines in the world, while the eastern forests might be expected to offer prospects of future wealth. It was also arranged that Bolivia should have a small strip of sea coast between the boundaries of Chile and Peru, with Cobija as a seaport. . . . General Sucre, who had received the title of marshal of Ayacucho, was chosen to be the first president of Bolivia on October 3rd, 1826. Chuquisaca was made the capital, its name being changed to Sucre, but La Paz is the principal town in Bolivia. During the absence of the dictator an executive committee ruled at Lima, composed of the Colombian General Tomas Heres, Don Hipolito Unanue, and Don José Maria Pardo.—C. R. Markham, *History of Peru* (*Latin-American Republics Series*, pp. 281-282).—"Medals, statues, and pictures were bountifully and profusely decreed, in honor of both Sucre and Bolívar. To the latter was voted a million of dollars, as an acknowledgment of his preeminent services to the country. With the same characteristic magnanimity, which he displayed on a like occasion in Lower Peru, he refused to accept the grant for his own benefit, but desired that it might be appropriated to purchasing the emancipation of about a thousand negroes held in servitude in Bolivia. Finally, they solicited Bolívar to prepare for the new republic a fundamental code, that should perpetuate his political principles in the very frame and constitution of the state. Captivated by the idea of creating a nation, from its very foundation, Bolívar consented to undertake the task, if, indeed, which has been confidently asserted to be the case, he did not himself procure the request to be made. The Liberator left Chuquisaca in January, 1826. . . . He transmitted the form of a constitution for Bolivia from Lima, accompanied with an address, bearing date May 25, 1826. Of this extraordinary instrument, we feel at a loss to decide in what terms to speak. Bolívar . . . again and again declared, that it contains his confession of political faith. He gave all the powers of his mind to its preparation; he proclaimed it as the well-weighed result of his anxious meditations. . . . This constitution proposes a consolidated or central, not a federal, form of government; and thus far it is unobjectionable. Every ten citizens are to name an elector, whose tenure of office is four years. The Legislative power is to be vested in three branches, called tribunes, senators, and censors. Tribunes are to be elected for four years, senators for eight, and censors for life. So complicated is the arrangement proposed for the enactment of laws by means of this novel legislature, and so arbitrary and unnatural the distribution of powers among the several branches, that it would be impracticable for any people, having just notions of legislative proceedings, to conduct public business in the projected mode; and much more impracticable for men, like the South Americans, not at all familiar with the business of orderly legislation. But the

most odious feature in the constitution relates to the nature and appointment of the executive authority. It is placed in the hands of a president, elected in the first instance by the legislative body, holding his office for life, without responsibility for the acts of his administration, and having the appointment of his successor. The whole patronage of the state, every appointment of any importance, from the vice-president and secretaries of state down to the officers of the revenue, belongs to him; in him is placed the absolute control of all the military force of the nation, it being at the same time specially provided, that a permanent armed force shall be constantly maintained. For the mighty power, the irresistible influence, which this plan imparts to the executive, the only corresponding security, assured to the people, is the inviolability of persons and property. The constituent Congress of Bolivia assembled at Chuquisaca, May 25, 1826, and passively adopted the proposed constitution to the letter, as if it had been a charter granted by a sovereign prince to his subjects, instead of a plan of government submitted to a deliberative assembly for their consideration. It took effect accordingly, as the constitution of Bolivia, and was sworn to by the people; and General Sucre was elected president for life under it, although one of its provisions expressly required, that the president should be a native of Bolivia."—C. Cushing, *Bolívar and the Bolivian constitution* (*North American Review*, Jan., 1830).

1826.—Represented at Pan-American congress in Panama City. See COLOMBIA: 1826.

1826-1876.—Retirement of Bolívar.—Attempted confederation with Bolivia and war with Chile.—Succession of military presidents.—Abolition of slavery.—War with Spain.—"As Bolívar . . . was again prevailed upon [1826] by the Peruvians to accept the dictatorship of the northern republic, and was at the same time President of the United States of Colombia, he was by far the most powerful man on the continent of America. For a time it was supposed that the balance of power on the southern continent was falling into Colombian hands. . . . But the power of Bolívar, even in his own country, rested on a tottering basis. Much more was this the case in the greater Viceroyalty. The Peruvian generals, who ruled the opinion of the country, were incurably jealous of him and his army, and got rid of the latter as soon as they could clear off the arrears of pay. They looked upon the Code Bolívar itself as a badge of servitude, and were not sorry when the domestic disturbances of Colombia summoned the Dictator from among them [September, 1826]. The Peruvians, who owed a heavy debt, both in money and gratitude, to Colombia, now altogether repudiated Bolívar, his code, and his government; and the Bolivians followed their example by expelling Sucre and his Colombian troops (1828). The revolution which expelled the Colombian element was mainly a national and military one; but it was no doubt assisted by whatever of liberalism existed in the country. Bolívar had now shown himself in Colombia to be the apostle of military tyranny, and he was not likely to assume another character in Peru. The ascendancy of Colombia in the Perus was thus of short duration; but the people of the two Perus only exchanged Colombian dictatorship for that of the generals of their own nation."—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, pp. 200-201.—"A Peruvian Congress met in 1827, after General Bolívar had returned to Colombia, and elected Don José Lamar, the leader of the Peruvian infantry at Ayacucho, as President of

the Republic; but his defeat in an attempt to wrest Guayaquil from Colombia led to his fall, and Agustín Gamarra, an Ynca Indian of Cuzco, succeeded him in 1829. Although successful soldiers secured the presidential chair, the administration in the early days of the Republic contained men of rank, and others of integrity and talent. . . . General Gamarra served his regular term of office, and after a discreditable display of sedition he was succeeded in 1834 by Don Luis José Orbegoso. Then followed an attempt to unite Peru and Bolivia in a confederation. The plan was conceived by Don Andrés Santa Cruz, an Ynca Indian of high descent, who had been President of Bolivia since 1829. Orbegoso concurred, and the scheme, which had in it some elements of hopefulness and success, was carried out, but not without deplorable bloodshed. The Peru-Bolivian Confederation was divided into three States—North Peru, South Peru, and Bolivia. During the ascendancy of Santa Cruz, Peru enjoyed a period of peace and prosperity. But his power excited the jealousy of Chile, and that Republic united with Peruvian malcontents, headed by General Gamarra, to destroy it. A Chilean army landed, and Santa Cruz was hopelessly defeated in the battle of Yungay, which was fought in the Callejón de Huaylas, on the banks of the river Santa, on January 20th, 1839. A Congress assembled at the little town of Huancayo, in the Sierra, which acknowledged Gamarra as President of the Republic, and proclaimed a new Constitution on November 16th, 1839. But the new state of things was of short duration. On the pretext of danger from the party of Santa Cruz, war was declared upon Bolivia, which resulted in the defeat of the Peruvians at the battle of Yngavi, near the banks of Lake Titicaca, on November 20th, 1841, and the death of Gamarra. A very discreditable period of anarchy ensued, during which Gamarra's generals fought with each other for supremacy, which was ended by the success of another Indian, and on April 19th, 1845, General Don Ramón Castilla was proclaimed Constitutional President of Peru. . . . Uneducated and ignorant, his administrative merits were small, but his firm and vigorous grasp of power secured for Peru long periods of peace. . . . At the end of Castilla's term of office General Echenique succeeded him; but in 1854 Castilla placed himself at the head of a revolution, and again found himself in power. A new Constitution was promulgated in 1856; the tribute of the Indians and negro slavery were abolished, and a grant of \$1,710,000 was voted as compensation to the owners of slaves. The mass of the people ceased to be taxed. The revenue was entirely derived from sales of guano, customs duties, licences, and stamps. . . . When Castilla retired from office in 1862, he was succeeded by General San Roman, an old Ynca Indian of Puno, whose father had fought under Pumacagua. The Republic had then existed for 40 years, during which time it had been torn by civil or external wars for nine years and had enjoyed 31 years of peace and order. Very great advances had been made in prosperity during the years of peace. . . . General San Roman died in 1863, his Vice President, General Pezet, was replaced [through a revolution] by Colonel Don Mariano Ignacio Prado, and a war with Spain practically ended with the repulse of the Spanish fleet from Callao on May 2nd, 1866. The war was unjust, the pretext being the alleged ill-treatment of some Spanish immigrants at an estate called Talambo, in the coast valley of Jequetepeque, which might easily have been arranged by arbitration. But the success at Callao

aroused the enthusiasm of the people and excited strong patriotic feelings. Colonel Don José Balta was elected President of Peru on August 2nd, 1868, the Constitution having been proclaimed on August 31st, 1867. The Senate is composed of Deputies of the Provinces, with a property qualification, and the House of Representatives of members nominated by electoral colleges of provinces and districts, one member for every 20,000 inhabitants. The district colleges choose deputies to the provincial colleges, who elect the representatives to Congress. There are 44 senators and 110 representatives. Executive power is in the hands of a President and Vice-President, elected for four years, with a Cabinet of five Ministers. . . . The government of Colonel Balta entered upon a career of wild extravagance, and pushed forward the execution of railways and other public works with feverish haste, bringing ruin upon the country. . . . It is sad that a wretched military outbreak, in which the President was killed on July 26th, 1872, should have given it a tragic termination. . . . On August 2nd, 1872, Don Manuel Prado became Constitutional President of Peru. He was the first civilian that had been elected. . . . He came to the helm at a period of great financial difficulty, and he undertook a thankless but patriotic task. . . . He was the best President that Peru has ever known. When his term of office came to an end, he was peacefully succeeded, on August 2nd, 1876, by General Don Mariano Ignacio Prado."—C. R. Markham, *Peru*, ch. 8.

1872-1883.—Finances under Prado and Prado.—Domestic conditions during Chilean War.—"Because of President Balta's enormous expenditures, Prado found the finances of Peru demoralized. Still he arranged for the construction of two new ironclads. To promote economy, however, he reduced the size of the army. President Prado was succeeded by General Mariano Prado in 1876. During that year a contract was made with the consignees for the disposal of guano which, owing to the introduction of artificial manures, was not so favorable to Peru as the contract of 1869. The deposits were made a government monopoly in 1875. In April 1877, the government issued 20,000,000 soles of inconvertible paper money."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations*, p. 344.—On November 18, 1879, the Chileans, who had invaded the country, were victorious over the Peruvians at San Francisco. A revolution followed. President Prado fled, and throughout the remaining years of the war, the country was much disturbed. In 1880 Nicholas de Pierola took control as dictator. He was followed by President Calderón who made an abortive attempt to carry on the government and to make peace with Chile. General Iglesias was then (1883) nominated with the support of the Chileans in order that an administration might be formed with authority to sign the treaty of peace.—See also CHILE: 1833-1884.

1884-1908.—Prostration of country after Chilean War.—Civil war.—Administration of Cáceres.—Arrangements for meeting public debt.—Efforts to improve conditions of Indians.—Advance in internal development.—Further financial and economic advance under Prado.—"After the signing of this treaty [of Ancón, 1884], General Iglesias assumed command of the government, the Assembly convoked by him ratifying his appointment as president of Peru and approving the Treaty of Ancón. But a great part of the nation refused to recognize his authority and could not be induced to lay down their arms; General Cáceres, who with General Canevaro and

others had sustained the honor of their country through four years of incessant struggle against heavy odds, continued the bitter fight to the last. On the 2d of December, 1885, General Cáceres occupied Lima and was installed as constitutional president of the republic on August 10, 1886, seven years after the declaration of war by Chile. He was the unanimous choice of the nation and was elected amid the acclamations of the people, without regard to political parties, his election signifying the final restoration of peace. President Cáceres devoted his chief attention to reorganizing the various departments of the administration. The consolidation of the public debt was effected, the foreign debt contracted by the loans of 1869, 1870, and 1872 being cancelled by a contract with the corporation which represented the bondholders. By this contract, Peru ceded, in payment of its debt, the usufruct, for sixty-six years, of all the state railways and the guano in Peru, not, however, in excess of three million tons, and furthermore obligated itself to pay eighty thousand pounds a year for thirty-three years in consideration of the construction of one hundred and sixty kilometres of railway in addition to the mileage already built. When General Cáceres retired from the presidency in 1890 he was succeeded by Colonel Remigio Morales Bermudez, who died just before the expiration of his term in 1894. The second vice-president, General Borgoño, assumed the presidency, disregarding the right of the first vice-president, Dr. Alejandrino del Solar. The disturbances threatened by this irregular proceeding culminated in civil war when General Cáceres assumed command of the government for the second time, though his attitude brought about the coalition of the Civil and Constitutional parties, formerly antagonistic but henceforth proving a powerful combination for political peace and progress. General Cáceres resigned from the presidency in March, 1895, and a government committee took charge of the administration, presided over by Don Manuel Candamo, its first act being to convoke Congress for a general election. . . . The result of the elections of 1895 was the choice of Don Nicolás de Pierola [who had led the revolt against Cáceres], a well-known statesman, whose government was one of order and improvement in financial and industrial affairs. During his administration the gold standard was adopted in Peru, the monetary unit being the Peruvian pound, equal in weight and fineness to the English pound sterling. This reform . . . greatly stimulated the investment of foreign capital in Peru, the stability of exchange being an important factor in attracting all kinds of enterprises. Among other noted reforms, President Pierola secured the reorganization of the army, obtaining from the French government the appointment of a military mission to direct this work; a military school, under the direction of French officers, was established, which has proved eminently satisfactory. To President Pierola is also due the inauguration of the national general post office, and projects for the construction of a state prison, an insane asylum, and other edifices. His government was marked by peace and order, and the country made rapid progress in recuperating from the effects of the war of the Pacific. President Pierola was succeeded by President Eduardo Lopez de Romaña, who continued the work of peaceful development, retiring from office at the end of his term to give place to President Manuel Candamo, who was elected in 1903. President Candamo was a statesman of progressive ideas and lofty principles, and a leader of the Civil

party, founded by Don Manuel Pardo; his programme of government included many important measures for the national well-being. A law was passed devoting the product of the tobacco tax to the construction of new railways, and taxes were decreed which doubled the fiscal revenue of the state. Every effort was made to turn the people away from a bitter contemplation of the past, with its terrible experiences, and to direct them toward a brighter future. . . . And the people were ready to follow the wise direction of a chief executive who stimulated them to make their best endeavors and who encouraged education, industrial development, and commercial activity by every possible means. The administration of President Candamo marked the inauguration of a new era for Peru. The strife that had followed the period of war was buried, . . . [but the patriotic efforts of this progressive leader] were cut short by his death only seven months after being elected to office. . . . On the death of President Candamo, the second vice-president, Señor Serapio Calderon, succeeded to the office of chief executive. He governed with prudence and success during the months that intervened between the death of President Candamo and the inauguration of his successor, a period that was marked by the unsettled conditions which are usual during the year of the presidential election in all republican countries. By his authority a general election was called which resulted in the choice of Dr. José Pardo as president of the republic. . . . On the 24th of September, 1904, he was inaugurated by the sovereign will of the nation, in accordance with the principles of the Civil party, founded by his illustrious father. Although only forty years of age at the time of his election, President Pardo was an experienced statesman and diplomatist, having been Minister of Foreign Affairs and President of the Council of Ministers during the administration of President Candamo, as well as diplomatic representative of the government on a special mission to the Court of Spain in a previous administration. . . . During President Candamo's term, Dr. Pardo [had] successfully advocated the settlement by arbitration of difficult questions between his country and Bolivia, Ecuador, and Brazil; and, as president of the ministerial council, he was the principal leader in framing important laws for the building of railroads and for fiscal reform which were afterward sanctioned by Congress. When President Pardo assumed office, he proceeded . . . to carry into effect the policy which he had adopted, and which was declared in his inaugural message. The keynote of his administration . . . [was] industrial and educational progress. . . . Toleration in religion, justice in legislation, and an earnest endeavor to promote the well-being of the country, morally and materially, . . . [were] exemplified in the attitude of President Pardo's government throughout the four years that he . . . guided the destinies of the nation. In foreign relations, Peru . . . attained a more honored position than ever before. The nation was represented . . . in the Pan-American Conference at Rio de Janeiro in 1906, and at the International Conference of the Hague in 1907. In home government, in military matters, in the departments of justice and public instruction, in finance, and in the development of public works of enormous benefit to the country, the results of a wise and careful direction of executive authority . . . were to be seen. Education . . . [was] reformed and established on a uniform and democratic basis, the annual appropriation of funds for this purpose . . . [were] in-

creased . . . to three times the amount formerly set aside for its maintenance . . . [until it amounted] to nearly one-tenth of the budget. The postal service . . . received especial attention, and improvements . . . [were] made which render it one of the most efficient branches of public administration. The reconstruction of the national navy . . . [was effected], the new cruisers, *Grau* and *Bolognesi*, which arrived in 1907 from the European shipyards, being handsome modern battleships. Industrial progress . . . [was] fostered and encouraged by the extension of railways, and new lines . . . [were put] under construction in every part of the republic. Commerce . . . [increased] and the fiscal receipts . . . nearly doubled. . . . Foreign capitalists . . . [made many] new investments in the country. . . . The sources of national wealth . . . increased, partly owing to the discovery of valuable mines of coal and petroleum and to the revival of Peru's guano industry. . . . The interests of agriculture . . . [were] promoted by a careful study of its needs in the various regions; hydrographic experts . . . [were] employed to solve the problem of irrigation in the dry sections of the coast, and artesian wells . . . [were] sunk at various points in the northern district. The importation of thoroughbred stock, the employment of foreign specialists in the various branches of husbandry to give lectures on the subject, and the free and liberal distribution of pamphlets, reports, and maps throughout the farming communities . . . [were] among the activities of the government in behalf of agricultural reform. . . . Congress . . . voted large sums for the purpose of carrying out sanitary works in the centres of population throughout the republic, especially in the ports. Commissions, composed of medical men and engineers . . . [undertook] the improvement of sanitary and hygienic conditions, and this important reform is now far advanced, many cities already enjoying its benefits. . . . The four years during which President Pardo . . . governed Peru . . . [were] marked by events of the greatest significance, not only in the history of that republic but in the annals of South American politics. The visit of Secretary Root of the United States in 1906 and the passing of the great Atlantic Squadron in 1908, are incidents that deserve to be recorded. . . . The [presidential] election took place in May, 1908, and the successful candidate . . . [Augusto Leguía] was inaugurated on the 24th of September, 1908. . . . [Leguía] is one of Peru's greatest men, his name being especially identified, as Finance Minister, with the successful financial operations of the present government during the first three years of Dr. Pardo's term."—M. R. Wright, *Old and the new Peru*, pp. 157-165, 172, 174.

1890.—Represented at First International American Conference. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1894-1900.—Dispute with Chile concerning Atacama, Tacna and Arica. See CHILE: 1894-1900.

1901.—Education Act.—"Primary education in Peru, originally in the hands of local authorities, has been taken over by the national government. In 1901 the Peruvian President sanctioned a law which regulated primary, secondary, and higher education. Primary education, which extended over five years, was made obligatory for boys between the ages of six and fourteen and for girls between six and twelve. Secondary education was placed under the direct control of the secretary of public instruction, justice, and religion. The law of 1901 provided two different types of sec-

ondary schools, the *colegio* and the *liceo*. The *colegio* or academy was intended to be preparatory to higher education, while the *liceo* was designed to prepare pupils for the practical arts, as agriculture, mining, commerce, and mechanical industry. Higher education was carried on in four universities and in other national institutions. Among the latter are an engineering school, an agricultural college, and a school of industrial arts. By the law of 1901 Peruvian universities were divided into two classes; that is to say, major and minor. Minor universities, composed of at least two colleges, are located at Arequipa, Cuzco, and Trujillo. The only major university is the renowned University of San Marcos at Lima which has six colleges: Theology, jurisprudence, medicine, philosophy and letters, mathematics and natural sciences, and political and administrative sciences. This institution derives its revenue from appropriations by the Peruvian government and from an endowment due to private donations. It has been an important factor in the intellectual life at Peru."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations*, p. 354.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Latin America; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1551-1912.

ALSO IN: C. R. Enock, *Peru*, pp. 103-111.

1901-1906.—Participation in Second and Third International American Conferences. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902; 1906.

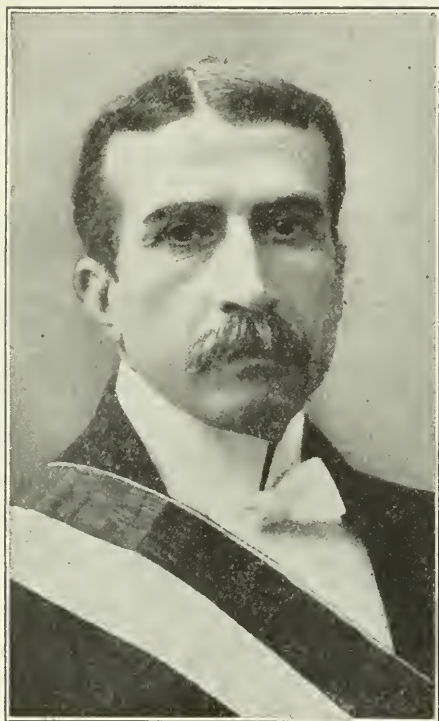
1903.—Boundary disputes in the Acré region with Bolivia and Brazil. See ACRÉ DISPUTES: Claims.

1905.—Arbitration treaties with Colombia and Ecuador.—In a message to the Peruvian congress, July 28, 1906, President Pardo communicated treaties of arbitration with Colombia, one general in its nature, the other special for the settlement of existing boundary questions. Of the latter the message said: "As in former treaties of the same character which have been heretofore concluded with that Republic, the controversy is submitted to the decision, to be based upon considerations of equity, of His Holiness Pope Pius X. But as our question with Colombia is connected with the one with Ecuador, it has been agreed that the arbitration with Colombia shall only take place after the termination of the one in which we are now proceeding with Ecuador, upon the adjudication by the royal Spanish arbitrator to Peru of territories which are likewise claimed by Colombia."

1907.—Diplomatic relations with Chile re-established.—Tacna and Arica questions remain open. See CHILE: 1907.

1908-1914.—Election of Leguía.—Revolutionary disturbances.—Election of Billinghurst as president.—Commercial depression.—On May 27, 1908, Augusto B. Leguía became president, succeeding Dr. Pardo. Señor Leguía had previously been premier and minister of finance and commerce, prior to which he had been managing director of a great English sugar company in Peru. A revolutionary movement had been attempted a few weeks before, in which Isaías Piérola and his brothers were engaged, and which suffered defeat. "In 1910, President Leguía was called upon to face a grave conflict with Ecuador. War with the northern Republic appeared inevitable and the President mobilized an army of 25,000 men . . . to advance on the frontier. During this first administration he brought to a termination under conditions very advantageous for Peru the old and complicated questions of the Bolivian and Bra-

zilian frontiers, achieving to a certain point the friendship and even the moral alliance of the latter country. The threatened conflict with Ecuador was solved owing to the friendly mediation of the United States, Brazil and the Argentine, but other difficulties arose owing to the assaults on the legations and consulates of Peru and on peaceful Peruvian merchants and workmen in Bolivia, Ecuador, Colombia, and at Iquique, Tacna and Arica. [Consequent on these occurrences] President Leguía ordered the severance of diplomatic relations with . . . [Chile] and the withdrawal of the Peruvian Legation from Santiago, at the same time sending the Chilean Minister in Lima his passports."—*West Coast Leader, Peruvian Year Book*, 1921, p. A.—"Under Don Augusto B. Leguía, . . . the country made most gratifying ad-



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vancement. In a brief account of some of the progressive steps made during this administration mention must be made of the notable fiscal improvements, resulting from the skilful handling of the national resources, with the consequent improved financial prestige abroad; the settlement of the boundary questions with Brazil and Bolivia, the cordial international relations brought about, the firm handling of the Ecuadorian affair, followed by a conciliatory policy, the victory obtained in the Hague tribunal, etc., in international affairs; in local affairs, many worthy undertakings, the sanitary campaign initiated, the sewerage and paving of Callao begun, the Quarantine Station at San Lorenzo established, the Military Hospital created, likewise the Asylum at Magdalena, the establishment of lighthouses along the coast, the Naval School at La Punta, etc., are additional milestones to national progress."—*Ibid.*, p. 35.—"The economic and financial condition of during the year immediately preceding the war

was far from satisfactory. Commercial and industrial depression, due to the low price of sugar, rubber, cotton and copper—the staple products of Peru—together with the political disturbances which occurred during the early part of 1914, had created conditions which not only threatened the leading industries, but also placed a severe strain on the financial system of the country. Of Peru's agricultural products, the most important is sugar. The declining prices of the year 1913 placed this basic industry in a most unfavorable condition. . . . Guillermo Billinghurst was elected President of Peru in 1912. Soon after his accession to power differences developed with the national Congress which became more acute during the course of the year 1913. A situation finally developed which led the Congress to express its opposition by refusing to vote the budget for 1914. The President thereupon declared that in view of this refusal he would regard the budget of the previous year as in force, and proceeded to act accordingly. In February, 1914, a military uprising led by Colonel Benavides forced the resignation of President Billinghurst and exiled him from the country. The Congress thereupon proceeded to elect Colonel Benavides, whose rank was raised to that of general, to the provisional presidency of Peru pending a new election. The outbreak of the World War found Peru, therefore, in the most unfavorable economic, financial and governmental situation to withstand the strain which the European conflict involved. Under the most favorable conditions, Peru is a country financially dependent on Europe. Her merchants have been accustomed to long term credits, her banks are in the main financed by European capital. The immediate effect of the war was to bring about a violent decline in customs receipts as well as a marked, although less serious, decline in the revenues from other sources."—L. S. Rowe, *Early effects of the war on Peru*, pp. 3, 14-15.

1909.—Peru favored in settlement of boundary disputes with Bolivia and Chile. See *ACRÉ DISPUTES*: 1909.

1910.—Represented at Fourth International American Conference. See *AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF*: 1910.

1912-1913.—Putumayo atrocities.—*Revelations of Sir Roger Casement*.—The rubber industry suffered not only from oriental competition, but from reports of cruelty to Indians coupled with forced labor in the rubber district of Putumayo. The chief offender in this traffic was the Amazon Rubber Company, an Anglo-Peruvian concern. Rumors of inhuman conduct practised by the officials of the company had reached the outer world. Sir Roger Casement, then British consul at Rio de Janeiro, was instructed to make an investigation. This report, published in July, 1912, revealed a serious scandal and created considerable sensation in the United States and Great Britain. The Peruvian government denied all knowledge of the abuses and took immediate steps to suppress the evil. The British and Peruvian governments both appointed commissioners to proceed to the Putumayo region and investigate the charges. The House of Commons appointed a select committee to take the evidence of officials connected with the headquarters of the company in London. The Peruvian government appointed commissions to frame a scheme of reforms, at the same time deputing a permanent commissioner and a judge to reside in the district. On August 8, 1912, the pope issued an encyclical on the Putumayo case. On September 13 the Peruvian parliament passed a resolution demanding punishment of the guilty offi-

cials, and also protesting against the American and British attitude towards the atrocities in the region of the Amazon river. "On March 19 [1913], the Peruvian Amazon Co. was wound up in London, but the investigation continued, although the atrocities themselves were shown to have practically disappeared. Peru claimed that accounts were exaggerated, and José Arana, against whom attacks were chiefly directed, offered himself for trial."—*American Year Book*, 1913, p. 127.

1914.—Percentage of railways controlled by the government. See RAILROADS: 1917-1919.

1914-1916.—Internal affairs during World War.—Financial difficulties.—Improvement in internal finances.—Withdrawal of Peruvian minister at Washington.—In September, 1914, President Billinghurst stated that the strictest internal economy would be necessary for Peru, and that a foreign loan would have to be floated. It was believed that ex-President Leguía was hostile to Billinghurst's methods and an attack was made on his house and he was forced to leave the country. "Political discontent, which had been occasionally manifested under previous presidents, reached a climax under Billinghurst whose arbitrary rule stimulated the disaffection. Rumors of his project for the settlement of the long-standing dispute with Chile about Tacna and Arica somehow provoked suspicions that he was unduly favorable to Peru's former antagonist. After the President had suspended the publication of a newspaper which served as the organ of the opposition and had arrested some prominent politicians, early on the morning of February 4, 1914, Colonel Oscar Benavides and other military leaders boldly seized Billinghurst, forced him to resign, and deported him to Chile. Despite the opposition of the Vice-President, the provisional government which the revolutionists organized was promptly acknowledged by Peruvian authorities as legal. The United States and leading nations of Latin America soon recognized the Benavides régime."—W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American nations*, pp. 350-351.—Colonel Benavides unexpectedly resigned in August, 1915, and ex-President José Pardo was elected in his place. "President José Pardo of Peru resigned on account of ill health on March 15, 1916, in favour of the first Vice-President, Ricardo Bontin. In his message he had called attention to economic affairs, which, although in bad shape at the outset of his administration, now [1916] have a satisfactory outlook. Due to mismanagement in previous years, the national debt had risen to £8,559,679 on Dec. 31, 1915, and the revenue had fallen off 40 per cent. To remedy this it was necessary to practice strict economy and to create new resources. For this purpose new taxes were imposed, including an inheritance tax, varying from one per cent. to 11 per cent., a 10 per cent. duty on many hitherto free articles, and a new export duty on minerals. Financial conditions improved steadily throughout the year, there being a large increase in both exports and imports and a corresponding increase in customs receipts. . . . Early in the year [1916] the Peruvian Minister at Washington was recalled because the Government could not afford to keep up the legation. It was rumored in July that Peru and Venezuela had entered upon a secret agreement to seize large tracts of land involved in boundary disputes with Colombia and Ecuador. The Peruvian Supreme Court held that contracts made under Peruvian laws could not be affected by the British 'Trading with the Enemy' Act. A peace treaty was completed between Peru and Uruguay which provides for a commission of five

members to which shall be submitted all questions, not constitutional, which do not yield to ordinary diplomacy. This commission shall have at least one year in which to investigate, and after their report there shall be a six months' delay, after which, should a settlement still be impossible, the matter shall be carried to The Hague. The treaty is for five years and is to be continued indefinitely unless one country wishes to withdraw."—*American Year Book*, 1916, p. 115.

1917.—Severance of diplomatic relations with Germany.—"On Feb. 8 [1917] the Peruvian Minister of Berlin was instructed to demand reparation and indemnity for the sinking of the Peruvian bark *Lorton* on Feb. 5 by a German submarine in Spanish territorial waters and in a later note to the American Government the Government of Peru expressed its appreciation of the 'principles and intentions' of the United States in breaking off diplomatic relations with Germany. The German Government, on Feb. 15, replied to the Peruvian note and stated that the case of the *Lorton* was under investigation. On July 28 President Pardo addressed the Peruvian Congress, sympathetically outlining the substance of President Wilson's address to Congress of April 2, adding that Peru 'can not be indifferent to the words of President Wilson and adheres . . . to such noble purposes.' . . . On Aug. 8 the Peruvian Senate unanimously adopted the following resolution: 'In view of the high and democratic ideas expressed by President Wilson on the Republic of the United States taking part in the European conflict, the Senate of Peru declares that it emits a vote of sympathy to the United States of North America on account of the declarations made by its President that embody for the Republics of the American Continent the rules of the united action to which their purposes must be consecrated.' On Aug. 9 it was announced that the Peruvian Government had refused an offer of the German Government to submit the case of the *Lorton* to a Prize Court and again insisted on reparation and indemnity therefor. No reply having been received to the further notes of the Peruvian Government with reference to the *Lorton* the Government on Sept. 26 demanded satisfaction from Germany within eight days, adding that, if its demands were not met, diplomatic relations would be severed. . . . 'On Oct. 6 the Peruvian Congress by a vote of 105 to six decided to sever relations with Germany and on Oct. 11 it was announced that the Government had granted the use of Peruvian ports to a British squadron. In notifying Secretary Lansing of the breach of diplomatic relations the Peruvian Foreign Minister indicated that the Peruvian Government acted in accordance with its desire 'that the policy of the whole continent be a concerted ratification of the attitude of the United States, which took up the defense of neutral interests and insisted on the observance of international law.'"—*American Year Book*, 1917, pp. 56-57.

1919.—Emigration encouraged.—"According to the immigration decree of 1910, the nation undertakes to pay 3rd class fare for the white immigrant who is not a gipsy, and for three members of his family, provided that, his admittance having been agreed to, his morality is sound. It guarantees the living and lodging expenses of the immigrant and his family for a term of six days, counting from the time of landing, and his transport to the place that he elects for residence. A board of officials, representatives of the Government and the Maritime Sanitary authorities examine either personally or through their subordinates under their responsibility, both immigrants and their

families and luggage: immigrants are allowed to land only at Callao for the present. . . . Of some four hundred British immigrants who took advantage of the above decree, many preferred to return home, some remained and found suitable employment, but practically none but an insignificant percentage actually undertook colonization work, despite the facilities the laws provide."—*West Coast Leader, Peruvian Year Book*, 1921, p. 45.

1919.—Represented at Paris conference and at Versailles. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1919-1920.—General election.—Peaceful victory of Leguia.—Promulgation of new constitution.—"Augusto B. Leguia received an overwhelming majority of the electoral vote in Peru in the elections which took place in May [1919]. Notwithstanding this, it became known that it was the intention of the government of Dr. Pardo to avoid complying with the popular will. Congress, controlled by the friends of the government, was to nullify the elections and a third person or compromise candidate was to have been elected, who consequently would not have had a popular majority. In carrying out this plan the former government began to close printing offices, where publications supporting Leguia were published, placing therein military guards, which were withdrawn by the present government, notwithstanding that judges, the Superior Court and later the Supreme Court ordered the Minister of Justice and other authorities to return these properties to their owners. At the same time persons in public life and those identified with politics as well as workmen, all supporters of Leguia, were imprisoned. These acts of force were clearly dictatorial and were carried out in spite of public protest. In view of this, and as these repressive measures increased day by day, the supporters of Leguia, backed by public opinion, decided as a last measure to act, in order that the popular vote be not made sport of. On the morning of July 4, President Pardo was taken from the palace and placed in a separate department in the penitentiary, where he was treated with every consideration. The public forces respected the popular will and joined the movement, which took place without bloodshed. There was no interruption in the social and business life of the city. The holiday proclaimed in honor of the United States was held as planned. Enthusiastic meetings took place in the provinces in favor of the new government as soon as the news reached them, and the authorities and soldiers everywhere joined the movement without hesitation. The Supreme Court and other institutions have already recognized the new government. President Leguia has received from all parts thousands of letters, cablegrams and telegrams of congratulation. There has been no change whatsoever in the normal life of the country."—E. Higginson, consul-general of Peru in the United States, *Statement issued in 1919*.—"After . . . [the] general election [of 1919], congress adopted a new Constitution which was promulgated in January 1920. The principal features of the new Constitution are: The renewal of the legislative power shall be complete and shall necessarily coincide with the executive power. The term of both powers is five years. The legislative power consists of a senate of 35 senators and a chamber of 110 deputies. The senators and deputies and the President of the Republic are elected by direct popular vote. The regular annual session of congress shall be not less than 90 or more than 120 days. An extra session of congress may be called

by the executive whenever he deems expedient. The senate and chamber of deputies shall only meet jointly to inaugurate their sessions, sanction international treaties, and to execute the electoral powers vested in them by the constitution. Members of congress are ineligible to any other public office. Diplomatic ministers shall be appointed by the president and confirmed by the senate. Constitutional guarantees shall not be suspended by any law or authority. Changes in office in the judiciary shall be determined by a law which expressly prescribes the exclusive conditions of promotions. The tax on incomes shall be progressive. Disputes between capital and labor shall be submitted to compulsory arbitration. Congress shall not grant personal rights involving an outlay of the national treasury. Congress shall not issue legal-tender currency except in case of war. There shall be three local legislatures, representing the north, center, and south of the Republic, which shall meet annually during a period of 30 days, and whose acts shall be communicated to the National Executive for fulfilment, who, in case of non-acceptance, shall submit them, with his observations, to congress in order that they may follow in that body the same procedure as vetoed laws. The provisional councils are autonomous in the management of matters intrusted to them, but the levying of excise taxes must be approved by the Government. There shall be a council of state (cabinet) composed of six members chosen by a vote of the council of ministers and confirmed by the senate. Only the Government may grant, according to law, pensions and compensations. No one shall receive from the Government more than one salary or compensation. The mineral resources are nationalized entirely when located within fifty kilometres of the coast or frontiers."—*Latin-American Year Book*, 1920, pp. 575-576.

1920-1921.—Dispute with Bolivia over seaport claims. See BOLIVIA: 1920-1921.

1921.—American influence on education.—Centennial celebration.—During March, 1921, about thirty American educators were sent to Peru to act as supervisors in the schools, and to introduce American methods of education. The week commencing July 28, was devoted to a celebration of the centenary of independence. The United States, Great Britain, France, Holland, Belgium, Italy, Germany, Spain, Mexico, China and Japan all sent special envoys and the papal nuncio was also present. All South America was represented except Chile, Ecuador and Venezuela.

1922.—United States arbitrator in Tacna-Arica dispute. See CHILE: 1921-1922.

1922.—Need of railways to develop resources. See RAILROADS: 1912-1922.

See also: LATIN AMERICA; ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: South American republics; HOUSING: South America; LIBRARIES: Modern: South America; MUSIC: Primitive: Peru; MYTHOLOGY: Latin American; TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented, etc.

ALSO IN: R. Lloyd, *Twentieth century impressions of South America*.—H. Urteaga, *Ancient races*.—A. Garland, *Peru*.—W. B. Parker, *Peruvians of today*.—G. Bulnes, *Chile and Peru*.—J. Pardo, *Peru: Four years of constitutional government*.—H. Bingham, *In the wonderland of Peru*.—A. Smith, *Peru as it is*.—P. F. Martin, *Peru of the twentieth century*.—J. B. Bassett, *Brazil and Peru boundary question*.—A. F. Bandler, *Islands of Titicaca and Koati*.—H. Franck, *Vagabonding down the Andes*.—G. Guinness, *Peru: Its story, people and religion*.—E. M. Borchard, *Tacna-*

Arica controversy (*Foreign Affairs*, Sept., 1922).—E. M. Crampton, *Controversy over Tacna and Arica and the Washington conference* (*Southwestern Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1922).—H. F. Wright, *Tacna-Arica controversy* (*Catholic World*, June, 1922, pp. 390-397).—V. A. Belaunde, *Treaty of Ancon in the light of international law*.

PERU, Upper. See CHARCAS, LAS.

PERUGIA (ancient Perusia).—"Beside the Tiber as it emerges first upon the plain, rises a great hill to a height of 1200 feet above its waters, which has the position of a spur thrown forward from the northern mountains; and standing at the centre of the northern line of the level country, its summit commands absolutely the whole region. . . . Prehistoric man naturally first occupied this citadel; the Pelasgi built upon it; and the Etruscans made it one of their greatest cities,—a prominent member of their historic league. It was they who gave it the name of Perusia. The Romans early coveted the town, as the unavoidable capital and mistress of Umbria; and their consul Fabius in B.C. 309 succeeded in taking it. After several unsuccessful revolts the Etruscans acquiesced in Roman rule, . . . and Perugia gradually became a thorough Roman municipium. In B.C. 40 came the [war of Perusia], . . . which utterly destroyed the ancient city, . . . leaving no trace behind but the indestructible Etruscan walls, which still exist. The consul Lucius Antoninus, fleeing before Octavius Augustus, took refuge in Perugia, which supported him for seven months, and fell by famine; then the citizens themselves set fire to their beloved city, and it perished. When it arose from its ashes it was Augustus himself who built it, and it received the name of Augusta Perusia. The city never suffered another destruction. . . . Successively Byzantine fortress and Lombard duchy, the town at length shook itself free from foreign restraint, and began about eleven hundred A.D. to assert its natural hegemony over Umbria. Then came the centuries of extraordinary domestic conflict, . . . wars with Assisi, battles with Spoleto, sacks of Arezzo, till the valleys were red with the blood of the unfortunate inhabitants. The lesser towns gradually gave way before the stronger, till Perugia asserted its rule over all. . . . Not content with their outer conflicts, the citizens of Perugia fought constantly between themselves,—brawling, murdering, battling, burning, demolishing, till it is a wonder that any buildings of the Middle Ages remain to-day. . . . Yet, in accordance with the history of other cities, through all this turmoil within and wars without Perugia waxed even stronger and wealthier; her most prosperous centuries were certainly the fourteenth and fifteenth. Before the establishment of the power of the nobles, three extraordinary men at different times obtained sole mastery of the city, men who were first pure condottieri: . . . Michelotti in 1393, the great Braccio Fortebraccio from 1416 to 1424, and Niccolo Piccinino in 1440. . . . From the struggles between the nobles after 1450 the Baglioni finally emerged supreme, having killed, banished, or utterly subdued their rivals; and began about 1488 that tyrannical domination of the family which was the predominant characteristic of mediæval Italian towns. . . . Their sway was ended in 1535 by Pope Paul III., . . . who took Perugia by force, demolished their castles, and banished them. The Papacy had for five hundred years pretended to exercise suzerainty over the city. . . . But after Paolo Farnese their rule was absolute. Upon the site of the Baglioni strongholds he built a gigantic fortress,—a Bastille, which subjected and imprisoned the Perugians for three hundred years. The

joy with which they pulled this down upon the occupation by Victor Emmanuel in 1860 was not less than that of the Parisian populace in 1790. In the domain of art Perugia came later into the fold of the Renaissance than Assisi, or Siena, or Florence. . . . Pietro Vannucci became so identified with the town, adorning it with his frescoes and canvases and conducting there a school of painting, that he received the appellation of Perugino."—E. R. Williams, Jr., *Hill towns of Italy*, pp. 162-166.—See also BAGLIONI.

PERUGIA UNIVERSITY. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 890-1345: Other universities.

PERUGINO (Vannucci), Pietro (1446-1524), Italian painter. See PAINTING: Italian: Early Renaissance.

PERUSIA. See PERUGIA.

PERUVIAN BARK. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Introduction of Peruvian bark.

PERUVIAN INDIANS. See AMERICA: Prehistoric.

PERUVIAN QUIPU. See QUIPU.

PERUZZI FAMILY, Florentine traders. See MONEY AND BANKING: Mediæval: 12th-14th centuries: Florentine banking.

PERVICCIO, island in the northeastern part of the Adriatic sea, just off the Croatian coast, about thirty-five miles southeast of Fiume. It was promised to the Croats, Serbs and Montenegrans by the Treaty of London, 1915. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

PES, Roman unit of measurement. See FOOT.

PESCADORES ISLANDS, group of small islands in the Strait of Formosa, west of Formosa. See JAPAN: Name.

1895.—Ceded to Japan. See SHIMONOSEKI, TREATY OF (1895).

1922.—Status quo maintained at Washington conference. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

PESCHIERA SUL GARDA, fortress at the foot of Lake Garda, fifteen miles west of Verona, Italy. It is famous as one of the four Austrian fortresses known as the Quadrilateral, the others being Mantua, Legnago and Verona. During the Napoleonic campaigns and until Italian unity had been effected these places played an important part in the fighting in northern Italy.

PESHAWAR, or Peshawur, city in British India, about eleven miles from the entrance to Khyber Pass. (See INDIA: Map.) It is an important military station. See KHYBER PASS; AFGHANISTAN: 1803-1838; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 33.

PESHKOV, Alexei Maximovitch. See GORKY, MAXIM.

PESHTA OF THE MAHRATTAS, title of the head of the Mahratta confederacy in India. At first only prime minister, the peshwa at length supplanted his master and founded an hereditary dynasty, with the capital at Powna. The last peshwa, Baji Rao, was dethroned by the British in 1818.—See also INDIA: 1662-1748; 1798-1805; 1816-1819.

PESSOA, Epitacio da Silva (1865-), president of Brazil, 1919-1922. See BRAZIL: 1918; U.S.A.: 1921.

PEST, city in Hungary, on the right bank of the Danube. It was incorporated with Buda in 1872 to form Budapest. See BUDAPEST.

PESTALOZZI, Johann Heinrich (1746-1827), Swiss educator. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: Rousseau; 18th-19th centuries: Pestalozzi, etc.; 19th century: Herbart, etc.

PETILENCE. See PLAGUE.

PÉTAÏN, Henri Philippe Benoni Omer Joseph (1856-), French marshal. Commanded

an army corps in Artois, 1914; commander of the 2nd Army, 1915; chief of the general staff, 1916; commander-in-chief of French armies on the western front, 1916; became marshal of France, 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: II. Western front: a, 5; 1916: II. Western front: b, 8; b, 14; 1917: I. Summary: b, 2; 1917: II. Western front: b, 2, i; b, 3; f, 3; 1918: II. Western front: g, 9, iv; n, 1; 1918: IX. End of the war: c.

PETALISM, vote of banishment which the ancient Syracusans brought into practice for a time, in imitation of the Ostracism of the Athenians. (See **OSTRACISM**.) The name of the citizen to be banished was written, at Syracuse, on olive-leaves, instead of on shells, as at Athens. Hence the name, petalism.—Based on Diodorus, *Historical library*, bk. 11, ch. 26.

PETER, Saint (Simon Peter), apostle and disciple of Christ, successively at Jerusalem, Antioch and Rome (last residence sometimes disputed by Protestant historians). Converted the first non-Jewish adherent to Christianity (the centurion Cornelius); depicted as holding the Keys, and regarded as the first bishop of Rome. See **CHRISTIANITY**: A.D. 33-70; **PAPACY**: Saint Peter and the church at Rome; 1869-1870; **ANTIOCH**.

Peter I, the Great (1672-1725), tsar of Russia, 1682-1725. Freed himself from the regency of his half-sister Sophia, 1689; suppressed revolt of the Stryeltsy, 1698; founded St. Petersburg, 1703; carried on war with Charles XII of Sweden, 1700-1721; against Persia, 1722-1723; introduced Western culture into Russia. See **EUROPE**: Modern: Russia's part in European history; **RUSSIA**: 1697-1704; Peter the Great: Travels, etc.; 1703-1718; **ALASKA**: 1741-1787; **CANALS**: Russia; **ECCLESIASTICAL LAW**: 1453-1917; **EDUCATION**: Modern: 18th century: Russia; **PETROGRAD**: Location; **RUSSIAN LITERATURE**: 1650-1800; 1689-1752; **UKRAINE**: 1700-1721.

Peter II (1715-1730), tsar of Russia, 1727-1730. See **RUSSIA**: 1725-1730.

Peter III (1728-1762), tsar of Russia, 1762. See **RUSSIA**: 1761-1762.

Peter I, king of Aragon and Navarre, 1094-1104.

Peter II, the Catholic (c. 1174-1213), king of Aragon, 1196-1213. See **ARAGON**; **ALBIGENSES**: 1210-1213.

Peter III (1236-1286), king of Aragon, 1276-1286. See **CORTES**: Early Spanish; **ITALY** (Southern): 1282-1300.

Peter IV (1317-1387), king of Aragon, 1336-1387.

Peter I, the Cruel (1333-1369), king of Castile and Leon, 1350-1369. See **SPAIN**: 1273-1460; 1366-1369.

Peter, the German, ruler of Hungary, 1044-1045. See **HUNGARY**: 972-1116.

Peter I (1844-1921), king of Serbia, 1903-1921. See **SERBIA**: 1885-1903; 1903-1908; **JUGO-SLAVIA**: 1921.

See also **PEDRO**.

PETER LOMBARD (Petrus Lombardus) (c. 1100-1160), bishop of Paris, 1159-1160. Wrote his famous "Sententiae," 1145-1150. See **ASTRONOMY**: 130-1600.

PETER OF MORONE. See **CELESTINE V**.

PETER THE HERMIT (c. 1050-1115), one of the leaders of the First Crusade. See **CRUSADES**: 1095; 1095-1096; 1096-1099.

PETER THE VENERABLE (c. 1093-1156), abbot of Cluny. See **MISSIONS**, **CHRISTIAN**: 11th-16th centuries.

PETERBOROUGH AND MONMOUTH, Charles Mordaunt, Earl of (c. 1658-1735), English military and naval officer. Commander of the

English expedition against Spain during the War of the Spanish Succession; successfully besieged Barcelona, 1705; recalled to England, 1707; became commander-in-chief of the naval forces on the accession of George I, 1714. See **SPAIN**: 1705; 1706.

PETERHOUSE COLLEGE, Cambridge. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**: 912-1257; England: Cambridge.

PETERLOO, Massacre of (1819). See **ENGLAND**: 1816-1820.

PETERS, Karl (1856-1918), German explorer. Founded German East Africa Company, 1885; made extensive explorations in Africa; became imperial commissioner for German East Africa, 1891; court martialed and dismissed for cruelty to the natives, 1897; reinstated, 1906. See **AFRICA**: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899; **PAN-GERMANISM**: Doctrine defined; **TANGANYIKA TERRITORY**: German colonization.

PETER'S ISLAND, one of the Virgin islands in the West Indies, east of Porto Rico. See **VIRGIN ISLANDS**.

PETER'S PENCE.—King Offa, of the old English kingdom of Mercia, procured, by a liberal tribute to Rome, a new archbishopric for Lichfield, thus dividing the province of Canterbury. "This payment . . . is probably the origin of the Rom-teoh, or Peter's pence, a tax of a penny on every hearth, which was collected [in England] and sent to Rome from the beginning of the tenth century, and was a subject of frequent legislation. But the archiepiscopate of Lichfield scarcely survived its founder."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, ch. 8, sect. 86.—See **PAPACY**: 8th-16th centuries.

PETERSBURG, Russia. See **PETROGRAD**.

PETERSBURG, Virginia, town in Virginia, on the Appomattox river, twenty-two miles south of Richmond.

1864-1865.—Siege and evacuation of. See **U.S.A.**: 1864 (June: Virginia): Grant's movement, etc.; 1864 (July: Virginia); (August: Virginia); 1865 (March-April: Virginia).

1917.—Adopts city manager plan. See **CITY MANAGER PLAN OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT**: Result of the experiment.

PETERSHAM, Battle of (1787). See **MASSACHUSETTS**: 1786-1787.

PETERVARDEIN, Battle of (1716). See **HUNGARY**: 1699-1718; **TURKEY**: 1714-1718.

PÉTLIA, Battle at. See **SPARTACUS**, **RISING OF**.

PETION, Alexandre Sabes (1770-1818), Haitian general and political leader. President of Haiti, 1807-1818. See **FRANCE**: 1792 (September); (September-November); **HAITI**, **REPUBLIC OF**: 1804-1880.

PETIT SERJEANTY. See **FEUDALISM**: Organization.

PETITION OF RIGHT (1628).—In English law, the term petition of right means the process by which under certain circumstances a subject may proceed against the Crown, or the sovereign in person. The procedure is principally governed by the Petition of Right Act, 1860. "Under the maxim that the Crown can do no wrong, it is exempt from criminal proceedings, and even from a civil action arising in tort. Civil actions also against the Crown or its servants for the recovery of real or personal property (except in particular instances where a different remedy is provided by statute . . .) can only be brought by the particular process of Petition of Right, which is available to the subject in cases of debt, or for damages or breach of contract; but this remedy is not available in actions arising out of tort."—E. W. Ridge's

Constitutional law of England, p. 37.—In 1628 “the Commons . . . under Wentworth’s inspiration, decided to bring in a bill which, while ignoring the question of what had been law, should set definite legal limits to the activities of the Crown for the future. Here, however, Wentworth was defeated by the king [Charles I] himself, . . . [who] thought to avoid the issue by asking the Commons whether his ‘royal word and promise were not sufficient guarantee.’ . . . The Commons insisted that there should be some definite understanding between king and parliament as to what were the customs of the realm [before they granted the subsidies for which he asked]. . . . At the suggestion of Coke, therefore, they changed the bill to the form of a petition of right. . . . That is, instead of making a new law, the Commons proposed to fall back upon the appeal to existing statutes.”

—B. Terry, *History of England*, p. 148.—The following is the text of the Petition of Right: “To the King’s Most Excellent Majesty. Humbly show unto our Sovereign Lord the King, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons in Parliament assembled, that whereas it is declared and enacted by a statute made in the time of the reign of King Edward the First, commonly called, ‘Statutum de Tallagio non concedendo,’ that no tallage or aid shall be laid or levied by the King or his heirs in this realm, without the goodwill and assent of the Archbishops, Bishops, Earls, Barons, Knights, Burgesses, and other the freemen of the commonalty of this realm: and by authority of Parliament holden in the five and twentieth year of the reign of King Edward the Third, it is declared and enacted, that from thenceforth no person shall be compelled to make any loans to the King against his will, because such loans were against reason and the franchise of the land; and by other laws of this realm it is provided, that none should be charged by any charge or imposition, called a Benevolence, or by such like charge, by which the statutes before-mentioned, and other the good laws and statutes of this realm, your subjects have inherited this freedom, that they should not be compelled to contribute to any tax, tallage, aid, or other like charge, not set by common consent in Parliament: Yet nevertheless, of late divers commissions directed to sundry Commissioners in several counties with instructions have issued, by means whereof your people have been in divers places assembled, and required to lend certain sums of money unto your Majesty, and many of them upon their refusal so to do, have had an oath administered unto them, not warrantable by the laws or statutes of this realm, and have been constrained to become bound to make appearance and give attendance before your Privy Council, and in other places, and others of them have been therefore imprisoned, confined, and sundry other ways molested and disquieted: and divers others charges have been laid and levied upon your people in several counties, by Lords Lieutenants, Deputy Lieutenants, Commissioners for Musters, Justices of Peace and others, by command or direction from your Majesty or your Privy Council, against the laws and free customs of this realm and where also by the statute called, ‘The Great Charter of the Liberties of England,’ it is declared and enacted, that no freeman may be taken or imprisoned or be dismissed of his freeholds or liberties, or his free customs, or be outlawed or exiled; or in any manner destroyed, but by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land: And in the eight and twentieth year of the reign of King Edward the Third, it was declared and enacted by

authority of Parliament, that no man of what estate or condition that he be, should be put out of his lands or tenements, nor taken, nor imprisoned, nor disherited, nor put to death, without being brought to answer by due process of law: Nevertheless, against the tenor of the said statutes, and other the good laws and statutes of your realm, to that end provided, divers of your subjects have of late been imprisoned without any cause showed, and when for their deliverance they were brought before your Justices, by your Majesty’s writs of Habeas Corpus, there to undergo and receive as the Court should order, and their keepers commanded to certify the causes of their detainer; no cause was certified, but that they were detained by your Majesty’s special command, signified by the Lords of your Privy Council, and yet were returned back to several prisons, without being charged with anything to which they might make answer according to the law: And whereas of late great companies of soldiers and mariners have been dispersed into divers counties of the realm, and the inhabitants against their wills have been compelled to receive them into their houses, and there to suffer them to sojourn, against the laws and customs of this realm, and to the great grievance and vexation of the people: And whereas also by authority of Parliament, in the 25th year of the reign of King Edward the Third, it is declared and enacted, that no man shall be forejudged of life or limb against the form of the Great Charter, and the law of the land: and by the said Great Charter and other the laws and statutes of this your realm, no man ought to be adjudged to death; but by the laws established in this your realm, either by the customs of the same realm or by Acts of Parliament: and whereas no offender of what kind soever is exempted from the proceedings to be used, and punishments to be inflicted by the laws and statutes of this your realm: nevertheless of late divers commissions under your Majesty’s Great Seal have issued forth, by which certain persons have been assigned and appointed Commissioners with power and authority to proceed within the land, according to the justice of martial law against such soldiers and mariners, or other dissolute persons joining with them, as should commit any murder, robbery, felony, mutiny, or other outrage or misdemeanor whatsoever, and by such summary course and order, as is agreeable to martial law, and is used in armies in time of war, to proceed to the trial and condemnation of such offenders, and them to cause to be executed and put to death, according to the law martial: By pretext whereof, some of your Majesty’s subjects have been by some of the said Commissioners put to death, when and where, if by the laws and statutes of the land they had deserved death, by the same laws and statutes also they might, and by no other ought to have been, adjudged and executed: And also sundry grievous offenders by colour thereof, claiming an exemption, have escaped the punishments due to them by the laws and statutes of this your realm, by reason that divers of your officers and ministers of justice have unjustly refused, or forborne to proceed against such offenders according to the same laws and statutes, upon pretence that the said offenders were punishable only by martial law, and by authority of such commissions as aforesaid, which commissions, and all other of like nature, are wholly and directly contrary to the said laws and statutes of this your realm: They do therefore humbly pray your Most Excellent Majesty, that no man hereafter be compelled to

make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by Act of Parliament; and that none be called to make answer, or take such oath, or to give attendance, or be confined, or otherwise molested or disquieted concerning the same, or for refusal thereof; and that no freeman, in any such manner as is before-mentioned, be imprisoned or detained; and that your Majesty will be pleased to remove the said soldiers and mariners, and that your people may not be so burdened in time to come; that the foresaid commissions for proceeding by martial law, may be revoked and annulled; and that hereafter no commissions of like nature may issue forth to any person or persons whatsoever, to be executed as aforesaid, lest by colour of them any of your Majesty's subjects be destroyed or put to death, contrary to the laws and franchise of the land. All which they most humbly pray of your Most Excellent Majesty, as their rights and liberties according to the laws and statutes of this realm: and that your Majesty would also vouchsafe to declare, that the awards, doings, and proceedings to the prejudice of your people, in any of the premises, shall not be drawn hereafter into consequence or example: and that your Majesty would be also graciously pleased, for the further comfort and safety of your people, to declare your royal will and pleasure, that in the things aforesaid all your officers and ministers shall serve you, according to the laws and statutes of this realm, as they tender the honour of your Majesty, and the prosperity of this kingdom. [Which Petition being read the 2nd of June 1628, the King's answer was thus delivered unto it. The King willeth that right be done according to the laws and customs of the realm; and that the statutes be put in due execution, that his subjects may have no cause to complain of any wrong or oppressions, contrary to their just rights and liberties, to the preservation whereof he holds himself as well obliged as of his prerogative. On June 7 the answer was given in the accustomed form, 'Soit droit fait comme il est désiré.']" The Commons at once granted five subsidies, amounting to about £350,000, which they had virtually promised in case the king signed the petition.—See also **HABEAS CORPUS**.

ALSO IN: S. R. Gardiner, *History of England*, v. 6, ch. 63.—Idem, *Constitutional documents of the Puritan revolution*, p. 1.—J. L. De Lolme, *English constitution*, v. 1, ch. 7.

PETITIONERS AND ABHORRERS, names applied to two opposing parties in England during the reign of Charles II. "Charles played a waiting game, hoping by repeated prorogations to keep Parliament in check or to drive the opposition to violence. Petitions poured in from all parts of the country begging him to call Parliament. These were answered by counter-petitions from his supporters, declaring their abhorrence of such petitions. The names 'petitioners' and 'abhorrrers' came to be applied to the two great parties, who, however, soon received their more enduring names of 'Whigs and Tories.'"—A. L. Cross, *History of England and greater Britain*, p. 562.—See also **ENGLAND**: 1680.

PETITS MAITRES, second Fronde in France, 1650. See **FRANCE**: 1650-1651.

PETLURA, Simon, Russian general. Anti-Bolshevik leader in the Ukraine; made several unsuccessful attempts to combat the power of Lenin and Trotzky, 1919-1920. See **RUSSIA**: 1918-1920; 1920 (October-November); **UKRAINE**: 1920.

PETRA, ancient city in northern Arabia, about seventy miles northeast of Akabah. From the

second century B.C. it was the capital of the Nabatheans, and an important caravan trade center. See **NABATHEANS**.

PETRA, town in the ancient province of Illyricum. Here Pompey was besieged by Cæsar, 48 B.C. See **ROME**: Republic; B.C. 48.

PETRA, fortified town in the ancient kingdom of Lazica, on the Black sea. See **LAZICA**.

PETRARCH (Petrarca), Francesco (1304-1374), Italian poet and humanist. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1283-1375; **CLASSICS**: Renaissance; **EUROPE**: Renaissance and Reformation.

PETRIE, George (1790-1866), Irish painter and antiquary. First scientific investigator of Irish archæology; received prize of the Irish Academy for his essay on "Round Towers" in 1830. See **ROUND TOWERS**.

PETRIE, William Matthew Flinders (b. 1853), English archæologist. Began his excavations in Egypt, 1881; appointed professor of Egyptology at University college, London, 1892; founded the Egyptian Research Account, later the British School of Archæology in Egypt, 1894. See **EGYPT**: About B.C. 1500-1400; **ABYDOS**, **EGYPT**; **BRITISH MUSEUM**: Explorations and accessions.

PETROBRUSIANS, HENRICIANS.—"The heretic who, for above twenty years, attempted a restoration of a simple religion in Southern France, the well-known Pierre de Bruys, a native of Gap or Embrun, . . . warred against images and all other visible emblems of worship; he questioned the expediency of infant baptism, the soundness of the doctrine of transubstantiation, and opposed prayers for the dead; but he professed poverty for himself, and would have equally enforced it upon all the ministers of the altar. He protested against the payment of tithes; and it was, most probably, owing to this last, the most heinous of all offences, that he was, towards 1130, burnt with slow fire by a populace maddened by the priests, at St. Gilles, on the Rhone. . . . His followers rallied . . . and changed their name of Petrobrusians into that of Henricians, when the mantle of their first master rested on the shoulders of Henry, supposed by Mosheim [Eccles. Hist., v. 2] to have been an Italian Eremitic monk."—L. Mariotti (A. Gallenga), *Frà Dolcino and his times*, ch. 1.

PETROCORII, Gallic tribe established in the ancient Périgord, the modern French department of the Dordogne.

PETROGRAD (formerly **St. Petersburg**): Location and population.—General description.—Foundation by Peter the Great.—Petrograd, as St. Petersburg has been called since 1914, was the capital of the old Russian empire. It was built by Peter the Great on a peninsula and several islands in the Gulf of Finland at the mouth of the River Neva. (See **RUSSIA**: Map of Russia and the new border states.) Its population in 1915 was 2,318,645. "Peter set to work about building the town, which took his name, . . . with wonderful alacrity. In a year's time forty thousand houses were made; there were wharfs, canals, and bridges, and, what was more important, on the little island of Cronslot and on another, Ostrof, formidable defences. . . . On the 27th May, 1703, the first stone of the future city was laid, and by the end of that year it was a fortified town of considerable size. Too great praise cannot be given to the judgment which selected the site, nor to the determination which accomplished, in time of war, a work which usually, in time of peace, would have occupied a much longer period. Obstacles of all kinds had to be combated with. The soil was so unhealthy that ten thousand workmen perished during the build-

ing; the amount of drainage which had to be done was incredible. The people, especially the boyars, heard with great irritation that a new town on a dreary sea waste, cold, and half the year blocked with ice, was to be made the capital; also at the most undesirable extremity of the Empire, in a place, in fact, which had only recently belonged to them, and which they might again at any moment lose, and that they were to live there and be turned into sailors and navigators. However, Peter was resolved upon it, and so, against their inclinations and for the good of their descendants, a large part of an inland people were turned to some extent into a maritime one."—J. A. Shearwood, *Russia's story*, pp. 73-75.—See also RUSSIA: 1703-1718.—During the empire, "the chief industries carried on in St. Petersburg . . . were metal works, cotton and paper making, and the preparation of various kinds of nutritious foods. In the last-mentioned one-fourth of the people employed . . . [were] women. In the districts of which St. Petersburg is the centre, the cotton, wool, silk and flax industries . . . [were] most important."—A. M. B. Meakin, *Russia, travels and studies*, p. 70.—In 1703 Peter the Great ordered all the court and nobility who owned 500 serfs or more to build houses in St. Petersburg and to live in them during the winter season. In 1712 the court moved from Moscow to the new city, and the court life of St. Petersburg was considered the most magnificent in the world. Peter also invited experts and workers from all western nations to establish trades. Catherine II forcibly increased the population to 300,000. She made it a centre for the learned men of Europe by opening the university in 1790 and founding the Imperial library (finished 1810).—See also LIBRARIES: Modern Russia.—"Very little has been written about the English colony at St. Petersburg. They are, in the main the descendants or successors of the English merchants who settled in Archangel in the reign of Philip and Mary, soon after Sir Hugh Willoughby had discovered Archangel. 'The English Factory,' as they were called, removed to St. Petersburg soon after its foundation by Peter the Great. . . . For years past the English colony, once so flourishing in St. Petersburg, . . . [steadily melted away]. It is the story of the Hanseatic League in England over again. The Russians . . . gradually learned to do for themselves what they were once obliged to employ the English to do for them, and the latter . . . gradually sought a fortune elsewhere. 'The English form a colony apart,' wrote Kohl in 1842."—A. M. B. Meakin, *Russia, travels and studies*, pp. 15-16.

1790-1830.—**Affairs with Poland.**—In 1790 the treaty for the third partition of Poland was signed in St. Petersburg. In 1830 under Nicholas I. the Russians believed that Poland was becoming a national menace, and riots took place in which the leaders demanded strong repressive measures to be taken against the Poles.

1800.—**Description of the city.**—The following description of Petrograd is taken from a translation of the German book of Henry Storch, who visited Petrograd in 1800: "In proportion to the bulk, extent, and population of Petersburg, the public security is as great as anywhere. Robberies and murder are so seldom heard of, that all thought of danger is entirely banished. Accordingly, people walk alone, without any weapon or attendance, at all hours of the night, along the streets, and even in the remotest, most unfrequented, and even uninhabited parts of the town. This fact, extraordinary in such circumstances, is, however, not so much the consequences of a well-organized and vigilant police, as the effect of the

good-tempered national character. The common Russian, if not corrupted by a long stay in the residence, seduced by the propensity to drink, or pressed by extreme want, is seldom disposed to excesses of this nature. To this may be added a certain reverence towards the superior ranks, which from the sentiment of their vassalage, and from the way in which they are brought up, is peculiar to this people. . . . Of all the learned establishments in the residence no one is of so indefinite and so extensive a sphere of operation as the Academy of Sciences. The proper aim of all foundations of this class, the enlargement of the boundaries of literary knowledge, should be here at the same time connected with the popular destination of disseminating useful knowledge throughout the country. Peter the Great has often been censured for having, when he had conceived the design of civilizing his people, instituted an academy rather than schools: but this censure is unfounded. His plan was much deeper laid and much more adequately arranged than those who blame him seem to imagine. It appears from the regulation which he designed for the academy founded after his death, that his idea was to make it the mother of all the establishments for education that should be hereafter erected in Russia. . . . Bread, that prime and most general necessary, is brought to St. Petersburg from the countries bordering on the Volga. Both rye and wheat bread are eaten here: the latter is the common food of even the lowest and poorest classes. The goodness of it naturally in part depends on the manner of its preparation, and accordingly varies very much. On the whole, the baking here is good, and often excellent, it being impossible anywhere, even in Paris, to eat better bread than here. At the tables of the great, and in what are called good houses, only wheat-bread is eaten; and what a considerable article this at times may be, is apparent from the housekeeping of Count Razumofsky; where, in far cheaper times, the consumption of the several kinds of bread alone, came annually to upwards of a thousand rubles. The rye-bread is well-tasted and yields more nourishment. It is universally eaten, and even in families of good condition, where they have the means of choosing between this and the other. The poorer sort use what is called black bread, prepared of rye-meal unbolted, and is uncommonly nutritious."—H. Storch, *Picture of Petrograd*, pp. 113, 133, 297.—

1837.—**Winter palace destroyed.**—In 1837 fire broke out in the Winter palace built by Nicholas I, and the damage done was estimated at twenty million roubles. The palace was rebuilt by Nicholas II at an even greater cost.

1838-1851.—**Railways.**—In 1838 a railway was built from St. Petersburg to Pavlosk, and in 1851 the railway to Moscow was completed.

1857.—**Serfs freed.**—In 1857 by the express wish of the tsar, all the serfs in the city were given their freedom.

1879-1885.—**Improvements.**—In 1879 Alexander II opened the present bridge, spanning the Neva, and in 1885, the ship canal to Kronstadt.

1882-1889.—**University disturbances.** See RUSSIA: 1899.

1898.—**Exhibition of British artists.**—In 1898, to show friendship with Great Britain, a great exhibition was held of works of British artists.

1900.—**Naval storehouses burned.**—In 1900 a fire of unknown origin burned the naval storehouses to the ground.

1900-1901.—**University riots.** See RUSSIA: 1900-1901.

1905.—**Revolution.** See RUSSIA: 1904-1905:

Outline of leading events in revolution; 1905 (January); (October).

1910.—First mosque opened.—In 1910 a great Mussulman mosque was opened and Ferdinand of Bulgaria and his queen were invited to the opening ceremonies.

1914.—Strikes. See RUSSIA: 1914 (July).

1914.—Reception of British declaration of war. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 66.

1914.—Name becomes Petrograd.—In 1914, by imperial edict, the name of the city was changed from St. Petersburg to Petrograd.

1917-1919.—Effects of World War and revolution.—“In Petrograd one of the things that . . . [struck] coldness to one's heart . . . [was] the long lines of scantily clad people standing in the bitter cold waiting to buy bread, milk, sugar or tobacco. From four o'clock in the morning they . . . [began] to stand there, while it . . . [was] still black night. Often after standing in the line for hours the supplies . . . [ran] out. Most of the time only one-fourth pound of bread for two days was allowed; and the soggy, black peasant's bread is the staff of life in Russia—it is not a 'trimming' like our American bread. Cabbage is also a staple diet. . . . Petrograd with food for three days was not tragic or sad. Russians accept hardships uncomplainingly. . . . Weeks at a stretch the street cars would not run. People walked great distances without a murmur and the life of the city went on as usual. . . . The most remarkable thing about Russians is this wonderful persistence. Theaters somehow managed to run two or three times a week. The Nevsky after midnight was as amusing and interesting as Fifth Avenue in the afternoon. The cafés had nothing to serve but weak tea and sandwiches, but they were always full. A wide range of costumes made the picture infinitely more interesting. There is practically no 'fashion' in Russia. Men and women wear what they please. At one table would be sitting a soldier with his fur hat pulled over one ear, across from him a Red Guard in ragtags, next a Cossack in a gold and black uniform, earrings in his ears, silver chains around his neck, or a man from the Wild Division, recruited from one of the most savage tribes of the Caucasus. . . . Street fighting grew more serious as the Kerensky government tottered, and to go about the streets meant that one often found oneself in dangerous places, packed in angry mobs of newly aroused citizens. People were always being killed by snipers in order to start riots.”—L. Bryant, *Petrograd under the Bolsheviks* (Travel, Jan., 1919).—See also RUSSIA: 1917 (March 8-15); (April); (July); (August-September); (October-November); 1918-1920; BOLSHÉVIKI: Development and political form; WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: d; e; f; p.

1917-1922.—Restrictions on foreigners.—In 1917 the Communists forbade foreigners to enter or leave Petrograd. Many tried to leave by way of Finland only to perish in nearly every case among the swamps and morasses. In 1920 British subjects were allowed to leave, but as all property was declared to belong to the Communist government, they had to be extradited at the expense of the British government. In 1922, the port was re-opened to foreign trade. “Foreign trade, . . . according to the Russian journal, *Economic Life*, was dwindling as a result of the ever-decreasing gold reserve and the lowering of Russian industrial production. Plans were being laid in Petrograd at the end of July to restore the port, which before the war was one of Russia's greatest economic assets, and

which is now in a sad state of decay. Since navigation reopened in May, some 206 ships were reported to have landed cargoes; of these only eight were able to obtain return cargoes.”—*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1922, p. 1076.

1918.—Capital moved to Moscow. See RUSSIA: 1918 (January-March).

ALSO IN: M. Buchanan, *City of trouble*.—G. Dobson, *St. Petersburg*.—W. B. Stevoni, *Petrograd, past and present*.

PETRONILLA, queen of Aragon, 1137-1163. PETRONIUS MAXIMUS, Roman emperor (Western), 455.

PETTIGREW, James (1828-1863), American general. Served in the Confederate army during the Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1860 (December): Major Anderson at Fort Sumter.

PETTY SCHOOLS, medieval schools where elementary reading and writing, “the petties,” comprised the course of study. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 4th-15th centuries.

PEUCINI.—“The Peucini derived their name from the little island Peuce (Piczino) at the mouth of the Danube. Pliny (iv. 14) speaks of them as a German people bordering on the Daci. They would thus stretch through Moldavia from the Carpathian Mountains to the Black Sea. Under the name Bastarnæ they are mentioned by Livy (xl. 57, 58) as a powerful people, who helped Philip, king of Macedonia, in his wars with the Romans. Plutarch (*Life of Paullus Æmilius*, ch. ix.) says they were the same as the Galatæ, who dwelt round the Ister (Danube). If so, they were Gauls, which Livy also implies.”—Church and Brodrick, *Germany of Tacitus: Geographical notes*.

PEUKETIANS. See CENOTRIANS.

PEUTINGER, Konrad (1465-1547), German humanist and historian. See HISTORY: 22.

PEUTINGERIAN TABLE.—This is the name given to the only copy which has survived of a Roman official road-chart. “Tables of this kind were not maps in the proper sense of the term, but were rather diagrams drawn purposely out of proportion, on which the public roads were projected in a panoramic view. The latitude and longitude and the positions of rivers and mountains were disregarded so far as they might interfere with the display of the provinces, the outlines being flattened out to suit the shape of a roll of parchment; but the distances between the stations were inserted in numerals, so that an extract from the record might be used as a supplement to the table of mileage in the road-book. The copy now remaining derives its name from Conrad Peutinger of Augsburg, in whose library it was found on his death in 1547. It is supposed to have been brought to Europe from a monastery in the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem, and to have been a copy taken by some thirteenth century scribe from an original assigned to the beginning of the fourth century or the end of the third.”—C. Elton, *Origins of English history*, ch. II and plate 7.

ALSO IN: W. M. Ramsay, *Historical geography of Asia Minor*, pt. 1, ch. 6.

PEVENSEY, village in Sussex, England. It was the landing-place of William the Conqueror, September 28, 1066, when he came to win the crown of England. See also ANDERIDA.

PEYTON, Sir William Eliot (1866-), British general. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 1.

PFALZ, PFALZGRAF, German terms signifying Palatine and Palatine Count. See PALATINATE OF THE RHINE; PALATINE, COUNTS.

PFALZBURG, Capture of (1636). See GERMAN: 1634-1639.

PFALZ-CITIES. See HANSA TOWNS.

PFEIL, Joachim Friedrich, Count (1857-), German explorer in Africa. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1889.

PFLANZER-BALTIN, Karl, Freiherr von (1855-), Austrian general. Served in Galician and Carpathian campaigns, 1915-1916. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: c; f, 6; i, 6; i, 9.

PFORTE, Capture of. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

PHÆACIANS.—"We are wholly at a loss to explain the reasons that led the Greeks in early times . . . to treat the Phæacians [of Homer's *Odyssey*] as a historical people, and to identify the Homeric Scheria with the island of Corcyra [modern Corfu]. . . . We must . . . be content to banish the kindly and hospitable Phæacians, as well as the barbarous Cyclopes and Læstrygonæ, to that outer zone of the Homeric world, in which everything was still shrouded in a veil of marvel and mystery."—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, v. 1, ch. 3, sect. 3.

PHÆDRUS, Latin fabulist. See LATIN LITERATURE: B. C. 43-A. D. 14.

PHÆSTUS, city of ancient Crete. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities: Cretan area; Neolithic age; Minoan age: B. C. 2200-1600.

PHAGOCITES. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Opsonins.

PHALANX, term adopted by François Fourier as the name of the Socialistic community living in a "phalanstery" or common dwelling. See SOCIALISM: 1832-1847; 1840-1847.

PHALANX, Macedonian.—"The main body, the phalanx—or quadruple phalanx, as it was sometimes called, to mark that it was formed of four divisions, each bearing the same name—presented a mass of 18,000 men, which was distributed, at least by Alexander, into six brigades of 3,000 each, formidable in its aspect, and, on ground suited to its operations, irresistible in its attacks. The phalangite soldier wore the usual defensive armour of the Greek heavy infantry, helmet, breast-plate, and greaves; and almost the whole front of his person was covered with the long shield called the *aspis*. His weapons were a sword, long enough to enable a man in the second rank to reach an enemy who had come to close quarters with the comrade who stood before him, and the celebrated spear, known by the Macedonian name *sarissa*, four and twenty feet long. The *sarissa*, when couched, projected eighteen feet in front of the soldier, and the space between the ranks was such that those of the second rank were fifteen, those of the third twelve, those of the fourth nine, those of the fifth six, and those of the sixth three in advance of the first line; so that the man at the head of the file was guarded on each side by the points of six spears. The ordinary depth of the phalanx was of sixteen ranks. The men who stood too far behind to use their *sarissas*, and who therefore kept them raised until they advanced to fill a vacant place, still added to the pressure of the mass. As the efficacy of the phalanx depended on its compactness, and this again on the uniformity of its movements, the greatest care was taken to select the best soldiers for the foremost and hindmost ranks—the frames, as it were, of the engine. The bulk and core of the phalanx consisted of Macedonians; but it was composed in part of foreign troops."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 48.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 6; MACEDONIA: B. C. 367-356.

PHALARIS, Brazen bull of.—Epistles of.—Pharlaris is said to have been a rich man who made himself tyrant of the Greek city of Agrigentum in Sicily, about 570 B. C., and who distinguished himself above all others of his kind by his cruelties. He seems to have been especially infamous in early times on account of his brazen bull. "This piece of mechanism was hollow, and sufficiently capacious to contain one or more victims enclosed within it, to perish in tortures when the metal was heated: the cries of the suffering prisoners passed for the roarings of the animal. The artist was named Perillus, and is said to have been himself the first person burnt in it by order of the despot."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 43.—At a later time Phalaris was represented as having been a man of culture and letters, and certain Epistles were ascribed to him which most scholars now regard as forgeries. The famous treatise of Bentley is thought to have settled the question.

PHALERUM. See PIRÆUS.

PHANAGORIA, ancient Greek colony on the island now called Taman, opposite the Crimea. See BOSPHORUS, CIMMERIAN: City and kingdom.

PHANAR. See PHANARIOTS.

PHANARIOTS, or Phanariotes.—The name Phanariots was originally given to the inhabitants of Phanar, a Greek quarter in Stambul, Constantinople. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries it was specifically used for Greek officials who ruled in the Danubian provinces of the Turkish empire. "The reduction of Constantinople, in 1453, was mainly achieved by the extraordinary exploit of Mahomet II. in transporting his galleys from the Bosphorus to the interior of the harbour, by dragging them overland from Dolma Bactche, and again launching them opposite to the quarter denominated the Phanar, from a lantern suspended over the gate which there communicates with the city. The inhabitants of this district, either from terror or treachery, are said to have subsequently thrown open a passage to the conqueror; and Mahomet, as a remuneration, assigned them for their residence this portion of Constantinople, which has since continued to be occupied by the Patriarch and the most distinguished families of the Greeks. It is only, however, within the last century and a half that the Phanariots have attained any distinction beyond that of merchants and bankers, or that their name, from merely designating their residence, has been used to indicate their diplomatic employments."—J. E. Tennent, *History of modern Greece*, v. 2, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *Ottoman power in Europe*, ch. 4.—J. Samuelson, *Roumania, past and present*, ch. 13, sect. 3-7.

PHANES, Greek mercenary general. See EGYPT: B. C. 525-332.

PHARAE, ancient Greek city of Achæa, in northern part of the Peloponnesus. See ACILÆAN LEAGUE.

PHARAOH.—The title which was given to the kings of ancient Egypt, "appears on the monuments as *piraa*, 'great house,' the palace in which the king lived being used to denote the king himself, just as in our own time the 'porte' or gate of the palace has become synonymous with the Turkish Sultan."—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments*, ch. 2.—See also EGYPT: State organization in the early period.

PHARAOHITES. See GYPSIES.

PHARISEES, ancient Jewish sect. See SADUCEES; CHASIDIM.

PHARMACY. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 10th century.

PHARNABAZUS (fl. 413-373 B.C.), Persian general and statesman. Became satrap of Phrygia, 413 B.C.; took part in war against Athens, 413 B.C.; against Sparta, 399 B.C.; against Egypt, 385, 377-373 B.C. See GREECE: B.C. 413; B.C. 411-407.

PHARNACES (fl. middle of 1st century B.C.), son of Mithradates VI and ruler of the kingdom of the Bosphorus. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 47-46.

PHARRARMEN-INSTITUTE, Austrian system of charity administration. See CHARITIES: Austria and Hungary: 1783-1909.

PHARSALIA, Battle of. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 48.

PHARSALOS, Battle of. See TURKEY: 1897.

PHAZANIA, ancient name for Fezzan, southern Tripoli. See FEZZAN.

PHEIDIAS or **Phidias** (c. 500-c. 432 B.C.), Greek sculptor. See SCULPTURE: Greek: B.C. 5th century; ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.

PHELAN, James Duval (1861-), American political leader. Mayor of San Francisco, 1897-1902; United States senator, 1915-1921. See SAN FRANCISCO: 1901-1909: Struggle with political corruption.

PHELPS' AND GORHAM'S PURCHASE (1788). See NEW YORK: 1786-1799.

PHERÆ, town in ancient Thessaly which acquired an evil fame in Greek history, during the fourth century, B.C., by the power and the cruelty of the tyrants who ruled it and who extended their sway over the greater part of Thessaly. Jason and Alexander were the most notorious.

PHI BETA KAPPA, the oldest of the American Greek letter fraternities, and the only one making the cultivation of scholarship its central aim. It was started December 5, 1776, in William and Mary college, Williamsburg, Virginia. Five years later, chapters were formed at Harvard and Yale. These are now the oldest in the country, since the original chapter was suffered to lapse. Eligibility to election is confined to a fraction of the graduates of a college (usually not more than one-tenth of the graduating class), who have distinguished themselves in the subjects defined as the "humanities." A charter has been granted to Oxford university, England, through the instrumentality of American Rhodes scholars. Chapters now exist in most American colleges and universities of the first rank. Sometimes elections are made in the junior year as a mark of special distinction. In some chapters alumni members are chosen from those who have made original contributions to scholarship of special merit.

PHIDIAS. See PHEIDIAS.

PHILADELPHIA, Asia Minor.—The city of Philadelphia, founded by Attalus Philadelphus of Pergamum, in eastern Lydia, not far from Sardes, was one in which Christianity flourished at an early day, and which prospered for several centuries, notwithstanding repeated calamities of earthquake. It was the last community of Greeks in Asia Minor which retained its independence of the Turks. It stood out for two generations in the midst of the Seljuk Turks, after all around it had succumbed. The brave city was finally taken by the Ottoman sultan, Bayezid, or Bajazet, about 1390. The Turks then gave it the name Alashehr.—Based on G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 2, sect. 4.

PHILADELPHIA, Pennsylvania: Location.—**Area**.—Population.—Philadelphia, the largest city of Pennsylvania, lies a little over a hundred miles up the Delaware river. It was founded in

1682 and laid out in the form of a parallelogram of only two square miles in area, but the town soon outgrew the original boundaries. "In 1854, by the consolidation of nine districts, thirteen townships, and six boroughs, the city and the county were made one in extent, having an area of about 130 square miles. . . . The population in 1910 was 1,549,008, and the census of 1920 . . . [gives the city a population of 1,823,779]. . . . The city extends far beyond the county line, and . . . its manufacturing and shipbuilding industries stretch along the Delaware for many miles beyond the . . . political boundaries. . . . The city lies on the west bank of the Delaware River, which separates it from Camden, New Jersey, a city of about 150,000, which bears the same physical relation to Philadelphia as Brooklyn does to Manhattan. . . . Philadelphia is third in population and second in manufactures in the United States."—G. E. Nitzsche, *Philadelphia, guide to the city*, pp. 8-9.

Penn's commission.—**Founding of city**.—**Rapid growth**.—"Among William Penn's instructions to his commission charged with selecting a site for the location of a settlement were the following injunctions: 'Let the Rivers and Creeks be sounded on my side of Delaware River, Especially Upland (renamed Chester) in order to settle a great Towne, and be sure to make your choice where it is most navigable, high, dry, and healthy, that is, where the most ships may best ride, of deepest draught of Water, if possible to Load, or unload at ye Bank or Key side. . . . It would do well if the River coming into the Creek be navigable, at least for Boats up into ye country. . . . Such a place being found out, for Navigation, healthy Situation and good Soyle, for Provision, lay out ten Thousand acres contiguous to it in the best manner you can as . . . the Libertyes or the said Towne.' From these directions it is clear that the site of Philadelphia was not determined by chance or accident. The locality chosen for the 'great Towne' was 105 miles up the deep tidal estuary of the Delaware on the neck of land made by the Delaware and its first large western tributary, the Schuylkill. Here the Delaware curves westward, giving to the Philadelphia side a deep channel close to the shore, and back of the river the land rises in gentle steps to rolling hills 400 feet in altitude in the north and western parts of the city. The level but well-drained land near the river was an ideal spot for a city. The higher lands gave fine residential sections, and falling streams capable of furnishing water power for the first industries. The wisdom of the early selection has been proved by the subsequent development of the city. Following . . . instructions, Penn's surveyor devised a town plot of checker-board pattern with the streets running at right angles to one another. No provision was made for diagonal streets, now so necessary for rapid transit. The town plot . . . contained . . . nearly thirteen hundred acres, and was not enlarged from 1682 until the year 1854. The streets were laid out on a grand scale for that day, with a width of fifty feet, a figure which unfortunately was not frequently changed in extending streets until recent years. To avoid any 'man-worship' the streets running north and south were numbered, while those running east and west were named for the trees of the forest. Broad Street and High (Market) Street were given greater width than the other streets. Four 'squares' or parks were laid out in regular positions in the city plot. The growth of the city from the first was remarkable. . . . By 1700 . . . [it] had seven hundred houses; and by 1750 over two thousand. In the eighteenth

century, Philadelphia became the leading city on the continent. This success was due to several causes. First, religious toleration was practiced in Pennsylvania on a broad scale; secondly, the cordial welcome of foreigners led many thousands to migrate to the colony from the Rhine regions of Germany; third, the great natural resources and diversified agriculture furnished material for commerce; and last, the mingling of sects and races developed an intellectual type more liberal than the New Englander or the Southerner of that time. Philadelphia in the eighteenth century literally swarmed with organizations for economic, intellectual and social welfare. The first fire company [1718] and the first fire insurance company [1752] were organized; educational and scientific bodies were created, such as the College (later the University), the Library Company [1731], the American Philosophical Society [1727] and the first medical school. The welfare of the poor was promoted by the Pennsylvania Hospital, and the Quaker Almshouse and Bettering House, where separate provision was first made for the care of the insane. In nearly all of these associations Benjamin Franklin played an important part, either as originator or as supporter. Particularly in scientific research, with Franklin, Rittenhouse, Godfrey, Bartram and others, did Philadelphia stand pre-eminent."—*Philadelphia, the nation's historic city* (*Bulletin of the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce*, 1917, pp. 1, 16, 18-19).—See also PENNSYLVANIA: 1682-1685; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

1641.—First settlement by New Haven colonists. See NEW JERSEY: 1640-1655.

1686-1692.—Bradford's press. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1685-1693.

18th century.—Commercial importance. See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries: North American colonies.

1701.—Chartered as a city. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1701-1718.

1701-1789.—Proprietary charter.—The period "1701-1789 covers the life of Penn's proprietary charter, which fell with the Revolution, and the thirteen years of suspended municipal life which ensued. After the Revolution, 1776 to 1789, such government as the city had was to be found in the courts of the justices of the peace and the legislative commissions already inaugurated during this period."—E. P. Allinson and B. Penrose, *City of Philadelphia as it appears in the year 1893*, p. 5.—See also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Police defined.

1719-1729.—First newspapers.—Franklin's advent. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1704-1729.

1731-1732.—Establishment of first subscription library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Franklin and first subscription library; Early history.

1746-1760.—Raids of privateers.—Franklin's military defense organization.—Streets paved.—At the opening of the eighteenth century "the dominion of the Penns was the granary of America, Philadelphia the supply port for provisions for any fleet operating above the Spanish Main. [See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries: North American colonies.] . . . But [1746] now the trade with the other British possessions was nearly at a standstill from the privateers in the bay. Landing parties burned plantations in the Lower Counties, and the city was in terror lest some French or Spanish man-of-war would make its way up the unprotected river, and have the place at its mercy. The Assembly was appealed to in vain to do something for defence. No militia law could be passed, had the

Assembly been ever so willing, for, with no Governor, there was no power of legislation. Money, it had not, and while controlled by Quakers, it would not undertake obligations for such purposes. Benjamin Franklin, who for some years had been Clerk of the Assembly, and also Deputy Postmaster-General under ex-Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, wrote a pamphlet called *Plain Truth*, and suggested an association for defense at a town meeting. About 1,200 persons present enrolled themselves. Altogether about 10,000 names came in from the whole province. A battery was established where sixty years afterward, the United States started its navy yard (foot of Prime street, Philadelphia)."—H. M. Jenkins, ed., *Pennsylvania, Colonial and Federal*, v. 1, p. 408.—"Up to this time, and nearly as late as 1760, Philadelphia continued unpaved. Its soil being of clay, the streets were nearly impassable in the rainy season. Franklin's first move towards better streets was to engage a man to sweep around the market-place. He then wrote a pamphlet suggesting that people would find it pleasant and profitable to have the streets swept before their own doors. This experience of moderately clean streets gave rise to a general desire of the people to have their avenues paved, but it took ten years before the desirable improvement could be carried out."—C. Morris, ed., *Makers of Philadelphia*, p. 9.

1763.—Uprising of "Paxton Boys." See SUSQUEHANNAS.

1765.—Stamp Act.—Speeches of Colonel Barré and Patrick Henry. See U.S.A.: 1765: News of the Stamp Act in the colonies.

1772-1773.—Reception of tea ships from England. See U.S.A.: 1772-1773.

1774.—Effect of Boston Port Bill. See U.S.A.: 1774 (May-June).

1774.—First Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September); (September-October); STATE, DEPARTMENT OF, UNITED STATES: 1774-1789.

1775.—Reception of news of Lexington and Concord. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April-June).

1775.—Second Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1775 (May-August).

1776-1800.—Philadelphia, informal capital of the united colonies, and the temporary capital of the republic.—"In Carpenter's Hall the First Continental Congress met to adopt measures to encourage Massachusetts, and to threaten the English merchants with non-importation and non-exportation agreements. In the State House, the Second Continental Congress opened its session; there Washington accepted command of the Continental forces; there the Declaration of Independence was debated and adopted; there Congress received the French Minister, the first foreign representative in this country; there the Articles of Confederation, were framed, and after much delay put into operation. [There the constitutional convention met in 1787]; there Congress and its committees organized the foreign relations, the finance, and the military and naval measures of the war. In Philadelphia, Congress borrowed its first loan, £6,000, as well as printed its first issue of paper money. . . . From 1790 to 1800, Philadelphia was again the capital of the country. Here, in Congress Hall, now so admirably restored, the work of the Congress was carried on. Here the Supreme Court, under the great Judiciary Act of 1789, began its remarkable career. Here [in 1792] the United States Mint was organized in the first building ever owned by the National Government. Here the First United States Bank opened its doors for business and soon erected that imposing structure in Corinthian style,

which is now occupied by the Girard National Bank."—Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce, *Philadelphia, the nation's city*, pp. 18-21.

1777.—British army in the city.—Removal of Congress to York. See U. S. A.: 1777 (January—December).

details of garrison life. The trifling affairs that occurred during the remainder of the season served rather as a zest to the pleasures which engaged them than as a serious occupation. . . . No sooner were they settled in their winter-quarters than the English set on foot scenes of gayety that were



INDEPENDENCE HALL IN 1790

1777-1778.—Gay winter with the British in the city.—Battle of the Kegs.—Mischianza.—“The year 1778 found the British at Philadelphia in snug quarters, unembarrassed by the cares of the field, and, except for occasional detachments, free from other military duties than the necessary

long remembered, and often with regret, by the younger part of the local gentry. . . . Of all the band, no one seems to have created such a pleasing impression or to have been so long admirably remembered as André. His name in our own days lingered on the lips of every aged woman

whose youth had seen her a belle in the royal lines. . . . The military feats about Philadelphia, in the earlier part of 1778, were neither numerous or important. Howe aimed at little more than keeping a passage clear for the country-people, within certain bounds, to come in with marketing. The incident known as the Battle of the Kegs was celebrated by Hopkinson in a very amusing song that, wedded to the air of Maggy Lander, was long the favorite of the American military vocalists; but it hardly seems to have been noticed at Philadelphia until the whig version came in. The local newspapers say that, in January, 1778, a barrel floating down the Delaware being taken up by some boys exploded in their hands, and killed or maimed one of them. A few days after, some of the transports fired a few guns at several other kegs that appeared on the tide; but no particular notice of the occurrence was taken. These torpedoes were sent down in the hope that they would damage the shipping." When Howe was displaced from the command and recalled, his officers, among whom he was very popular, resolved "to commemorate their esteem for him by an entertainment not less novel than splendid. This was the famous Mischianza [or Meschianza] of the 18th of May, 1778; the various nature of which is expressed by its name, while its conception is evidently taken from Lord Derby's fête champêtre at The Oaks, June 9th, 1774, on occasion of Lord Stanley's marriage to the Duke of Hamilton's daughter. . . . The regatta, or aquatic procession, in the Mischianza was suggested by a like pageant on the Thames, June 23rd, 1775. . . . A mock tournament—perhaps the first in America—was a part of the play."—W. Sargent, *Life and career of Major John André*, ch. 9.

ALSO IN: J. T. Scharf and T. Westcott, *History of Philadelphia*, v. 1, ch. 17.—A. H. Wharton, *Through colonial doorways*, ch. 2.

1778.—Evacuation by the British. See U. S. A.: 1778 (June).

1780-1784.—Founding of Pennsylvania Bank and Bank of North America. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1780-1784.

1787.—Seat of Federal constitutional convention. See U. S. A.: 1787.

1789-1855.—Divided responsibility in government.—"From 1789 to 1854 what is now known as the Old City, i.e., from Vine to South Streets, and from the Delaware to the Schuylkill Rivers, grew and prospered under the legislative charter of 1789 and its supplements up to the consolidation act of 1854. The records of this period are of the first importance. In it we note the advent of Philadelphia as a modern American municipality. The entire personality of the city is changed; it becomes the creature of the legislature. Every vestige of a close corporation, which was the distinguishing feature of Penn's charters, is swept away. . . . All freemen have a voice in the election of the municipal government. Throughout the period are manifested the ebb and flow of two distinct lines of policy. Starting out with a remembrance of the evils of divided authority, and a well-expressed effort toward concentration of executive power and responsibility, we find in the latter half of the period a steady reversal of this policy, indicated by the absorption of all branches of executive supervision and control by the various committees of councils. The mayor is, step by step, shorn of his various powers and duties as executive until he is relegated to the position of being simply chief of police and the figure head of the corporation. The responsibility

is scattered through a dozen committees, whose personnel changes from year to year, and the executive wheels are found running by a complex system which could not fail of disastrous results even then. These defects become intensified when carried over into the operations of the immensely consolidated city and county."—E. P. Allinson and B. Penrose, *City of Philadelphia as it appears in the year 1893*, p. 5.

1798.—Bridge built across the Schuylkill. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1789-1842.

1798-1801.—Water supply.—"The city was, in 1798, still supplied with water from pumps in every street, placed near the roadbed, at distances of about sixty or seventy feet. There were few sewers, and they were not properly made; much of the household refuse and garbage was thrown out in the alleys, and in the back yards of the houses. At this time a skilful English architect, Benjamin H. Latrobe, came to Philadelphia, and the matter of water supply was entrusted to him. He decided that water-works should be erected on the banks of the Schuylkill near the city. From these the water could be pumped by steam power into a raised reservoir, so it could be distributed throughout the city. The plan met with great opposition, but was adopted. The place chosen for the works was where Chestnut Street now meets the Schuylkill. The water was carried in a brick tunnel down Chestnut Street to Broad, then to Centre Square (the site of the present City Hall), where an engine raised it thirty-six feet above the ground into a reservoir. From this it was distributed in hollow logs, having a channel of three or four inches in diameter. These were sunk in all the principal streets. The work was begun in 1799. So great was the opposition that the works were injured several times. The water was turned on in January, 1801, and the results were all that the most hopeful had looked for—the health of the people was better, there was greater security against destruction by fire, and habits of cleanliness were induced and strengthened."—A. C. Thomas, *History of Pennsylvania*, p. 192.

1800.—Seat of government removed to Washington. See WASHINGTON, D. C.: 1791-1800.

1814.—Baptist Triennial Convention. See BAPTISTS: Triennial Convention established.

1824.—Visit of Lafayette.—In 1824 Lafayette, who was on a visit to the United States, was invited to Philadelphia and accorded a warm civic welcome.

1827.—First modern trade union formed. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1825-1875.

1833-1864.—Stronghold of anti-slavery agitation.—In 1833 the American Anti-Slavery Society was organized in Philadelphia. From the first the city was a stronghold of the abolitionists and the scene of struggles between the abolitionists and the slave holders. In 1838 an anti-abolitionist mob burned Pennsylvania Hall three days after it was dedicated to the discussion of abolition, temperance and equality. In 1856 the great national convention of the Republican party met here. During the Civil War, the city was a center for the care of the wounded, and in 1864 the great sanitary fair for the benefit of the United State Sanitary Commission was held here.

1854-1887. — Consolidation Act. — Reckless financial management.—By the middle of the nineteenth century "Philadelphia, in common with other great cities, staggered under a burden of laws, ordinances, customs and practices often resulting in legislative and executive maladministration. The consolidation act of 1854 was a

necessary act of great political wisdom at the time. The city and the contiguous territory, which had become densely populated, had practically become one city. There was a common future and common wants. Adequate development was crippled by the multiplicity and jealousy of the many existing governing bodies acting independently of each other. The evils of the situation were recognized. The question of consolidation was agitated for ten years before it was effected. It was opposed by the local leaders. In 1853 the friends of the act met and elected Hon. Eli K. Price for the Senate, and also candidates in the house pledged to support it and it was finally passed January 30, 1854. The act of 1854, while a great advance, did not meet the evils; nor was its intent confirmed to nor its spirit observed by councils. They neglected the exposure and correction of the abuses of the departments and usurped in fuller measure than ever before almost every form of executive duty. If the water department wanted a pump, it was the water committee which decided on the kind, style and horse power. If the highway department paved a street, it was the highway committee which supervised the letting, execution and approval of the contract. There was no general supervision of public work. A condition of affairs, which was bad enough in the Old City, became intolerable when carried into the immensely extended business of consolidated Philadelphia, which had assumed proportions which demanded the most intelligent system and responsible supervision to obtain efficient service and adequate returns for money expended. The financial management became more reckless every year, until the city was threatened with bankruptcy. The most noticeable features of the act of consolidation that are new are the offices of city controller and receiver of taxes, created by the act of 1854. The greatest improvements which took place during the period also had reference to finance. The constitution of 1874 placed a limit to the creation of funded debt, and the act of June 11, 1879, compelled the city 'to pay as you go.' Very shortly after the consolidation act, one whose position gave him every opportunity to measure the defects of our system, and whose abilities entitled his opinion to the greatest weight, summed up in forcible English the radical defects in the organic law. . . . The essence of our present charter, given by the act of 1885, known as the Bullitt Bill, is to be found in the second annual message of Hon. Richard Vaux, Mayor of Philadelphia, 1858."—E. P. Allinson and B. Penrose, *City of Philadelphia as it appears in the year 1893*, pp. 5-6.

1876.—Centennial exhibition. See CENTENNIAL OF 1876; U.S.A.: 1876; 1877.

1885-1919.—New charter known as Bullitt Bill. —"Under the . . . [1885] charter, known as the Bullitt Bill, the attempt . . . [was] made and in theory approximately attained to concentrate all executive power in one head, the mayor, responsible directly for the whole administration to the people who elect him. A few subordinate heads of departments . . . [were] appointed by and responsible to this head, the mayor. A complete separation . . . [was] made between the executive and legislative branches of government. And a stringent limitation . . . [was] placed on the power to accumulate indebtedness. Careful regulations . . . [were] framed for the financial system and methods. Provisions . . . [were] made for the impeachment of corrupt officials. . . . Its framers went as far as they dared to go and not en-

counter the opposition of certain offices or commissions, the vices of which were not so instantly pressing. The executive power . . . [was] vested in the mayor and certain departments. I. Public Safety, director appointed by the mayor; this . . . [included] the police, fire, health and building inspection. II. Public Works, director appointed by mayor; this . . . [included] the old departments of water, gas, highway and survey. III. Receiver of Taxes. IV. City Solicitor. Both city officers elected by the people at the spring municipal election. V. City Treasurer. VI. City Controller. Both county officers elected at the autumn State election. VII. Board of Education, appointed by the judges. VIII. Charities and Corrections; president and four directors appointed by the mayor. IX. Sinking Fund Commission; made up of the mayor, city controller and one member elected by councils."—E. P. Allinson and B. Penrose, *City of Philadelphia as it appears in the year 1893*, p. 7.

1894.—Municipal government conference. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Municipal program framed by the National Municipal League.

1897.—Opening of commercial museum.—A commercial museum which has acquired great importance was opened in Philadelphia on June 2, 1897. "In both aim and results the institution is unique. Other countries, also, have their commercial museums, which are doing excellent work. Their scope, however, is much more limited; the Museum of Philadelphia differing from them in that it is an active, not merely a passive, aid to the prospective exporter. The foreign museums, situated in London, Bremen, Hamburg, Stuttgart, Vienna, Havre, Brussels, and various other commercial centres, do not extend active aid, but content themselves with more or less complete displays of samples of domestic and foreign competitive goods sold in export markets. The theory of their organization is, that the manufacturer, contemplating a foreign business campaign, will be enabled to pursue it intelligently through the study of these samples. The initiative is left to the exporter himself, who must discover what opportunities exist for him abroad; and it is also left to him to take advantage of his opportunities in the way that may seem best to him. The display of manufactured samples is only a small part of the work of the Philadelphia Museum. This institution shows not only what goods are sold in foreign markets, but also where those markets are, what commercial conditions obtain in connection with them, what particular kinds of goods they demand, how these markets may be best competed for, and where the raw material may be most profitably purchased. It furnishes information, furthermore, as to business connections as well as the credit ratings of the agents or firms recommended. To secure specific information it is not necessary to visit the institution itself; for reports of trade opportunities abroad are distributed by the Museum to its members; and these reports are provided with photographs of many of the articles which, at that particular time, are in demand, in certain parts of the world. Under these circumstances, the exporter is practically provided with a staff of expert, foreign representatives, without any expense to himself beyond the merely nominal fee for membership. While its activities are dependent to a certain extent upon the income derived from subscribers, the Museum is not a money-making institution. Indeed, its income from this source does not cover half the expenditures. It is enabled to carry on its work only by reason of the generous, annual appro-

priation provided for it by the City Councils of Philadelphia. But a very large income is required to maintain a staff of 150 employees in Philadelphia, as well as 500 regular and several thousand occasional correspondents scattered throughout the world. The only advantage which the city itself derives from the Museum is that resulting indirectly from the presence of foreign buyers attracted to Philadelphia by the museum's work."—W. P. Wilson, *Philadelphia Commercial Museum* (Forum, Sept., 1899).

1905.—Municipal reform.—By the end of the nineteenth century the historic and once progressive city was in the control of a group of corporations, including the gas company, whose iniquities were being heralded abroad by zealous municipal reformers. "Self-government seemed to have disappeared. . . . In Pennsylvania and Philadelphia [it was said], the corporation pays the machine, and the machine aids the corporation. . . . [In 1905 the objection of the people to the new rates for gas, stirred them to break the power of the corporations.] Philadelphia . . . reformed. It . . . [was] the swiftest and most thorough municipal revolution known in American civic annals. Without an election and without primaries, without warning and without preparation, the great deep of small householders,—which is Philadelphia,—moved from below. . . . The pulpit of small churches knew it before the press, the little division leaders before the ward managers, and they before the chiefs of the organization. In a week, the city seethed. Children of councilmen came crying from the public schools. No one would play with them. Callous, thick-skinned politicians found their mail, their telephones, and their daily tours one hot rain of protest from their old neighbors. Division leaders reported defection by the avalanche. The small householder, the narrow burgher, comfortable, contented, owning his house, careless over ideals, education, corruption, and venal voter, was aflame over a bigger gas bill. It is the old story of ship money and stamp taxes. No vote was necessary. No primary was needed. The leaders of a political machine are ignorant of much, but they know the voice of the voter in the land. John Weaver, the mayor, chosen by the machine, and its lifelong friend and supporter, had been a fair case lawyer and district attorney. Honest, narrow, clean-lived, of a legal mind, restive at the way he was treated as a mere figurehead, he recognized the civic revolution because he was himself of the class that had risen. He had, moreover, in his day won his division and was a ward leader."—*American Review of Reviews*, July, 1905.

1909.—Evil conditions revived.—Defeat of revolt against them.—The old mastery of the city government by an all-powerful and shameless political "machine" was recovered at the end of the term of Mayor Weaver, and conditions were soon as corrupt as before the momentary and partial cleansing had been performed. In 1909 a hopeful revolt against them was undertaken, under the lead of D. Clarence Gibboney but the effort failed.

1911-1915.—Mayoralty of Rudolf Blankenburg.—"There never has been in Philadelphia, since William Penn handed over the charter to the city of his heart (the city named before it was born), an equal four years of growth and of civic uplift than during the Blankenburg administration which has just [1915] gone out of office. It is not desired to dwell on the millions in money which have been saved by an administration free from graft, and administered by business men in a busi-

ness way. . . . It may be said at once and without fear of contradiction, that a full \$5,000,000 have been saved to the city in operating expenses. This has been the least of the administration's accomplishments, and five years from now this money side of it will probably be forgotten. There are three great physical accomplishments that are memorable in their character and epoch making in their effect on the physical character of the city. By the South Philadelphia railroad agreement, with its attendant abolition of grade crossings, an additional area equal to the original city is now made available for homes and factories, for wharves and terminals. Never before had any agency brought the heads of all the great railroads serving this city into a conference in which they were citizens first and railroad men afterward. And the reason they continued in the delicate, long drawn out and sometimes nearly broken negotiations was because they had confidence in the mayor and his counselors, and because they were being asked only for a square deal for the city, and for their companies as well. What administration would not be proud to have given the city the comprehensive rapid transit plan, which will directly benefit every citizen no matter where he lives; and we, on the outside, cannot appreciate the thousand and one moves involved in carrying through this gigantic engineering project. New acts of the legislature, ordinances of councils, legal obstacles, great physical engineering and financial problems, all have apparently been satisfactorily solved. The third great undertaking was the getting under way of the development of the port of Philadelphia that our foreign and coast wide commerce might have room to breathe. This work had been started by previous administrations, but nothing done. . . . The mayor, himself, has said that the greatest single change affected by the administration was the status of the individual employe,—his emancipation from the galling yoke of the political gangster. Free men can hardly imagine the condition of the servitude in which every office holder lived prior to this administration. Compelled to live in certain divisions, where his political services would be most useful, forbidden to move without permission, assessed for political funds, the disbursement of a large part of which was never accounted for, he was made to serve the bosses rather than the dictates of his judgment or conscience. It is true we had a law on our statute books forbidding all this, but it was a dead letter from the day it was passed in 1906 until Rudolf Blankenburg's administration enforced it. Instead of a cringing, fawning set of office holders driven to pull door bells and perform many a mean and odious task for the bosses, within two years the city departments were alive with alert, clean, interested young men. . . . With the close of the Blankenburg administration to-day ends a sixteen-year campaign for the political regeneration of Philadelphia. It is worthy of a retrospective glance. The campaign began soon after Samuel H. Ashbridge took office as mayor, when the true character of his administration was revealed. During this period graft in its coarsest forms became the undisguised purpose and policy of the city government. Its manifestations ranged from the fortunes taken by officials and contractors down to the most sordid . . . traffic in private licenses and the theft of children's pennies in policy gambling. No source of illicit tribute was overlooked. More than two thousand speak-easies flourished under the protection of politicians, yielding vast profits to the promoters and, in return, furnishing

legal addresses for 75,000 fictitious names entered on the voting lists. Gamblers operated in perfect security, and paid a specified percentage of their gains to 'the front.' White slavery during this régime became an organized and protected traffic. The very streets of the city were sold by private treaty to a group of political and financial adventurers. Even from the privations of the helpless paupers of the community graft was extorted to enrich favorites of the ring. . . . In the twelve years of the fight preceding his election Rudolph Blankenburg was a conspicuous exponent of reform. For a long time he was regarded by the public with interest rather than with serious attention; but finally his persistent and picturesque denunciations of the city's despoilers touched the imagination of the ever-growing army of revolt against misrule. He made his greatest impression by the oft-repeated assertion that the mayor of Philadelphia was clothed by the charter with sufficient power to destroy the contractors' combine, and that the election of a reform executive would mean the sweeping away of that evil system. By the time he had convinced the majority of decent citizens on these points they had made up their minds that he was himself the one man qualified for the task. After twelve years of incessant warfare against corruption, therefore, during which the grosser forms of election fraud had been eliminated, the demand for decent government prevailed. Mr. Blankenburg was elected mayor."—C. F. Jenkins, *Blankenburg administration in Philadelphia: A symposium (National Municipal Review, Apr., 1916)*.

1915.—Formation of League to Enforce Peace. See U.S.A.: 1915 (June): League to Enforce Peace.

1917-1919.—Fifth ward election murder and trial.—On September 19, 1917, Policeman George Eppley was shot to death while protecting the Fifth Ward primary elections.—"The murder was the climax of a struggle between rival factions of the Republican 'organization' for control of the Fifth Ward. Behind one of these factions stood the Vares brothers, wealthy political contractors, dominant in the city, but aspiring to State control; behind the other stood the Penrose-McNichol combination, which takes its name from Senator Boies Penrose. . . . These two factions agreed in making up the 'slate' of candidates for some of the important county officers and for magistrates. In the Fifth Ward, however, in which the gunmen's murder took place, there was a struggle between McNichol, represented by his lieutenant, James A. Carey, and the Vares, represented by their lieutenant, a butcher named Isaac A. Deutsch. To these two political manipulators, both of whom had done their share to give the district the nickname of 'the Bloody Fifth,' was left the struggle for a seat in Select Council and the political slavery or freedom of thousands of newly naturalized Jews, constituting the main citizenship of the ward. . . . Through his patrons, the Vares, Deutsch controlled the police. In the two months immediately preceding election thirty patrolmen in the Fifth Ward were transferred refusing to take Deutsch's orders, and their places were taken by willing political servants from other districts. Independent merchants were arrested and prosecuted under obsolete ordinances. A restaurant owner was persecuted to the point of attempted suicide by a Negro policeman stationed in his place of business for the express purpose of driving away customers by an exhibition of bad manners. Street fights in which notorious policemen were concerned occurred nightly.

The first rumblings of publicity on Fifth Ward conditions came with charges that draft exemptions were being sold by the Deutsch workers for political support. But, characteristically, the Jewish residents of the district exerted themselves to avoid open conflict. Formal protests were made to the Mayor [Thomas B. Smith, 1916-1920], by the 'Big Sisters,' a well-known philanthropic organization of women for civic betterment, who reported that such police conditions in 'free America' seriously handicapped their work of Americanization; and the Rev. Dr. McDermott, of the local Roman Catholic church, described conditions as the worst in the thirty-three years of his residence there. To all these reports and the affidavits which accompanied them Mayor Smith's only reply was an assurance that 'the matter would be investigated.' A few days, later, however, he publicly told a delegation of Deutsch workers that he 'stood behind the police.' . . . The Deutsch workers and police from that moment redoubled their violence. On the eve of the [primary] election the political club of the Carey faction was raided, two men slugged unconscious, and a shot fired through the window by a policeman while other officers stood outside the door. On primary election morning came the murder, in full sight of uniformed patrolmen, by gunmen identified for purposes of police protection by gray hats and a white ribbon under their second waistcoat button. Election officers were arrested and polling-places closed. But at midnight the count revealed that Carey had won. . . . The arrest of the Mayor, Deutsch, and Lieutenant Steinberg, alias Bennett, on warrants sworn out by a citizens' committee followed. . . . [An investigation began] which led to the arrest of William Finley, the leading lieutenant of the Vares, the manager and two operatives of the private detective agency which was engaged to bring the gunmen here for \$1,000, and six of the gunmen. And at a six-day hearing in the municipal court the whole plot was laid bare in fourteen hundred pages of testimony. . . . No link is missing in the chain of evidence which binds the Vares organization to the Fifth Ward political thuggery. . . . The testimony showed that Mayor Smith had expressed his intention of 'going the limit to get Carey,' and that he was kept informed as to the successive stages of the campaign's outrages. The hearing was attended by several circumstances which tended to damn Mayor Smith in the public mind quite as much as the evidence actually presented. While Maloney [head of a local detective agency] was being held by the District Attorney as his most important witness, the administration's detective bureau attempted to silence him by issuing a warrant for his arrest as an accomplice. Only the District Attorney's habeas corpus proceedings blocked service of the warrant until after the hearing. The scheme was as obviously designed to suppress evidence as the refusal of the Mayor, even on order of the Court, to submit reports of his investigators on Fifth Ward conditions before the election. For this he was held in contempt of court."—H. P. Quicksall, *Government by murder: The unhappy plight of Philadelphia (Outlook, Oct. 24, 1917)*.—In February, 1918, Jacob Marcia was declared guilty of murder. Mayor Smith was indicted on a charge of conspiracy, but was acquitted in February, 1919.

1919.—New charter.—Uni-cameral system.—Financial provisions.—"Philadelphia's new charter is an epoch-making piece of legislation. The most important single reform is the creation of a small single-chambered council of 21 members, one

for each 20,000 assessed voters, in place of the big cumbersome body of 146 men elected by 'pocket boros.' Each member of the new body . . . will serve for four years. The basis of the new charter was the Bullitt bill, under which Philadelphia has been governed for 32 years, and which concentrated great authority in the hands of the mayor. The new charter, while adhering to the theory of a responsible mayor, provides a system of checks and balances to overcome the abuses which developed under the Bullitt charter. The essential features of the new charter are: (1) The creation of a small council of 21 members, already mentioned. (2) The grant of authority to the city to do its own street cleaning and repairing, to attend to the collection of ashes, waste, rubbish and garbage. (3) The establishment of a business-like budget for city finances. (4) The institution of civil service provisions, among them one making political activity and the payment of contributions by policemen and firemen a misdemeanor punishable by fine and imprisonment. The establishment of a central purchasing department, the office of city architect, a permanent city planning commission and the appointment instead of the election of the city solicitor are also features of the charter. The Bureau of Health is raised to the rank of a department, and the Bureau of Charities, Correction, and Recreation are consolidated in a Department of Public Welfare. The new instrument fails in that it does not eliminate partisan nomination and election. To offset this defect, the legislature adopted a group of reform bills dealing with election matters. Chief among these are an amended personal registration bill, an amended uniform primary act and an act to safeguard 'the intention of the voter' in marking his ballot. Persons unfamiliar with Philadelphia's political condition may fail to appreciate how thoroly the agents of the contractor's machine controlled the voting. Thru control of the legal machinery governing legislation and election, they have upon repeated occasions thwarted the public will. These new laws safeguard the ballot and are no less important than the charter itself in freeing Philadelphia from those political conditions which brought upon her the brand 'Corrupt and Contented.'—*Philadelphia's epoch-making charter (American City, Sept., 1919, p. 202)*.—"Closely linked with the improvement in the form of the city legislature are provisions for paying each councilman an annual salary of \$5,000, and prohibiting dual office holding, an evil which has blighted Philadelphia politics for years. Other political changes embody a model civil service provision, and the prohibition of political activity or political contributions on the part of the police and firemen. Teeth are provided for the law by permitting any taxpayer to bring proceedings to have the employment of any offender declared illegal and to restrain payment of compensation to him. The subjugation of Philadelphia to 'contractor rule' is so notorious that the dramatic element is readily apparent in the vital provision that the city itself shall do its unspecifiable work, such as street cleaning and repairing, and the collection of ashes, waste, rubbish and garbage, except in special cases when a majority of all the members of the council, with the approval of the mayor, may otherwise direct. The vagueness with which such work must ordinarily be specified, and the latitude of interpretation permitted to political satellites in the rôle of minor officials, have in the past given rise to intolerable excesses on the part of political contractors. It was to correct these scandalous

abuses, and to place such work on a basis of honesty and efficiency, that this provision was put into the charter and kept there in the face of the most violent opposition from those who have fattened on the city during a long period, which—be it hoped—is now ended. Another long step in advance is constituted by the financial provisions of the new charter. The mayor is required to submit to the council by October 15 of each year a statement showing the estimated receipts, fixed liabilities, and proposed expenditures of the city for the ensuing year. This statement must be considered in open session by the council, which, not later than December 15, shall pass an ordinance setting forth the financial program for the ensuing year, at the same time fixing a tax rate that will produce sufficient revenue, with the funds from other sources, to meet the fixed liabilities and the current expenditures set forth in the council's financial program. The limit set in this program cannot be exceeded, and the city comptroller is forbidden to countersign any warrant pertaining to any of the appropriations until the council shall have first passed all appropriations necessary for the expenses of the current year."—R. Ramsey, *Politics (National Municipal Review, Aug., 1919)*.

ALSO IN: E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly, 1920, Supplement, pp. 76-78*.

1919.—Convention of Irish-Americans to aid Irish cause. See IRELAND: 1919.

1921.—Further evidence of bad government.—Mandamus evil.—"Not content with establishing numerous governmental agencies in Philadelphia and saddling the cost of maintaining them on the city treasury, the people of Pennsylvania have in many cases adopted an exceedingly vexatious method of having the cost determined. They have given local agencies power to finance themselves out of city funds. . . . Millions of dollars are disbursed annually by the city to satisfy contractual obligations—including the wages of an army of employes—the amounts of which are not fixed by the legislature nor controlled by council. Broad powers to determine what shall be spent for the maintenance of the courts are vested in the judges. The president judge of the municipal court is authorized to appoint 'such tipstaves or employes as are reasonably necessary,' and their number and compensation are to be fixed by a majority of the judges of the court. The president judge is also authorized to appoint a chief probation officer 'and such additional probation officers and employes as he may determine, at salaries not to exceed \$2,500 a year.' Other statutes give judges power to fix the number or compensation, or both, of janitors, stenographers, detectives, etc. The constitution provides that the prothonotary (chief clerk) shall appoint such assistants as may be necessary and authorized by the courts of common pleas of Philadelphia county, and that the clerk of the orphans' court may appoint assistant clerks with the approval of the court. . . . The Philadelphia county prison is managed by a board of inspectors appointed by the courts of common pleas. This board has authority to fix the salaries of all persons employed in the institution, to contract for supplies, and to determine the 'quantum and kind of food to be furnished to each person.' The county commissioners are authorized to draw their warrant on the 'county treasury' for 'any deficiency in keeping and maintaining said prison.' A board of managers, appointed by judges, has authority to establish houses of detention for delinquent

children—one house for each twenty-five children. The powers of the board are as comprehensive as those of the board of prison inspectors mentioned above. A recent act of assembly authorized the creation of a house of detention for untried prisoners which is to be administered in the same way. . . . If there are no appropriated funds against which the agencies can draw warrants, the employé or other claimant to whom promises have been made brings suit against the city. As there is seldom any doubt that the services have been rendered, and that the law of the state makes the city liable for the amount which has been promised, there is usually no point in contesting the case. The city solicitor therefore brings the city into court amicably, agrees to the facts, waives a jury trial, and, except in rare instances, makes no argument on the law. Judgment against the city is the result. The plaintiff then proceeds under an act of assembly which authorizes the court to issue a writ—known as a 'mandamus'—commanding the city treasurer to pay the judgment, with interest and costs, out of any unappropriated moneys in his possession, and if there be none such, out of the first moneys, received for the use of the city. The writ differs from a common law mandamus in that the statute expressly contemplates the possibility of its issuance against an empty treasury. If because of lack of unappropriated funds the writ is not satisfied when presented to the treasurer, it is registered as of the date of presentation, and draws interest at 6 per cent until paid. Claimants not desiring to wait for the city to be in funds to pay their writs have had no difficulty in selling them at par to the banks, which usually regard them as especially choice securities. . . . The use of the writ of mandamus to collect salaries of appointees of judges is peculiarly objectionable. The impression is abroad in Philadelphia that judges are above the law; that they are arbitrarily asserting superiority over the legislative and executive branches of the government. While, in a strict legal sense, their use of the mandamus perhaps does not justify this, nevertheless the spectacle of a judge appointing an employé, fixing his salary, sitting as judge and jury in a suit to collect the salary, rendering judgment in favor of his own appointee, and commanding the city to satisfy the judgment, is not edifying."—C. G. Shenton, *Philadelphia's "mandamus evil"* (*National Municipal Review*, Feb., 1921).

See also CHARITIES: United States: 1921; CITY PLANNING: United States: Progress in city planning; LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Libraries for the blind.

ALSO IN: J. T. Faris, *Romance of old Philadelphia*.—S. F. Hotchkiss, *Penn's green and country towns*.—C. Morris, *Makers of Philadelphia*.—E. P. Oberholtzer, *Philadelphia, a history of city and people*.—L. P. Powell, *Historic towns of the Middle States*.—J. T. Scharf and T. Westcott, *History of Philadelphia*.—G. E. Vickers, *Philadelphia*.—G. R. Russell, *Memorial history of Philadelphia*.—H. M. Lippincott, *Early Philadelphia*.—War History Committee, *Philadelphia in the World War*.

PHILADELPHIA, Tennessee, Battle at. See U.S.A.: 1863 (October-December: Tennessee).

PHILADELPHIA CONFESSION. See BAPTISTS: Principles of faith.

PHILADELPHIA CONGRESSES: 1774. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September); (September-October).

1775. See U.S.A.: 1775 (May-August).

1787. See U.S.A.: 1787.

PHILADELPHIA EXPOSITION. See CENTENNIAL OF 1876; U.S.A.: 1876; 1877.

PHILADELPHUS. See PTOLEMY II.

PHILÆ, island in the Nile, above the First Cataract. It is celebrated for the exceptional beauty of the temples and other ancient structures which cover it. Since the building of the Assouan dam, these are partly submerged during the greater part of the year; but measures have been taken to ensure their preservation. See TEMPLES: Ancient examples; Stage of culture represented by temple architecture.

PHILANTHROPINUM OF BASEDOW, school founded by Johann Basedow at Dessau, 1774. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: Basedow, etc.

PHILANTHROPY. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

PHILASTRIUS, Saint (fl. 4th century), bishop of Brescia. See ASTRONOMY: 130-1609.

PHILIP, one of the twelve apostles of Christ.

Philip (Marcus Julius Philippus), Roman emperor, 244-249. See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

Philip I (1052-1108), king of France, 1060-1108.

Philip II (Philip Augustus) (1165-1223), king of France, 1180-1223. Engaged in the Third Crusade with Richard II of England, 1190; withdrew and declared war on Richard, 1191; won Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Poitou and Touraine from England, 1202-1205; invaded Flanders, 1213; won battle of Bouvines, 1214. See FRANCE: 1180-1224; 1214; ALBIGENSES: 1217-1229; CRUSADES: Map of Mediterranean lands in 1097; 1188-1192; BOUVINES, BATTLE OF; ENGLAND: 1205; JERUSALEM: 1187-1229; LOUVRE: 600-1548; PARIS: 1180-1199.

Philip III, the Bold (1245-1285), king of France, 1270-1285. See CRUSADES: 1270-1271; FRANCE: 1270-1285.

Philip IV, the Fair (1268-1314), king of France, 1285-1314. United the kingdom of Navarre with France, 1284; engaged in war with England, 1294-1297; seized the pope, 1303, and installed the next pontiff at Avignon, 1309; suppressed the Order of the Templars, 1313. See FRANCE: 1285-1314; FLANDERS: 1299-1304; 1314; PAPACY: 1198-1303.

Philip V (c. 1204-1322), king of France, 1317-1322. See FRANCE: 1314-1328; SALIC LAW: Applied to the regal.

Philip VI (1293-1350), king of France, 1328-1350. Began Hundred Years' War with England, 1338; defeated at Crécy, 1346; lost Calais, 1347; acquired Dauphiné, 1349. See FLANDERS: 1328; FRANCE: 1328.

Philip (c. 1177-1208), German king, 1198-1208, duke of Swabia, 1196-1208. In rivalry with Otto, son of the duke of Saxony, for the imperial throne, 1198-1208; excommunicated by the pope, 1201, reinstated, 1207. See CRUSADES: 1201-1203.

Philip I, semi-legendary king of Macedonia.

Philip II (382-336 B.C.), king of Macedonia, 359-336 B.C. Hostage at Thebes, 367-359 B.C.; founded Philippi, 356 B.C.; subdued Thessaly, 352 B.C.; conquered the Phocians, and made peace with Athens, 346 B.C.; defeated the Athenian and Theban army at Chæronea, 338 B.C.; subdued the Peloponnesus, 337 B.C.; prepared to invade Persia, 336 B.C. See GREECE: B.C. 359-358; B.C. 357-336; B.C. 351-348; B.C. 340; MACEDONIA: B.C. 367-356; B.C. 345-336; ATHENS: B.C. 359-338; BALANCE OF POWER: Ancient Greece and Rome; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 6.

Philip III (Arrhidæus) (d. 317 B.C.), king of Macedonia, 323-317 B.C.

Philip IV, king of Macedonia, 297-296 B.C.

Philip V (c. 237-179 B.C.), king of Macedonia, 220-179 B.C. Engaged in war with Ætolian

League, 220-217 B.C.; allied with Carthage against Rome, 214-205 B.C.; renounced leadership in Greece, 196 B.C. See ATHENS: B.C. 200; ROME: Republic: B.C. 215-196.

Philip I, the Handsome (1478-1506), king of Spain 1504-1506. Founder of the Hapsburg dynasty in Spain. See SPAIN: 1496-1517.

Philip II (1527-1598), king of Spain, 1556-1598. Concluded Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis with France, 1559; forced to grant independence to seven northern provinces in the Netherlands, 1579; annexed Portugal, 1580; joined the Holy League against French Huguenots, 1585; sent the armada against England, 1588. See NETHERLANDS: 1555-1558, to 1566; 1568-1572; 1594-1609; ENGLAND: 1588: Spanish armada; 1588-1590; MEXICO: 1535-1822; MOORS: 1492-1609; PAPACY: 1555-1603; PORTUGAL: 1579-1580; SPAIN: 1559-1563; 1596-1602.

Philip III (1578-1621), king of Spain, 1598-1621. See SPAIN: 1598-1700.

Philip IV (1605-1665), king of Spain, 1621-1665. See SPAIN: 1598-1700.

Philip V (1683-1746), king of Spain, 1700-1746. Founder of the Bourbon dynasty; accession to the throne precipitated the War of the Spanish Succession; ceded the Spanish Netherlands, the Milanese, Sardinia and Naples to Austria, 1709. See ITALY: 1715-1735; SPAIN: 1701-1702; 1712.

Philip (Filippo Maria Visconti) (d. 1447), duke of Milan, 1412-1447. See GENOA: 1381-1422.

Philip II, duke of Orleans. See ORLEANS, PHILIP II, DUKE OF.

Philip (Indian Metacomet) (c. 1639-1676), sachem of the Wampanoags, 1662-1676. Led the Indian forces against the colonists in King Philip's War, 1675-1676. See NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675, to 1676-1678.

PHILIP AUGUSTUS. See PHILIP II, KING OF FRANCE.

PHILIP DE ROUVRE (d. 1361), duke of Burgundy. See BURGUNDY: 1364.

PHILIP OF NERI. See NERI, PHILIP.

PHILIP THE BOLD (1342-1404), duke of Burgundy, 1363-1404. See BURGUNDY: 1364; FLANDERS: 1382; 1383.

PHILIP THE EVANGELIST, early Christian missionary. One of the seven chosen by the first Christian church to care for its charities. See CHRISTIANITY: A.D. 33-70.

PHILIP THE GOOD (1396-1467), duke of Burgundy, 1419-1465. See GHENT: 1451-1453; GOLDEN FLEECE, KNIGHTS OF THE ORDER OF THE.

PHILIPHAUGH, Battle of (1645). See SCOTLAND: 1644-1645.

PHILIPPE. See PHILIP.

PHILIPPE DE COMINES (1436-1509), French historian. See HISTORY: 19.

PHILIPPEAUX, Pierre (d. 1794), French revolutionist. See FRANCE: 1792 (September-November).

PHILIPPEVILLE, town in Belgium, about twenty-five miles southwest of Namur. It became a part of the Netherlands by the Treaty of Paris, 1815. See NETHERLANDS: 1813-1830.

PHILIPPI, city of ancient Macedonia, in the northeastern part of the country, about nine miles from the coast. It was founded by Philip II of Macedonia in 356 B.C. See GREECE: B.C. 357-336.

Battles of (42 B.C.). See ROME: Republic: B.C. 44-42.

PHILIPPI, West Virginia, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1861 (June-July: West Virginia).

PHILIPPICS OF DEMOSTHENES. See GREECE: B.C. 357-336; 351-348.

PHILIPPICUS, or Philippicus, Bardanes, Roman emperor (Eastern), 711-713. See ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.

PHILIPPINE COMMISSION. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1899: Problems, etc.; 1900: Progress, etc.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

Geographical features, population, and natural resources.—The Philippine islands form the northern section of the Eastern archipelago, from which they are separated on the south by the Zulu and Celebes seas. On the east they are bounded by the Pacific ocean, and on the northwest by the China sea. [See PACIFIC OCEAN: Map of southeastern Asia.] There is probably no other group in the world that contains so many islands so compactly situated. The official enumeration gives a total of 3,141 islands. The aggregate land area is 115,000 square miles. "Mindanao (area 46,721 square miles) and Luzon (area 44,235 square miles) are by far the largest of the Philippines group, each of them exceeding Cuba (area 43,000 square miles), which was acquired [by the United States] at the same time. Samar is the next largest island, having an area of 5,448 square miles; Palawan (Paragua) has an area of 5,037 square miles; the Visayan group, of which Negros, Panay, and Cebu are the principal islands, has an aggregate area of 25,302 square miles. Panay is the largest of this group, 5,103 square miles; Negros, 4,854 square miles; Cebu, 1,782 square miles. Leyte Island has an area of 4,214 square miles and Mindoro 4,108 square miles. Only two other islands, Bohol (area 1,614 square miles) and Masbate (area 1,732 square miles) exceed in size a thou-

sand square miles. In all cases the area of adjacent islets has been included in that of the main island."—H. M. Wright, *Handbook of the Philippines*, p. 4.—See also BAGUIO.—The population has been steadily growing for several centuries; and as the resources of the islands are great, the growth is expected to continue. In 1903 the government census gave the total population as 7,635,426. In 1910, it was estimated at 8,276,802, and by the census taken by order of the Philippine legislature in 1918, the total population was set at 10,314,310.—"The Philippines reach from the fifth degree of north latitude to the nineteenth. They therefore lie wholly within the tropics, although the Batanes group, north of Luzon, stretches to within more than a hundred miles of the limits of this zone. The temperature, as might be expected in an island climate, is remarkably equable. The warmest and coldest months in Manila differ by less than four degrees centigrade, and the greatest observed differences are only twenty-two degrees apart."—A. L. Kroeber, *Peoples of the Philippines* (*Handbook Series*, no. 8, pp. 24-25).—"The underground forces are still active, and reveal themselves by tremendous eruptions, and especially by earthquakes, which are almost continuous. Manila was nearly destroyed by the earthquake of 1863. Cyclones, here called typhoons, range as

far south as about 10° N. lat. . . . The magnificent primeval forests contain dye-woods, hard-grained timbers, and medicinal and other useful plants. On the plantations are grown rice, maize, sugarcane, cotton, coffee, and tobacco (second only to that of Cuba). The largest wild mammal is the buffalo, and next to it the gibbon; there are several other species of apes and lemurs, antelopes

stones."—D. Patrick, *Chambers' concise gazetteer of the world*, p. 554.

People: Negritos.—Malays.—Wild tribes.—“For administrative purposes the Spaniards divided the natives into Christians, non-Christians and Moros, and this classification has been retained by the American government. . . . The Christians include the seven groups of people who are prop-



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IGORROTE PILGRIMS ON THEIR WAY TO A SHRINE

and deer. The carnivora are chiefly represented by several species of civet, the insectivora by the porcupine. The only dangerous animals are the crocodile, snakes, and some other reptiles. Birds are very numerous, of the gallinacean family especially. Insects are very various; and the fresh and marine waters abound in fishes, turtles, molluscs, and sponges. Of minerals the most widely diffused are coal and iron; copper also occurs, as well as gold, lead, sulphur, cinnabar, quicksilver, alum, besides jasper, marble, and fine building

erly known as Filipinos, who inhabit the Christian provinces and are subject to the legislative power of the Philippine legislature. The Moros are the Mohammedans who make up the mass of the population of the southern islands. The non-Christians, including the wild men and the Moros, constitute approximately one-eighth of the population . . . and are scattered over about one-half of the territory. According to race and origin, the people fall into two groups, the Malays and the aborigines. The former include the Filipinos,

Moros and wild men, distinguished by religion and different stages of development; the latter are the few Negritos who still linger superfluous on the stage."—C. B. Elliott, *Philippines to the end of the military régime*, pp. 86-87.—"It is universally conceded that the Negritos of to-day are the disappearing remnants of a people which once populated the entire archipelago. They are, physically, weaklings of low stature, with black skin, closely-curling hair, flat noses, thick lips, and large, clumsy feet. In the matter of intelligence they stand at or near the bottom of the human series, and they are believed to be incapable of any considerable degree of civilization or advancement. Centuries ago they were driven from the coast regions into the wilder interior portions of the islands by Malay invaders, and from that day to this they have steadily lost ground in the struggle for existence, until but a few scattered and numerically insignificant groups of them remain. . . . It is believed that not more than 25,000 of them exist in the entire archipelago and the race seems doomed to early extinction."—Philippine Commission, *Report*, Jan. 31, 1900, p. 11.—The term Indonesian is sometimes applied to peoples of Mindanao who are physically superior to the other inhabitants of the islands, being taller and of lighter skin. They are now supposed to represent the last migration of Malays to the islands. (See MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE.) "It is now generally conceded that the various tribes and people of the Archipelago other than the Negritos are of Malayan ancestry. But Malay as a descriptive term is not very definite. 'We are not wise enough,' says Le Roy, 'to say just who or what the Malay is. He is the typical brown man of the Asiatic Seas and their confines.' . . . These people are supposed to have come to the Archipelago in three waves. Long before the arrival of the Portuguese, in the Southwest, in their little sharp-proved and out-riggered water craft, they pushed their way from island to island until they reached the Philippines. The earliest wave probably extended even to the north of Luzon, Formosa and Japan. These early comers have been called pre-Malays. They were no doubt followed by others of the same kind, who, having been for a long period subjected to certain influences, were more advanced in civilization than their predecessors. There is a Sanscrit element in their language which suggests the time when their ancestors were subjected to the influence of the Buddhists, who came from India, and for generations, ruled Java and the neighboring islands. When the Spaniards arrived, the Malays who represented this second wave were considerably more advanced than the people of the hills and forests. A last wave carried the Mohammedan Malays, who became known as Moros. Being warlike and virile, they soon proselyted their predecessors in the southern islands and even succeeded in making a Mohammedan city of Manila. . . . [The civilized tribes] who are known as Filipinos, occupy substantially all the cultivated parts of the country north of Mindanao. They now number about eight millions and represent nearly every stage of race culture. They are divided into seven groups, commonly called tribes, the Tagalogs, Visayans, Bicolos, Ilocanos, Pampangos, Pangasines and Ibangs. . . . The Tagalogs and Visayans constitute the majority of the civilized Filipinos. The former occupy the central part of Luzon; the latter, Cebu, Panay, Negros, and the other islands of the central group. The Ilocanos live along the northwest coast of Luzon; the Pampangos and Pangasines on the great plains between Manila

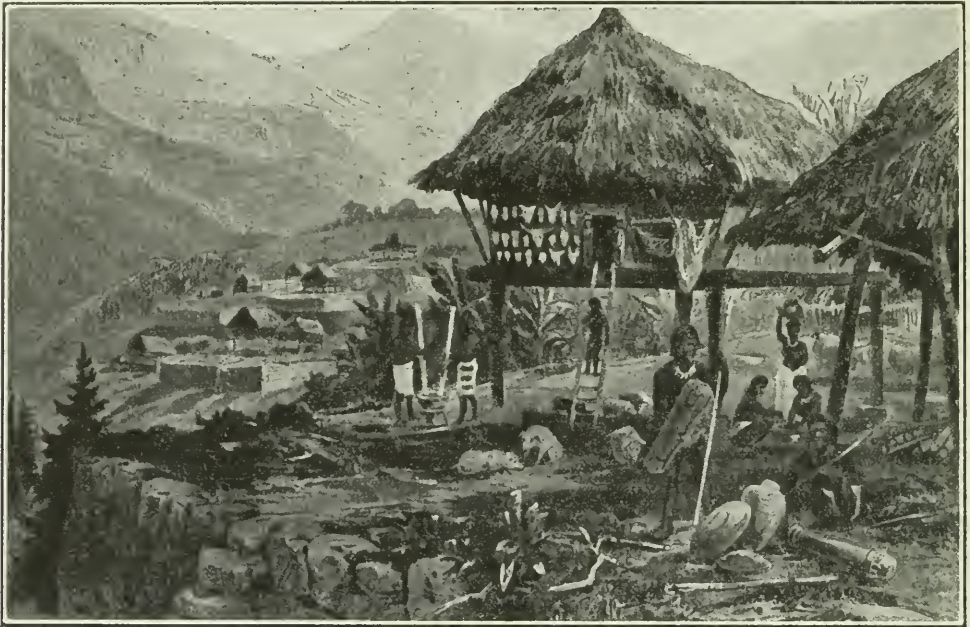
and the Gulf of Lingayan; the Bicolos in the extreme south of Luzon; and the Ibangs in the Cagayan Valley in the northeast of Luzon."—C. B. Elliott, *Philippines to the end of the military régime*, pp. 89-90, 100.—"The wild tribes are numerous. . . . The title of Igorrotes or Igolotes, once the name of a single tribe, was gradually extended to include the several head-hunting tribes of Luzon, and later to embrace nearly all the wild tribes of the island. There are said to be several tribes of head-hunters, comprising the Altasanes, the Apayaos, and the Gaddanes. It is stated that a Gaddanes youth cannot hope to win a bride unless he can show at least one human head in proof of his valor. Of the tribes of Mindanao, seventeen are included among the pagan hill tribes, and most of the smaller islands have interior wild tribes."—C. Morris, *Our island empire*, p. 395.—In spite of their reputation for head-hunting, the Igorrotes have always shown wonderful capacities in certain directions. "The most colossal industrial undertaking in the Philippines, and perhaps the most stupendous task ever accomplished by a thoroughly savage people, is to be found in the marvellous Igorrote rice-terraces in the mountains of central and northern Luzon Island. Here the Igorrotes have built terraces for the growing of rice, like giant steps up the sides of steep mountain canyons to a height of three thousand feet or more. These terraces, each of which is flooded with water at certain periods of the year, are wonderful feats of engineering; sometimes they follow the contour of a canyon for as great a distance as half a mile without varying two inches from the dead level."—H. M. Wright, *Handbook of the Philippines*, p. 48.

Language.—Malay origin.—Superior character of Tagalog.—Hindu influences.—Writing.—"With the exception of the Negrito, all the languages of the Philippines belong to one great family, which has been called the 'Malayo-Polynesian.' . . . It should be a matter of great interest to Filipinos that the great scientist, Baron William von Humboldt, consider the Tagalog to be the richest and most perfect of all the languages of the Malayo-Polynesian family, and perhaps the type of them all. 'It possesses,' he said, 'all the forms collectively of which particular ones are found singly in other dialects; and it has preserved them all with very trifling exceptions unbroken, and in entire harmony and symmetry.' The Spanish friars, on their arrival in the Philippines, devoted themselves at once to learning the native dialects and to the preparation of prayers and catechisms in these native tongues. They were very successful in their studies. . . . In this way the Bisayan, the Tagalog, and the Ilokano were soon mastered. In the light of the opinion of von Humboldt, it is interesting to find these early Spaniards pronouncing the Tagalog the most difficult and the most admirable. 'Of all of them,' says Padre Chirino [Jesuit], 'the one which most pleased me and filled me with admiration was the Tagalog. Because, as I said to the first archbishop, and afterwards to other serious persons, both there and here, I found in it four qualities of the four best languages of the world: Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Spanish; of the Hebrew, the mysteries and obscurities; of the Greek, the articles and the precision not only of the appellative but also of the proper nouns; of the Latin, the wealth and elegance; and of the Spanish, the good breeding, politeness, and court.' The Malayan languages contain a considerable proportion of words borrowed from the Sanskrit, and in this the Tagalog, Bisayan, and Ilokano are in-

cluded. Whether these words were passed along from one Malayan group to another, or whether they were introduced by the actual presence and power of the Hindu in this archipelago, may be fair ground for debate; but the case for the latter position has been so well and brilliantly put by Dr. Pardo de Tavera that his conclusions are here given in his own words. 'The words which Tagalog borrowed,' he says, 'are those which signify intellectual acts, moral conceptions, emotions, superstitions, names of deities, of planets, of numerals of high number, of botany, of war and its results and consequences, and finally of titles and dignities, some animals, instruments of industry, and the names of money.' From the evidence of these words, Dr. Pardo argues for a period in the early history of the Filipinos, not merely of commercial intercourse, like that of the Chinese, but of Hindu political and social domination. 'I

attained by the peoples which have developed these several languages. . . . The use of Spanish never became common, and knowledge of this language was limited to the educated few. After fifteen short years English is far more widely spoken than Spanish ever was. When English comes into comparatively general use, as it will if the present educational policy is adhered to, one fundamental difficulty in the way of welding the Filipinos into 'a people' will have been largely done away with."—D. C. Worcester, *Philippines, past and present*, v. 2, p. 936.—See also PHILIOLOGY: 27.

Previous to 1521.—Development before discovery by Spaniards.—Trade with China.—Culture.—"Very different from the Hindu was the early influence of the Chinese. There is no evidence that, previous to the Spanish conquest, the Chinese settled or colonized in these islands at all;



IGORROTE RANCH AT LUZON

(After water color drawing by Hans Meyer)

do not believe,' he says, 'and I base my opinion on the same words that I have brought together in this vocabulary, that the Hindus were here simply as merchants, but that they dominated different parts of the archipelago, where to-day are spoken the most cultured languages,—the Tagalo, the Visayan, the Pampanga, and the Ilocano; and that the higher culture of these languages comes precisely from the influence of the Hindu race over the Filipino.' . . . When the Spaniards arrived in the Philippines, the Filipinos were using systems of writing borrowed from Hindu or Javanese sources."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 90-93.—"There is no literature worth mentioning written in the native dialects, nor do they open a way to the fields of science, the arts, history, or philosophy. Their vocabularies are comparatively poor in words, and they do not afford satisfactory media of communication, especially as words of generalization are almost entirely lacking. This latter fact conclusively demonstrates the stage of mental evolution

and yet three hundred years before the arrival of Magellan their trading-fleets were coming here regularly and several of the islands were well known to them. One evidence of this prehistoric trade is in the ancient Chinese jars and pottery which have been exhumed in the vicinity of Manila, but the Chinese writings themselves furnish us even better proof. About the beginning of the thirteenth century, though not earlier than 1205, a Chinese author named Chao Ju-kua wrote a work upon the maritime commerce of the Chinese people. One chapter of his work is devoted to the Philippines, which he calls the country of Mayi. According to this record it is indicated that the Chinese were familiar with the islands of the archipelago seven hundred years ago. 'The country of Mayi,' says this interesting classic, 'is situated to the north of Poni (Burney, or Borneo). About a thousand families inhabit the banks of a very winding stream. The natives clothe themselves in sheets of cloth resembling bed sheets, or cover their bodies with sarongs.

[The sarong is the gay colored, typical garment of the Malay.] Scattered through the extensive forests are copper Buddha images, but no one knows how they got there. 'When the merchant (Chinese) ships arrive at this port they anchor in front of an open place . . . which serves as a market, where they trade in the produce of the country.' . . . The products of the country are stated to be yellow wax, cotton, pearl, shells, betel nuts, and yuta cloth, which was perhaps one of the several cloths still woven of abacá, or pina. The articles imported by the Chinese were 'porcelain, trade gold, objects of lead, glass beads of all colors, iron cooking-pans, and iron needles.' . . . This Chinese trade continued probably quite steadily until the arrival of the Spaniards. Then it received an enormous increase through the demand for Chinese food-products and wares made by the Spaniards, and because of the value of the Mexican silver which the Spaniards offered in exchange. . . . The spread of Mohammedanism and especially the foundation of the colony of Borneo brought the Philippines into important commercial relations with the Malays of the south. Previous to the arrival of the Spaniards these relations seem to have been friendly and peaceful. The Mohammedan Malays sent their praus northward for purposes of trade, and they were also settling in the north Philippines as they had in Mindanao. . . . This intercourse and traffic had acquainted the Filipinos with many of the accessories of civilized life long before the arrival of the Spaniards. Their chiefs and datos dressed in silks, and maintained some splendor of surroundings; nearly the whole population of the tribes of the coast wrote and communicated by means of a syllabary; vessels from Luzon traded as far south as Mindanao and Borneo, although the products of Asia proper came through the fleets of foreigners; and perhaps what indicates more clearly than anything else the advance the Filipinos were making through their communication with outside people is their use of firearms. Of this point there is no question. Everywhere in the vicinity of Manila, on Lubang, in Pam-panga, at Cainta and Laguna de Bay, the Spaniards encountered forts mounting small cannon, or 'lantakas.' The Filipinos seem to have understood, moreover, the arts of casting cannon and of making powder. . . . The unit of their political order was a little cluster of houses of from thirty to one hundred families, called a 'barangay,' which still exists in the Philippines as the 'barrio.' At the head of each barangay was a chief known as the 'dato,' a word no longer used in the northern Philippines, though it persists among the Moros of Mindanao. The powers of these datos within their small areas appear to have been great, and they were treated with utmost respect by the people. The barangays were grouped together in tiny federations including about as much territory as the present towns, whose affairs were conducted by the chiefs or datos, although sometimes they seem to have all been in obedience to a single chief, known in some places as the 'hari,' at other times by the Hindu word 'raja,' or the Mohammedan term 'sultan.' Sometimes the power of one of these rajas seems to have extended over the whole of a small island, but usually their 'kingdoms' embraced only a few miles. . . . Beneath the datos, according to Chirino and Morga, there were three classes of Filipinos. First were the free 'maharlika,' who paid no tribute to the dato, but who accompanied him to war, rowed his boat when he went on a journey, and attended him in his house. . . . Then there was a

very large class, who appear to have been freedmen or liberated slaves, who had acquired their own homes and lived with their families, but who owed to dato or maharlika heavy debts of service. . . . Beneath these existed a class of slaves. . . . These slaves were absolutely owned by their lord, who could theoretically sell them like cattle; but, in spite of its bad possibilities, this Filipino slavery was apparently not of a cruel or distressing nature. The slaves were frequently associated in kindly relations with their masters and were not overworked. . . . Children of slaves inherited their parents' slavery. If one parent was free and the other slave, the first, third, and fifth children were free and the second, fourth, and sixth slaves. This whole matter of inheritance of slavery, was curiously worked out in details."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 93, 97-104.

1521.—Discovery by Magellan.—Death of Magellan.—Departure of Spaniards.—"Just as our own country accidentally became known to the European navigator in search of oriental riches, so were the Philippines unexpectedly found lying in the path of that skillful, fearless explorer, Magellan, while on an expedition in the interest of the Spanish crown, [the first known voyage around the world]. . . . The little fleet, composed of the *La Trinidad*, commanded by Magellan himself, the *San Antonio*, *Victoria*, *Santiago*, and *Concepción*, left San Lucas, the port of Seville, on August 10, 1519, and mapping a course along the African coast and past the Canary islands, reached Sierra Leone. Following then the South American coast, it arrived at Rio Janeiro in December, four months out from Spain. Severe cold now compelled Magellan to winter in the San Julian river, and here he remained five months. From the beginning difficulties similar to those which Columbus had experienced had beset his path; jealousies, discouragement, superstitions, and mutinies among the sailors coupled with shipwrecks combined to dismay him. One ship was lost in a storm and another deserted, so with only three vessels he followed the labyrinthine course between the islands at the extremity of South America, discovering here the straits which bear his name, and passed on to the broad Pacific. . . . Magellan continued westward and in March reached Bután, on the northern shore of Mindanao, where he landed and, raising a cross on a small hill near by and celebrating the first mass in the Philippines, took possession of the island in the name of the king of Spain, and began to win over the people to Spanish sovereignty. Hardly had he become acquainted with the place, however, before he was convinced, from the glowing accounts given him of the wealth and fertility of an island called by the natives Sabo, that fairer lands lay to the northward; and accordingly, setting out with a native chief and some of his Spanish followers, Magellan proceeded north and entered Cebú harbor in April, 1521. Hostility was at first shown the newcomers by the Cebuanos, who gathered to prevent their coming ashore, but through the good offices of the Bután chief friendliness replaced ill-feeling, formal oaths of good will with drinking of blood each from the other's breast were exchanged between Magellan and the native king, and a treaty made in the name of Charles I of Spain. The friars of Magellan's party began at once to teach the people, and many, among them the king himself, were baptized. In his zeal to cement the friendship of these natives Magellan promised them aid in carrying on their war against the inhabitants of the

neighboring island of Mactan, and for the purpose of impressing upon them the superiority of the Spanish soldiers resolved to make the expedition accompanied only by a few of his own men. Arrangements were quickly completed, and less than three weeks after his arrival at Cebú he started on an enterprise which was to prove disastrous; for in his eagerness he had not reckoned on the size of the enemy. A landing by night was effected, but at daybreak the natives swarmed the shores and by force of numbers repulsed the little group and killed many, among them Magellan. As a completion to the catastrophe, Barbosa, who succeeded to the command, and a number of his officers, upon their return to Cebú, were treacherously put to death by the Christian king, who had invited them to a feast. So few Spanish soldiers now remained that the *Concepción*, the poorest of the three vessels, was sunk in the harbor, and the long return voyage from the San Lazarus islands, as Magellan had named this group, to Spain was begun. On the way Portuguese in the island of Ternate were encountered and difficulties experienced; but continuing their route by way of India in one vessel, the *Victoria*, under the command of del Caño, the survivors of the famous expedition reached Seville in 1522, three years from their departure, after having accomplished the first circumnavigation of the globe."—F. W. Atkinson, *Philippine islands*, pp. 45, 50-54.—See also PACIFIC OCEAN: 1513-1764.

1542.—Second Spanish expedition.—Naming of islands.—Portuguese opposition.—"In 1542 another expedition sailed from Mexico, under command of Lopez de Villalobos, to explore the Philippines and if possible to reach China. Across the Pacific they made a safe and pleasant voyage. . . . At last Villalobos reached the east coast of Mindanao, but after some deaths and sickness they sailed again and were carried south by the monsoon to the little island of Sarangani, south of the southern peninsula of Mindanao. The natives were hostile, but the Spaniards drove them from their stronghold and made some captures of musk, amber, oil, and gold-dust. In need of provisions, they planted the maize, or Indian corn, the wonderful cereal of America, which yields so bounteously, and so soon after planting. Food was greatly needed by the Spaniards and was very difficult to obtain. Villalobos equipped a small vessel and sent it northward to try to reach Cebu. This vessel reached the coast of Samar. Villalobos gave to the island the name of Filipina, in honor of the English Infante, or heir apparent, Philip, who was soon to succeed his father, Charles V. as King Philip the Second of Spain. Later in his correspondence with the Portuguese Villalobos speaks of the archipelago as Las Felipinas. Although for many years the title of the *Islas del Poniente* continued in use, Villalobos' name of Filipinas gradually gained place and has lived. While on Sarangani demands were made by the Portuguese, who claimed that Mindanao belonged with Celebes, and that the Spaniards should leave. Driven from Mindanao by lack of food and hostility of the natives, Villalobos was blown southward by storms to Gilolo. Here, after long negotiations, the Portuguese compelled him to surrender. The survivors of the expedition dispersed, some remaining in the Indies, and some eventually reaching Spain; but Villalobos, overwhelmed by discouragement, died on the island of Amboyna. The priest who ministered to him in his last hours was the famous Jesuit missionary to the Indies, Saint Francis Xavier."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 117-118.

1564-1572.—Conquest and permanent occupation by Legaspi.—Founding of modern city of Manila.—Twenty-three years elapsed after the sailing of Villalobos' fleet before another Spanish expedition reached the Philippines. The explorers who went out under Miguel Lopez de Legaspi in 1564 were destined to accomplish the permanent occupation of the archipelago by the Spanish in 1565. Legaspi was justly regarded as the "Father of the Philippines" by the Spanish. "This explorer, with an expedition of four hundred Spanish soldiers and sailors, left Mexico where he was in the Spanish service, warranted as governor and captain-general for life of all the islands he might occupy. He came to Cebú in 1565 and erected the first structures of white men, a fort and several dwellings. His most famous companion was an Augustinian monk, Andres de Urdaneta, who, with four others of his order, was intrusted with the spiritual care of such races as were conquered. The adventurers survived, chiefly by baptizing the niece of a native ruler and marrying her to a Spaniard; and when they baptized her uncle a little later, Cebú became friendly territory. In 1566 came Juan de Salcedo, grandson of Legaspi and a youth of but seventeen years, who was destined to become the conqueror of the Philippines. He was but twenty-one, in 1570, when he was one of the leaders of a successful expedition against Manila, then with its environs a place of some thirty thousand Malays. In 1571 Legaspi organized the government of Cebú upon Spanish line, dividing all the natives as slaves among his favorites. This done, he set out for Manila, whose inhabitants burned it upon seeing his approach. The modern city, as we know it, was then founded upon the ruins with stately Catholic ceremonies, its government confided to alcales, and its domain divided among the conquerors so that each had a plot upon which to build his home. The native sovereign was baptized and his name changed to Felipe in honor of the Spanish monarch; the missionaries spread over Luzon as rapidly as their movements could be made safely, and young Salcedo proceeded to do the rest of the converting with the sword. Salcedo, though, to do him justice, was a benevolent conqueror, and became a hero to the natives, being ultimately canonized in their history to a place second only to that of his grandfather, who lived but a year following his gaining of Manila. [Legaspi's death occurred in Manila, in 1572.] In two or three years, the entire Archipelago was under Spanish domination, except the present province of Cagayan, the most northern on Luzon, and Mindanao and the Zulu group at the extreme south, the conquered districts having a total population of about six hundred and seventy-five thousand."—F. Chamberlin, *Philippine problem*, pp. 4-5.—The early Spanish rule in the islands was exceedingly mild, as the causes which led to cruelties in Spanish America did not exist. The islands possessed little wealth of the kind likely to attract adventurers; and the long voyage necessary to reach the Philippines made it impossible for the Spaniards to maintain a strong armed force there. "The subjection . . . was chiefly accomplished by the assistance of the monastic orders, whose missionaries were taught to employ extreme prudence and patience. [See also MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Islands of the Pacific.] The Philippines were thus principally won by a peaceful conquest. The taxes laid upon the natives were so trifling that they did not suffice for the administration of the colony. The difference was covered by yearly contributions from Mexico. The extortions of un-

conscientious officials were by no means conspicuous by their absence. Cruelties, however, such as were practised in the American mining districts, or in the manufactures of Quito, never occurred in the Philippines."—F. Jagor, *Travels in the Philippines*, ch. 4.

1574.—Attack on Spanish by Limahong.—Opening of trade with China.—Chinese immigration.—Two years after the death of Legaspi, the Spanish settlements in the Philippines were attacked by Chinese, headed by a corsair of the China sea called Limahong. Reports of the prosperous condition of Manila having reached him, he prepared a fleet of sixty-two war junks with four thousand soldiers and sailors. "In the latter part of November, 1574, this powerful fleet came sweeping down the western coast of Luzon and on the 29th gathered in the little harbor of Mariveles, at the entrance to Manila Bay. Eight miles south of Manila is the town of Paranaque, on an estuary which affords a good landing-place for boats entering from the bay. Here on the night following, Limahong put ashore six hundred men, under one of his generals, Sioco, who was a Japanese. . . . From here they marched rapidly up the beach and fell furiously upon the city. Almost their first victim was the field-marshal Goiti. The fort of Manila was at this date a weak affair, without ditches or escarpment, and it was here that the struggle took place. The Spaniards, although greatly outnumbered, were able to drive back the Chinese; but they themselves lost heavily. Limahong then sent ashore heavy reinforcements, and prepared to overwhelm the garrison. The Spaniards were saved from defeat by the timely arrival of Salcedo with fifty musketeers. . . . Although defeated in his attack on Manila, Limahong was yet determined on a settlement in Luzon, and, sailing northward, he landed in Pangasinan and began constructing fortifications at the mouth of the river Lingayen. The Spaniards did not wait for him to strengthen himself and to dispute with them afresh for the possession of the island, but organized in March an expedition of two hundred and fifty Spaniards and fifteen hundred Filipinos under Salcedo. They landed suddenly in the Gulf of Lingayen, burned the entire fleet of the Chinese, attacked the camp of the pirates, and killed a number of them. The rest, though hemmed in by the Spaniards, were able to construct small boats, in which they escaped from the islands. Thus ended this formidable attack which threatened for a time to overthrow the power of Spain in the East. It was the beginning, however, of important relations with China. Before Limahong's escape a junk arrived from the viceroy of Fukien, petitioning for the delivery of the Chinese pirate. Two Augustinian friars accompanied his junk back to China, eager for such great fields of missionary conquest. They carried letters from Labezares inviting Chinese friendship and intercourse."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 141-143.—"The introduction of trade with China determined the economic history of the Philippines for two and a half centuries. Each year the Chinese brought quantities of silks and other rich commodities from Amoy and other ports to Manila, whence they were forwarded to Mexico by the famous Manila Galleon, or 'China Ship.' But the Chinese trade brought with it probably the most serious problem for the internal administration of the colony. It is the first instance, on any considerable scale, of a Caucasian-Mongolian race question. . . . The Spaniards early realized the peril that accompanied the presence of so many Chinese in the city and

took measures to prevent any disastrous consequences therefrom. For this reason Governor Gonzalo Ronquillo built the *Parian*, or quarter where the Chinese who remained in the city were required to remain. However, before 1628 the Chinese had begun to live outside the *Parian* 'to the great danger of the Spanish population.' At this time Christian Chinese, or those married to Christians, were permitted to live in the quarter of Mindonoc, which, considering the usual motives for conversion, was a dangerous concession. Chinese settled in the provinces surrounding Manila and were even more widely scattered about the islands. Though the law required that the Chinese who came to Manila on the *champan*s should return with them as soon as the favorable monsoon arose, after the discharge of the cargoes and their delivery to the *pancada* committee, this was early relaxed. Licenses were then required for permission to stay in Manila, while the number of those who might stay was limited in 1620 to six thousand. The number of those who might come in a single *champan* was also limited. The failure to enforce these restrictions brought about the conditions which led to the extreme and violent expedition of expulsion. By 1588 there were ten thousand Chinese in Manila, and when Morga sent twelve thousand back to China in 1596, he declared that as many more remained in the city. Forty years later Grau y Monfalcón informed the King that there were about thirty thousand Chinese and Japanese in the city. When such numbers are compared with the few hundred Spaniards in Manila the potential gravity of the situation for the latter is evident. Although the Spanish policy throughout was uncertain and inconsistent, they early came to accept as almost a necessary and permanent part of the colony's life the presence of a limited number of Chinese. Their skill and sober industry were needed in the trades and in the shop-keeping business of the city, which they virtually monopolized."—W. L. Schurz, *Chinese in the Philippines* (H. M. Stephens and H. E. Bolton, ed., *Pacific ocean in history*, pp. 214-215).

1581-1598.—Conflicts between secular and religious interests.—Re-establishment of royal audiencia.—"March, 1581, there arrived the first Bishop of Manila, Domingo de Salazar. Almost immediately began those conflicts between the spiritual and civil authorities, and between bishop and the regular orders, which have filled to no small degree the history of the islands. . . . The governor now became a paid officer of the crown, at a salary of ten thousand ducats. For the proper protection of the colony and the conquest of the Moluccas, a regular force of four hundred soldiers accompanied the governor. His powers were extended to those of an actual viceregent of the king, and the Audiencia [the supreme court which limited the power of the governor] was abolished. The man selected to occupy this important post was Don Gomez Dasmarias, who arrived with the new constitution in May, 1590. So great was the chagrin of the bishop at the abolition of the Audiencia and the increase of the governor's power, that he himself set out for Spain to lay his wishes before the court. . . . Twenty-four Franciscans came with Dasmarias' arrival, a company of Dominicans attempted to found a mission in China, and, an embassy coming from Japan to demand vassalage from the Philippines, four of the newly arrived Franciscans accompanied the Japanese on their return. . . . Meanwhile the efforts of Salazar at the Spanish court had effected further important changes for the Islands. The reestablishment of the Royal Audiencia was

ordered, and his own position was elevated to that of archbishop, with the three episcopal sees of Ilokos, Cebu, and the Camarines. He did not live to assume this office, and the first archbishop of the Philippines was Ignacio Santibanez, who also died three months after his arrival, on May 28, 1598. . . . The Audiencia was reestablished with great pomp and ceremony. The royal seal was borne on a magnificently caparisoned horse to the cathedral, where a *Te Deum* was chanted, and then to the Casas Reales, where was inaugurated the famous court that continued without interruption down to the end of Spanish rule."—D. P. Barrows, *History of Philippines*, pp. 149-153.

1593-1625.—Relations with Japan.—Franciscan missionaries. See JAPAN: 1593-1625.

1600.—Spanish power at its height.—Political rule.—Domination by religious orders.—Education.—Charitable foundations and hospitals.—Importance of Manila.—"That the Filipinos on many of these islands bitterly resented their condition is evidenced by the frequent uprisings and rebellions. . . . Revolts were almost continuous during the year 1583, and the condition of the natives very bad, many encomenderos regarding them [the natives] and treating them almost as slaves, and keeping them at labor to the destruction of their own crops and the misery of their families. . . . Before the coming of the Spaniards, it seems unquestionable that the Filipinos suffered greatly under two terrible grievances that afflict barbarous society,—in the first place, warfare, with its murder, pillage, and destruction, not merely between tribe and tribe, but between town and town, such as even now prevails in the wild mountains of northern Luzon, among the primitive Malayan tribes; and in the second place, the weak and poor man was at the mercy of the strong and rich. The establishment of Spanish sovereignty had certainly mitigated, if it did not wholly remedy, these conditions. 'All of these provinces,' Morga could write, 'are pacified and are governed from Manila, having *alcaldes*—mayores, *corregidores*, and lieutenants, each one of whom governs in his district or province and dispenses justice.' . . . The archipelago was districted among . . . missionary bands. The Augustinians had many parishes in the Bisayas, on the Ilokano coast, some in Pangasinan, and all of those in Pampanga. The Dominicans, had parts of Pangasinan and all of the valley of Cagayan. The Franciscans controlled the Camarines and nearly all of southern Luzon, and of the region of Laguna de Bay. All of these orders had convents and monasteries both in the city of Manila and in the country round about. The imposing churches of brick and stone, which now characterize nearly every pueblo, had not in those early decades been erected; but Morga tells us that 'the churches and monasteries were of wood, and well built, with furniture and beautiful ornaments, complete service, crosses, candlesticks, and chalices of silver and gold.' Even in these early years there seem to have been some attempts at the education of the natives. The friars had schools in reading and writing for boys, who were also taught to serve in the church, to sing, to play the organ, the harp, guitar, and other instruments. We must remember, however, that the Filipino before the arrival of the Spaniard had a written language, and even in pre-Spanish times there must have been instruction given to the child. The type of humble school, that is found to-day in remote barrios, conducted by an old man or woman, on the floor in the yard of a home, where the ordinary family occupations are proceeding, probably

does not owe its origin to the Spaniards, but dates from a period before their arrival. The higher education established by the Spaniards appears to have been exclusively for the children of Spaniards. In 1601 the Jesuits, pioneers of the Roman Catholic orders in education, established the College of San José. . . . The high mortality which visited the Spaniards in these islands and the frequency of diseases early called for the establishment of institutions for the orphan and the invalid. . . . There was the Royal Hospital; in charge of three Franciscans, which burned in the conflagration of 1603, but was reconstructed. There was also a Hospital of Mercy, in charge of Sisters of Charity from Lisbon and the Portuguese possessions of India. Close by the Monastery of Saint Francis stood then, where it stands to-day, the hospital for natives, San Juan de Dios. It was of royal patronage, but founded by a friar of the Franciscan order, Juan Clemente. 'Here,' says Morga, 'are cured a great number of natives of all kinds of sicknesses, with much charity and care. It has a good house and offices of stone, and is administered by the barefooted religious of Saint Francis. Three priests are there and four lay-brethren of exemplary life, who, with the doctors, surgeons, and apothecaries, are so dexterous and skilled that they work with their hands marvelous cures, both in medicine and surgery.'"—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 162, 166, 169-170.

1600-1663.—Devastation by Moros.—Competition of Dutch.—Koxinga's threat.—Troubles with the Dutch, the Portuguese, the Chinese, and the Moros were conspicuous in the history of the Philippines during most of the seventeenth century. "Another source of trouble appeared as early as 1594 with the attempt of the Spanish friars to establish missions in Japan. The Japanese emperor caused the execution of the missionaries as fast as they could be seized, but the Philippine friars were not dismayed by the perils of martyrdom. Many, disobeying the orders of the Spanish governor, escaped to Japan, only to meet their death. Not until fifty years after the first mission was the attempt to convert the Japanese abandoned."—A. E. McKinley, *Island possessions of the United States (History of North America, v. 20, pp. 213-214)*.—"During the early years of the Spanish occupation no attention was paid to Mindanao and the Sulu Archipelago, and the Moros on their part seemed to have refrained from encroaching upon the islands under Spanish control. In 1596 a Portuguese adventurer obtained the royal sanction to attempt the conquest of Mindanao. The expedition, which consisted of one vessel carrying men-at-arms and the invaluable complement of priests, ended disastrously. The commander and several of the soldiers were killed and the ship returned to Manila, having accomplished nothing more than arousing the resentment of the Muhammadans. From this time commenced the troubles with the southern natives, which continued over a period of two hundred and fifty years. Hitherto the piracy, which was the chief occupation of those people, had been confined to the waters adjacent to their own territory, but they now began to extend their depredations to the northern islands. The sultans of Mindanao and Sulu entered into an offensive and defensive alliance against the Spaniards and coöperated . . . in the organization of piratical expeditions. . . . No portion of the Archipelago was free from the incursions of the Muhammadans, who swooped, in their war junks, upon coast towns, plundered and burned, and were at sea again before any punitive force could reach the spot. . . . Each

succeeding governor essayed the task of suppressing these marauders. Countless expeditions were despatched against them. . . . All these measures proved ineffectual to suppress the scourge, and it was not until the introduction of gunboats that the Spaniards succeeded in getting the upper hand. The Moros were never, however, subdued by the Spaniards. Some of the chiefs made nominal submission while retaining actual independence, and several campaigns were conducted in Mindanao during the last twenty years of Spanish occupancy of the Philippines."—C. H. Forbes-Lindsay, *America's insular possessions*, pp. 149-151.—The Dutch frequently showed themselves in the vicinity of Manila, and there was a long series of contests between them and the Spaniards in the Philippines. In October, 1600, a notable naval battle was fought between the Spaniards and two Dutch vessels under the command of Admiral Van Noort. The Dutch, who had come through the Straits of Magellan on a voyage around the world, were in great need of food, and had been capturing and plundering several boats. The Spaniards fitted up two galleons, the Cidor Morga himself took charge, and after two days of fighting, Van Noort was defeated and driven from the islands. In 1646 and again in 1647, the Dutch came dangerously near gaining possession of the islands. In 1626 the Spaniards from the Philippines had made a settlement upon the island of Formosa, but in 1642 this fell into the hands of the Dutch. Twenty years later, the Chinese in turn took possession, under the leadership of Koxinga. "Exalted by his success against European arms, Koxinga resolved upon the conquest of the Philippines. He summoned to his service the Italian Dominican missionary, Ricci, who had been living in the province of Fukien, and in the spring of 1662 dispatched him as an ambassador to the governor of the Philippines to demand the submission of the archipelago. Manila was thrown into a terrible panic by this demand, and indeed no such danger had threatened the Spanish in the Philippines since the invasion of Lima-hong. . . . The governor, Don Sabiniano Manrique de Lara, returned a defiant answer to Koxinga, and the most radical measures were adopted to place the colony in a state of defense. All Chinese were ordered immediately to leave the Islands. Fearful of massacre, these wretched people again broke out in rebellion, and assaulted the city. Many were slain, and other bands wandered off into mountains, where they perished at the hands of the natives. Others, escaping by frail boats, joined the Chinese colonists on Formosa. Churches and convents in the suburbs of Manila, which might afford shelter to the assailant, were razed to the ground. More than all this, the Moluccas were forsaken, never again to be recovered by Spaniards; and the presidios of Zamboanga and Cuyo, which served as a kind of bridle on the Moros of Jolo and Mindanao, were abandoned. All Spanish troops were concentrated in Manila, fortifications were rebuilt, and the population waited anxiously for the attack. But the blow never fell. Before Ricci arrived at Tai-wan, Koxinga was dead, and the peril of Chinese invasion had passed. . . . But the Philippines had suffered irretrievable loss. Spanish prestige was gone. Manila was no longer, as she had been at the commencement of the century, the capital of the East. Spanish sovereignty was again confined to Luzon and the Bisayas. The Chinese tarde, on which rested the economic prosperity of Manila, had once again been ruined. For a hundred years the history of the Philippines is a dull monotony, quite unrelieved by any heroic

activity or the presence of noble character."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 210-211.

1700-1800.—Depredations of Malay pirates.—British possession.—During most of the eighteenth century, the depredations of the Moro pirates continued. It is estimated that five hundred captives annually were taken by them. Between 1778 and 1793, a million and a half pesos are said to have been expended on expeditions against them, but the end of the century saw no improvement. The most outstanding event of this period in the history of the Philippines was the capture of the islands by the British. "In 1762 England declared war against France and Spain, and a British fleet was despatched to the Philippines. It arrived in September of that year under Admiral Cornish, with General Draper in command of the troops. The British squadron anchored in Manila Bay and two officers were sent ashore to demand the surrender of the city, which was refused. The entire garrison of Manila at the time consisted of six hundred soldiers with eighty pieces of artillery, whilst the British force numbered three thousand seamen, fifteen hundred European soldiers, and about a thousand Sipahis. Troops were landed from the British vessels and a siege and bombardment of the city commenced. . . . On the 5th of October the British troops entered the walls of the city and upon the following day Manila was given up by the Archbishop, who was acting-Governor at this time. By the terms of this capitulation the entire Archipelago was surrendered and an indemnity of four millions of dollars was agreed upon. The day before the capitulation a judge of the Supreme Court, named Simon de Anda y Salazar, escaped in a native boat and fled to the Province of Bulacan, where he proclaimed himself Governor-General, and affected to ignore the action of the Archbishop. Simon de Anda raised troops among the natives and carried on a guerrilla war until the British evacuated the islands, which they did early in 1764."—C. H. Forbes-Lindsay, *America's insular possessions*, pp. 151-152.

1750.—Portuguese government recognizes Spanish title. See LATIN AMERICA: 1750-1777.

1837-1896.—Economic and social progress.—Opening of ports to foreign trade.—Growth of native journalism.—Growth of public education.—Increase of native wealth.—Spread of liberal ideas.—Cavite revolt.—Spread of secret societies with revolutionary aims.—"We have now come to the last half-century and to the last phase of Spanish rule. In many respects this period was one of economic and social progress, and contained more of promise than any other in the history of the Islands. During this last half-century the Spanish rulers had numerous plans for the development and better administration of the Philippines, and, in spite of a somewhat wavering policy and the continued sore of official peculation, this was a period of wonderful advancement. Revolution and separation from Spain came at last, as revolutions usually do, not because there was no effort nor movement for reform, but because progress was so discouragingly slow and so irritatingly blocked by established interests that desired no change. . . . The opening of the port of Manila to foreign trade, in 1837, was followed by a period of rising industry and prosperity. . . . After 1814 general permission had been given to foreigners to establish trading-houses in Manila, and by 1858 there were fifteen such establishments, of which seven were English and three American. . . . In 1863, Cebu likewise was made an open port. . . . The release from Moro piracy, the opening of

foreign commerce, and the development of agricultural production were rapidly bringing about a great change in the aspirations of the Filipino people themselves. Nearly up to the middle of the nineteenth century the Filipinos had felt the full effect of isolation from the life and thought of the modern world. But the revolutionary changes in Europe and the struggles for constitutional government in Spain had their influence, even in these far-away Spanish possessions. Spaniards of liberal ideas, some of them in official positions, found their way to the Islands, and an agitation began, originating among Spaniards themselves, against the paternal powers of the friars. . . . The growth of periodic literature accelerated this liberalizing movement. The press, though suffering a severe censorship, has played a large part in shaping recent thought in these islands and in communicating to the Filipino people those ideas and purposes which ever inspire and elevate men. The first newspaper to make its appearance in the Philippines was in 1822—'El Filantropo'; but journalism assumed no real importance until the forties, when there were founded 'Semanario Filipino' (1843), and almost immediately after several others—'El Amigo de País' (1845), 'La Estrella' (1846), and 'La Esperanza' (1847), the first daily. These were followed by 'Diario de Manila' (1848); in 1853 'El Comercio' appeared. . . . Papers conducted by Filipinos and in the Filipino tongues are of more recent origin, but these early Spanish periodicals had a real effect upon the Filipinos themselves, training up a class familiar with the conduct of journalism and preparing a way for the very influential work of the Filipino press in recent years. . . . But more important than all other influences was the opening of education to Filipinos. In 1852 a royal decree authorized the Jesuits to . . . devote themselves solely to missions in the unoccupied fields of Mindanao, and to the higher education of the Filipinos. . . . In 1863, Concha, the Spanish minister of war and colonies (Ultramar), decreed the system of public primary instruction. A primary school for boys and one for girls was to be established in each pueblo of the Islands. In these schools, instruction was to be given in the Spanish language. A superior commission of education was formed, which consisted of the governor, the archbishop, and seven other members added by the governor himself. The system was not secular, for it primarily was devoted to the teaching of religious doctrine. The Spanish friar, the pueblo curate, was the local inspector of schools and practically directed their conduct. It was not wholly a free system, because tuition was required of all but the poorest children; nor was it an adequate system, because, even when most complete, it reached only a small proportion of the children of a parish, and these very largely were of the well-to-do families. And yet this system for what it accomplished, is deserving of praise. . . . The Filipino had now become embarked upon a new current of intellectual experience—a course of enlightenment which has been so full of unexpected development, and which has already carried him so far from his ancestor of one hundred years ago, that we can not say what advance another generation or two may bring. Throughout all the towns of the Islands a class was rapidly growing up to which the new industries had brought wealth. Their means enabled them to build spacious and splendid homes of the fine, hard woods of the Philippines, and to surround themselves with such luxuries as the life of the Islands permitted. This class was rapidly gaining education. It acquired a knowledge of the Spanish language, and easily assumed that graceful

courtesy which distinguishes the Spaniard. The only misfortune, as regards this class, was that it was very small. It could embrace but a few families in each populous town. Some of these had Chinese and Spanish blood in their veins, but other notable families were pure Filipinos. . . . In 1868, Queen Isabella II. of Spain was deposed, and a little later a revolutionary government, the 'Republic of Spain,' was founded. It was the brief triumph of that reformed and liberal spirit which for so many years had been struggling to free Spain from the burdens of aristocracy and ecclesiasticism. The natural consequence was the sending of a liberal governor to the Philippines and the publication of liberal principles and reforms. This governor was General de la Torre. He was a brave and experienced soldier and a thorough democrat at heart. He dispensed with the formality and petty pomp with which the governors had surrounded themselves; he dismissed the escort of halberdiers, with their mediaeval uniforms and weapons which had surrounded the governor-generals since 1581, and rode out in civilian's clothes and without ostentation. His efforts were directed to encouraging the Filipinos and to attaching them to Spain. In the eyes of the Spanish law, for a brief period, Spaniard and colonist had become equal, and La Torre tried to enforce this principle and make no distinction of race or birth. While Filipinos were encouraged and delighted, it is impossible to describe the disgust of the Spanish population and the opposition of the friars. La Torre was attacked and opposed, and the entire course of his governorship was filled with trouble, in which, naturally, liberal ideas gained wider and wider currency among the Filipinos. . . . After the fall of the republic in Spain and the restoration of the monarchy, the administration in the Philippines attempted to extirpate the rising tide of liberal thought; but these ideas had taken root and could not be suppressed. The Filipino party, if so we may call it, continued to plan and work for reform. It numbered not only those of Filipino blood, but many of Spanish descent, born in the Philippines. There is no certain evidence that they were at this time plotting for independence, or that their actions were treasonable; but the fear and hatred felt by the Spaniards resulted frequently in the exile and punishment of known advocates of reform. . . . In 1872 there occurred an important outbreak known as the Cavite Revolt. Two hundred native soldiers at the Cavite arsenal rose, killed their officers, and shouted 'Death to Spain.' They had fellow-conspirators among the troops in Manila, but owing to mistakes in their plans these failed to rise with them and the revolt was easily suppressed. . . . It was immediately followed by the arrest of a large number of Filipinos who had been conspicuous in La Torre's time and who were advocates of reform. . . . New ground for fear was now found in the spread of secret organizations, which were denounced as Free Masonry. . . . In Latin countries Masonry has been charged with political intrigue and the encouragement of infidelity, and this has resulted in clerical opposition to the order wherever found. The first Masonic lodge in the Philippines was established about 1861 and was composed entirely of Spaniards. It was succeeded by others with Filipino membership, and in one way or another seems to have inspired many secret organizations, which were formed some years later. . . . Large numbers of Filipinos were now working, if not for independence, at least for the expulsion of the friars; and while this feeling should have been met by a statesmanlike and liberal policy of reform,

the government constantly resorted to measures of repression, which little by little changed the movement for reformation into revolution. . . . In 1888 the 'Asociación Hispano-Filipina' was formed by a number of the younger Filipino patriots and students in Spain. Their object was Philippine reform. The most famous of this group who gained a supreme place in the hearts of Filipinos and in the history of the islands, was Dr. José Rizal y Mercado."—D. P. Barrows, *History of the Philippines*, pp. 259, 261, 273-275, 277-281.

ALSO IN: E. H. Blair and S. A. Robertson, *Philippine islands*.—E. G. Bourne, *Discovery, conquest, and early history of Philippine islands*.—D. C. Worcester, *Philippines, past and present*.—J. M. de Zuniga, *History of Philippine islands*.

1896-1898.—Filipino insurrection.—Formation of "Katipunan," a revolutionary league.—Outbreak of revolt at Cavite.—Brutalities of Spanish methods of putting down the revolt.—Execution of Rizal.—Exile of Aguinaldo and other Filipino leaders.—A secret society, called the "Katipunan," or League, was formed, which became a revolutionary organization, and from which sprang the most serious of Filipino rebellions in 1896. The province of Cavite was the center of revolt, and it was there that Emilio Aguinaldo, then the schoolmaster at Silan, came into prominence as a leader. Aguinaldo was personally humane, but fearful atrocities were committed in the first months of the rising by some of the insurgents of his band. The Spaniards, on their side, were equally inhumane in their treatment of captured rebels and "suspects." Provincial governors and parish priests seemed to regard it as a duty to supply the capital with batches of "suspects" from their localities. Thousands of peaceful natives were treated with a ferocity that would have shocked all Europe. Within three months of the outbreak, hundreds of the richest natives and half-castes in Manila were imprisoned for a few days and released conditionally—the condition being a payment of ransom, sometimes said to be as high as \$40,000. But General Blanco, the then governor-general, was not vigorous enough in his measures to satisfy the all-powerful clerical party in the islands, and he was replaced by General Polaveja, who received large reinforcements from Spain, and who succeeded in breaking the strength of the rebellion to a great extent. Apart from the circumstances of legitimate warfare, in which probably neither party was more merciful than the other, he initiated a system of striking terror into the non-combatant population by barbarous tortures and wholesale executions. The most notable victim at this period was Dr. José Rizal, a physician, highly educated in Europe, distinguished as an oculist, and the author of certain novels in which the condition of things in his native country were set forth. On his return to the Islands, Dr. Rizal incurred the enmity of the friars by opposing them, and was pursued by their hostility. From 1893 to 1896 he was kept in banishment, closely watched, at a small town in the island of Mindanao. Then he sought and obtained permission to go to Cuba in the medical staff of the Spanish army; but, just as he arrived at Manila, on his way to Spain, the insurrection of 1896 broke out, and though he was suffered to depart, his enemies pursued him with accusations of complicity in the rising and caused him to be brought back. He was tried by court-martial for sedition and rebellion, condemned and shot; and his memory is cherished in the islands as that of a martyred patriot. Having scotched but not killed the insurrection, Polaveja went home, with broken health, in the spring of 1897, and was succeeded by Gen-

eral Primo de Rivera, who, after some months of continued warfare, opened negotiations with Aguinaldo, the recognized leader of the revolt. The result was a treaty, known as the "Pacto de Biac-nabato," signed December 14. By this treaty the rebels undertook to deliver up their arms and ammunition of all kinds to the Spaniards; to evacuate the places held by them; to conclude an armistice for three years for the application and development of the reforms to be introduced by the other part, and not to conspire against Spanish sovereignty in the islands, nor to aid or abet any movement calculated to counteract the reforms. Emilio Aguinaldo and 34 other leaders undertook to quit the Philippine islands, and not to return to them until so authorized by the Spanish government. On behalf of the Spanish government it was agreed to pay, through the medium of Pedro A. Paterno, to the rebels the sum of \$1,000,000, and to the families who had sustained loss by reason of the war \$700,000, in instalments and conditionally,—the condition being that no renewal of rebellion or conspiracy occur. Aguinaldo and other chiefs of the insurrection left the islands, accordingly; but they are said to have been utterly duped. One instalment, only (\$400,000), of the promised money was ever paid; the promised reforms were not carried out, and persecutions of those who had been in sympathy with the rising was renewed.—Based on J. Foreman, *Philippine islands*, ch. 26.—"Aguinaldo and his associates went to Hongkong and Singapore. A portion of the money, \$400,000, was deposited in banks at Hongkong, and a lawsuit soon arose between Aguinaldo and one of his subordinate chiefs named Artacho, which is interesting on account of the very honorable position taken by Aguinaldo. Artacho sued for a division of the money among the insurgents according to rank. Aguinaldo claimed that the money was a trust fund, and was to remain on deposit until it was seen whether the Spaniards would carry out their promised reforms, and if they failed to do so, it was to be used to defray the expenses of a new insurrection. The suit was settled out of court by paying Artacho \$5,000."—F. V. Greene, *Memo- randum concerning the situation in the Philippines*, Aug. 30, 1898 (*Treaty of Peace and Accompanying Papers: 55th Congress, 3d Session, Senate Document no. 62, pt. 1, p. 421*).

1897.—Refusal of the United States to negotiate with insurgent republic. See U.S.A.: 1897 (November).

1898 (April-May).—Circumstances in which Aguinaldo was brought to Manila to coöperate with American forces. See U.S.A.: 1898 (April-May: Philippines).

1898 (April-July).—Destruction of Spanish fleet in Manila bay.—Blockade and siege of city.—Coöperation of insurgents under Aguinaldo. See U.S.A.: 1898 (April-July).

1898 (May-August).—Conduct of English and German naval officers at Manila. See U.S.A.: 1898 (May-August).

1898 (July-August).—Correspondence between American commander and Aguinaldo. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-August: Philippines).

1898 (July-September).—American capture of Manila.—Relations with Filipino insurgents.—General Merritt's report.—Aguinaldo declared president of Philippine republic. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-September).

1898 (August).—Suspension of hostilities between the United States and Spain.—Manila held by the United States pending conclusion of a treaty of peace. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-December).

1898 (August-December).—Growing distrust and unfriendliness of the Tagalogs.—General Otis's report.—Character of American occupation.—Of the state of things which followed the departure of General Merritt, August 30, General Otis, who succeeded him in command, reported subsequently as follows: "During my first weeks of duty here I was impressed with the spirit of suspicion and the partially concealed unfriendly feeling manifested by the Tagalos toward the American forces. That they either had very little confidence in our promises or were then forming conclusions to oppose any establishment of United States authority in Luzon was apparent, however loudly they might disclaim hostile intent or declare as an excuse for their attitude fear of the return of Spain. I saw, however, with satisfaction, their ablest men by education and mental equipment taking part in their authoritative deliberations, and I had



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considerable confidence in the efficacy of their suggestions and advice. Still, after carefully weighing conditions, I was unable to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion. . . . Measures were being applied constantly to improve the sanitary condition of the city, to increase the efficiency of the troops, and to meet any emergency which might develop from an uprising of the inhabitants, or from hasty action by any portion of our or the insurgent forces. . . . The insurgent soldiers had looted extensively the portions of the city to which they gained access, and were greatly disappointed that this privilege over other parts of the same was not accorded them. Their enforced withdrawal to outer lines was the cause of discontent, and augmented any desire which they may have formerly entertained to desist or attack the American troops. . . . My own confidence at this time in a satisfactory solution of the difficulties which confronted us may be gathered from a dispatch sent to Washington on December 7, wherein I stated that conditions were improving and that there were signs of revolution-

ary disintegration; that I had conferred with a number of the members of the revolutionary government and thought that the most of them would favor peaceful submission to United States authority. I had strong reasons for this expressed confidence from assurances made to me by some of the ablest Filipinos who had occupied positions of importance in the insurgent government and had signified their intention to withdraw from it."—*Report of General Otis, Aug. 31, 1899 (Message and Documents: Abridgment, 1899-1900, v. 2, pp. 1048-1052)*.—Varying opinions, many of them uncomplimentary to the manner of the American occupation, were expressed by witnesses of the event. "The tragical side of American unpreparedness is manifest in the state of anarchy in which the whole Archipelago has been plunged by the American unreadiness to occupy the military posts as soon as they were vacated by the Spanish garrisons. A hideous orgy of murder, plunder, and slave-raiding has prevailed in Visayas, and especially in Mindanao. . . . Manila was in the time of the Spaniards a most temperate city; a drunken man was a very rare sight, and would usually be a foreign sailor. Since the American occupation, some hundreds of drinking saloons have been opened, and daily scenes of drunkenness and debauchery have filled the quiet natives with alarm and horror. . . . I venture to think that these occurrences have confirmed many of the Tagals in their resolve rather to die fighting for their independence than to be ruled over by such as these."—F. H. Sawyer, *Inhabitants of the Philippines*, pp. 113-114.—"The conduct . . . of the boisterous, undisciplined individuals who formed a large percentage of the first volunteer contingents sent to Manila had had an ineffaceably demoralizing effect on the proletariat, and has inspired a feeling of horror and loathful contempt in the affluent and educated classes who guide the Philippine public opinion. From the outset it was a mistake to treat the Christian Philippine population like savages ignorant of western civilization, considering that there are thousands of Filipinos mentally equal to the invading forces, and comparable, in intellectual training, with the average middle-class Europeans. Within a fortnight after the capitulation of Manila the drinking saloons had increased fourfold. According to the latest advices, there are at least twenty to one existing in the time of the Spaniards. . . . The situation then during this period was somewhat as follows: The Filipinos, aided by Dewey's victory, had driven the Spaniards from practically the whole Archipelago except the city of Manila, they had established a government of their own, and they looked upon the country as belonging both by nature and by right of conquest to them. We upon the other hand, having destroyed the Spanish fleet and captured the city of Manila, and being in the process of acquiring by treaty the Spanish title to the whole country regarded it as belonging to us. The situation was therefore critical."—J. Foreman, *Will the United States withdraw from the Philippines?* (*National Review*, Sept., 1900).—A somewhat more favorable report was given, by impartial witnesses, of the native government. During October and November, 1898, while the only authority in Luzon, outside of Manila and Cavite, was that exercised by the native government organized under Aguinaldo, two American naval officers, Paymaster W. B. Wilcox and Cadet Leonard R. Sargent, with permission from Admiral Dewey, made a tour of observation through seven provinces of the island, and rendered a report of what they saw and what they experienced, which Admiral Dewey sent to Washington, commending

it to the attention of the government as containing "the most complete and reliable information obtainable in regard to the present state of the northern part of Luzon Island." Subsequently Mr. Sargent wrote articles descriptive of the journey, which were published in *The Outlook* and *The Independent*, and which were reprinted, with the official report, in a document compiled for the United States Senate. The following is from the article in *The Outlook*, September 2, 1899: "Although this government has never been recognized, and in all probability will go out of existence without recognition, yet it cannot be denied that, in a region occupied by many millions of inhabitants, for nearly six months it stood alone between anarchy and order. The military forces of the United States held control only in Manila, with its environs, and in Cavite, and had no authority to proceed further; while in the vast remaining districts the representatives of the only recognized power on the field were prisoners in the hands of their despised subjects. It was the opinion at Manila during this anomalous period in our Philippine relations, and possibly in the United States as well, that such a state of affairs must breed something akin to anarchy. I can state unreservedly, however, that Mr. Wilcox and I found the existing conditions to be much at variance with this opinion. During our absence from Manila we travelled more than 600 miles in a very comprehensive circuit through the northern part of the island of Luzon, traversing a characteristic and important district. In this way we visited seven provinces, of which some were under the immediate control of the central government at Malolos, while others were remotely situated, separated from each other and from the seat of government by natural divisions of land, and accessible only by lengthy and arduous travel. As a tribute to the efficiency of Aguinaldo's government and to the law-abiding character of his subjects, I offer the fact that Mr. Wilcox and I pursued our journey throughout in perfect security, and returned to Manila with only the most pleasant recollections of the quiet and orderly life which we found the natives to be leading under the new régime."

1898 (September-December). — Instructions from the president of the United States to the commissioners for the negotiation of peace with Spain concerning the Philippine archipelago. — Cession of the islands to the United States. See U. S. A.: Historical geography.

1898-1899 (December-January). — Instructions by the president of the United States to General Otis, military governor and commander in the Philippines. — Their proclamation to people of the islands as modified by General Otis. — Counter proclamation of Aguinaldo. — On the twenty-seventh of December, 1898, instructions, signed by the president, were cabled by the Secretary of War to General Otis, in command of the United States forces in the Philippines. These instructions read in part, as follows: "The military commander of the United States is enjoined to make known to the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands that in succeeding to the sovereignty of the islands, in severing the former political relations of the inhabitants and in establishing a new political power, the authority of the United States is to be exerted for the security of the persons and property of the people of the islands and for the confirmation of all their private rights. It will be the duty of the commander of the forces of occupation to announce and proclaim in the most public manner that we come, not as invaders or conquerors, but as friends, to protect the natives in their homes, in

their employments and in their personal and religious rights. All persons who, either by active aid or by honest submission, coöperate with the government of the United States to give effect to these beneficent purposes, will receive the reward of its support and protection. All others will be brought within the lawful rule we have assumed, with firmness if need be, but without severity so far as may be possible. . . . Finally it should be the earnest and paramount aim of the military administration to win the confidence, respect and affection of the inhabitants of the Philippines by assuring to them in every possible way that full measure of individual rights and liberties which is the heritage of free peoples, and by proving to them that the mission of the United States is one of benevolent assimilation, substituting the mild sway of justice and right for arbitrary rule. In the fulfilment of this high mission, supporting the temperate administration of affairs to the greatest good of the governed, there must be sedulously maintained the strong arm of authority, to repress disturbance and to overcome all obstacles to the bestowal of the blessings of good and stable government upon the people of the Philippine Islands under the free flag of the United States. WILLIAM MCKINLEY." — This proclamation was reported to the Filipinos by General Otis on January 4, 1898, and a storm of protest arose followed by revolutionary agitation. Aguinaldo, from his capital at Malolos, issued a counter-proclamation, protesting against the authority of the military governor and against what he termed the "intrusion of the United States Government in the administration of these islands." The Filipinos, through their numerous clubs, began to secret arms in Manila, and the Americans made quiet preparations in the event of hostilities.

1899.—Problem of governing the Philippines. — Arguments for and against entire independence. — Dispute in Senate as to annexation. — Appointment of first commission, a step toward solving the problem. — The problem of governing the islands was one on which there was a great variety of opinion within the Philippines and the United States. Undoubtedly a section of the Filipino people welcomed an American protectorate, inasmuch as it freed them from the fear of invasion by some other powerful state, and promised good commercial and industrial conditions. On the other hand, the revolutionists under Aguinaldo had fought strenuously for their independence and would be content with nothing else. In the United States there were many people who felt that the Americans had no right to the islands; that the acquisition of territory by conquest was contrary to the American political ideals; and that the islands would be more expense and trouble than they were worth. Americans who were familiar with the conditions were divided in their opinions, as may be seen from the following testimonies: "The people are the most enlightened and vigorous branch of the Malay race, and have been Christians for centuries, in fact longer than the principles of the Reformation were established in Great Britain, and are the nearest akin to European people of any alien race, and it is simply ridiculous to imagine that eight to ten millions of such people can be bought and sold as an article of commerce without first obtaining their consent." — H. W. Bray, *Letter to Singapore Free Press*, June 8, 1898. — "The native has no expansive ideas; he cannot go far enough to understand what it is to rule matters for the benefit of the common weal; he cannot get past his own most personal interest, or his town, at the most. . . . I think an attempt at a native

government would be a fiasco altogether.”—J. Foreman, *Testimony before United States Peace Commission at Paris*.—“The excuse that they [the Filipinos] are not ripe for independence is not founded on facts. The Filipinos number more educated people than the kingdom of Serbia and the principalities of Bulgaria and Montenegro. They have fewer illiterates than the states of the Balkan peninsula, Russia, many provinces of Spain and Portugal, and the Latin republics of America.”—F. Blumentritt, *Philippine islands*, p. 61.—“They [the natives] would have to be educated up to it [self-government]. They want a protectorate, but they do not exactly understand what that means. Their idea is that they should collect the revenues and keep them in their treasury, and that we should be at the expense of maintaining an army and a navy there for their protection, which is the kind of a protectorate they would like very much.”—General Merritt, *Statement before United States Peace Commission at Paris*, Oct. 4, 1898.—“If the United States should evacuate these islands, anarchy and civil war will immediately ensue and lead to foreign intervention. The insurgents were furnished arms and the moral support of the navy prior to our arrival, and we cannot ignore obligations, either to the insurgents or to foreign nations, which our own acts have imposed upon us.”—General F. V. Greene, *Memorandum concerning the Philippine islands*, Aug. 27, 1898.—“The capability of the Filipinos for self-government cannot be doubted. Such men as Arellano, Aguinaldo, and many others whom I might name are highly educated; nine tenths of the people can read and write, all are skilled artisans in one way or another; they are industrious, frugal, temperate, and, given a fair start, could look out for themselves infinitely better than our people imagine. In my opinion they rank far higher than the Cubans or the uneducated negroes to whom we have given right of suffrage.”—General C. King, *Letter to Milwaukee Journal*, June 22, 1899.—Faced with such a division of opinion, President McKinley compromised by appointing a Philippine commission to investigate conditions in the islands and to pave the way, if possible, for the peaceful solution of the problem of government. The members of this first commission were Jacob G. Shurman, Rear-Admiral George Dewey, Major General Elwell S. Otis, Charles Denby and Dean C. Worcester. The temporary government of the islands was to continue with the military authorities until further action of Congress.—See also U.S.A.: 1899 (January-February).

1899.—Armed opposition to establishment of American government.—Dissatisfaction of Filipinos under Aguinaldo with anything less than independence.—Attempts to make adjustments.—Revolt of Filipinos.—Military movements of Americans.—“It will presumably be admitted that the important question with regard to the Outbreak of Hostilities, February 4, 1899, is not, who fired the first shot, but who was responsible for the conditions that made it evident to every observer weeks before the clash came that a single shot might bring on war. . . . No doubt most Americans believe that left to themselves the Filipinos would soon have lapsed into anarchy, while a few maintain that with temporary assistance in international affairs they would have developed a government better suited to their peculiar needs than we can ever give them. Still others who are familiar with the Filipinos and kindred races believe that their aspiration for an independent national existence was not deep rooted, that had we adopted an affectionate, admiring tone to their leaders, had

we recognized their government and approved of it, we could soon have made their government our government, could have been as sovereign as we pleased, and had the people with us. Whatever view one may hold, it must be admitted that if we were to establish our sovereignty by peaceful methods it was essential to win the confidence and affection of the Filipinos. . . . There is every indication that the Filipinos were prepared, at first, to treat us as friends and liberators. . . . After the very first, however, the cultivation of intimate relations with the Filipino leaders seems to have been considered unimportant or inadvisable. General Merritt states that he never saw Aguinaldo. Social intercourse between our officers and the Filipinos was discouraged by General Otis. In fact after the surrender of Manila General Whittier seems to have been the only one of our superior officers who ever had a personal interview with Aguinaldo. . . . With regard to the actual outbreak of hostilities, there is a sharp difference of opinion. The United States press dispatches announcing the outbreak, and the contemporaneous newspaper statements by the Filipinos . . . are of interest as evidence that from the very first each side claimed the other to be the aggressor. As to which of these opposing claims is borne out by the facts, the editors would say that after careful study of all the accessible evidence they find that according to the most authoritative statements the outbreak occurred as the result of a trespass by four armed Filipinos on territory admitted by the Filipino in command to be within the jurisdiction of the United States.”—Philippine Information Society, *Publications*, First series, VII, introduction.—“With great tact and patience the commanding general had held his forces in check, and he now made a final effort to preserve the peace by appointing a commission to meet a similar body appointed by Aguinaldo and to ‘confer with regard to the situation of affairs and to arrive at a mutual understanding of the intent, purposes, aims, and desires of the Filipino people and of the people of the United States.’ Six sessions were held, the last occurring on January 29, six days before the outbreak of hostilities. No substantial results were obtained, the Filipino commissioners being either unable or unwilling to give any definite statements of the ‘intent, purposes, and aims of their people.’ At the close of the last session they were given full assurances that no hostile act would be inaugurated by the United States troops. The critical moment had now arrived. Aguinaldo secretly ordered the Filipinos who were friendly to him to seek refuge outside the city. The Nebraska regiment at that time was in camp on the east line at Santa Mesa, and was guarding its front. For days before the memorable 4th of February, 1899, the outposts in front of the regiment had been openly menaced and assaulted by insurgent soldiers; they were attempting to push our outposts back and advance their line. They made light of our sentinels and persistently ignored their orders. On the evening of the 4th of February, an insurgent officer came to the front with a detail of men and attempted to pass the guard on the San Juan Bridge, our guard being stationed at the west end of the bridge. The Nebraska sentinel drove them back without firing, but a few minutes before 9 o'clock that evening a large body of insurgent troops made an advance on the South Dakota outposts, which fell back rather than fire. About the same time the insurgents came in force to the east end of the San Juan Bridge, in front of the Nebraska regiment. For several nights prior thereto a lieutenant in the insurgent army had been coming regularly

to our outpost No. 2, of the Nebraska regiment, and attempting to force the outpost back and insisting on posting his guard within the Nebraska lines; and at this time and in the darkness he again appeared with a detail of about six men and approached Private Grayson, of Company D, First Nebraska Volunteers, the sentinel on duty at outpost No. 2. He, after halting them three times without effect, fired, killing the lieutenant, whose men returned the fire and then retreated. Immediately rockets were sent up by the Filipinos, and they commenced firing all along the line, . . . and continued to fire until about midnight; and about 4 o'clock on the morning of February 5 the insurgents again opened fire all around the city and kept it up until the Americans charged them and drove them with great slaughter out of their trenches."—

Preliminary Report of Philippine Commission (Exhibit 1: Report, Jan. 31, 1900, v. 1, pp. 174-175).—

"They [the insurgents] were promptly repulsed in a series of active engagements which extended through the night of the 4th, and the 5th, 6th, and 10th days of February. Our lines were extended and established at a considerable distance from the city in every direction. On the 22d of February a concerted rising of the Tagalogs in the city of Manila, of whom there are about 200,000, was attempted, under instructions to massacre all the Americans and Europeans in the city. This attempt was promptly suppressed and the city was placed under strict control. The troops composing the Eighth Army Corps under General Otis's command at that time were of regulars 171 officers and 5,201 enlisted men and of volunteers 667 officers and 14,831 enlisted men, making an aggregate of 838 officers and 20,032 enlisted men. All of the volunteers and 1,650 of the regulars were, or were about to become, entitled to their discharge, and their right was perfected by the exchange of ratifications of the treaty on the 11th of April. . . . The months of the most intense heat, followed by the very severe rainy season of that climate, were immediately approaching, and for any effective occupation of the country it was necessary to await both the close of the rainy season and the supply of new troops to take the place of those about to be discharged. Practically all the volunteers who were then in the Philippines consented to forego the just expectation of an immediate return to their homes, and to remain in the field until their places could be supplied by new troops. They voluntarily subjected themselves to the dangers and casualties of numerous engagements, and to the very great hardships of the climate. They exhibited fortitude and courage, and are entitled to high commendation for their patriotic spirit and soldierly conduct. . . . No attempt was . . . made to occupy the country, except in the vicinity of Manila, and at such points as were important for the protection of our lines. Such movements as passed beyond this territory were designed primarily to break up threatening concentrations of insurgent troops, and to prevent undue annoyance to the positions which we occupied. On the 11th day of February the city of Iloilo, on the island of Panay, the second port of the Philippines in importance, was occupied. After the capture of Iloilo the navy took possession of the city of Cebu, on the island of Cebu, and on the 26th day of February a battalion of the 23d Infantry was dispatched to that port for the protection of the inhabitants and property. On the 1st of March a military district comprising the islands of Panay, Negros, and Cebu, and such other Visayan islands as might be thereafter designated, to be known as the 'Visayan Military District,' was established and placed under the super-

vision of Brig. Gen. Marcus P. Miller, commanding 1st Separate Brigade, Eighth Army Corps, with headquarters at Iloilo. . . . By the 10th of October the process of changing armies and the approach of the dry season had reached a point where an advance toward the general occupation of the country was justified. At that time the American lines extended from the Bay of Manila to Laguna de Bay, and included considerable parts of the provinces of Cavite, Laguna, and Morong to the south and east of Manila, substantially all of the province of Manila and the southern parts of Bulacan and Pampanga, dividing the insurgent forces into two widely separated parts. To the south and east



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of our lines in Cavite and Morong were numerous bands occasionally concentrating for attack on our lines, and as frequently dispersed and driven back toward the mountains. On the 8th of October, the insurgents in this region having again gathered and attacked our lines of communication, General Schwan with a column of 1,726 men commenced a movement from Bacoor, in the province of Cavite, driving the enemy through Old Cavite, Noveleta, Santa Cruz, San Francisco de Malabon, Saban, and Perez das Marinas, punishing them severely, scattering them and destroying them as organized forces, and returning on the 13th to Bacoor. On the north of our lines stretched the great plain of central Luzon extending north from Manila about 120 miles. This plain comprises parts of the provinces of Manila, Pampanga, Bulacan,

Tarlac, Nueva, Ecija, and Pangasinan. It is, roughly speaking, bounded on the south by the Bay of Manila; on the east and west by high mountain ranges separating it from the seacoast, and on the north by mountains and the Gulf of Lingayen. Through the northeast and central portion flows the Rio Grande from the northern mountains southwesterly to the Bay of Manila, and near the western edge runs the only railroad on the island of Luzon, in a general southeasterly direction from Dagupan, on the Bay of Lingayen, to Manila. In this territory Aguinaldo exercised a military dictatorship, and with a so-called cabinet imitated the forms of civil government, having his headquarters at Tarlac, which he called his capital, and which is situated near the center of the western boundary of the plain. The operations commenced in October involved the movement of three separate forces: (1) A column proceeding up the Rio Grande and along the northeastern borders of the plain and bending around to the westward across the northern boundary toward the Gulf of Lingayen, garrisoning the towns and occupying the mountain passes which gave exit into the northeastern division of the island. (2) An expedition proceeding by transports to the Gulf of Lingayen, there to land at the northwestern corner of the plain and occupy the great coast road which from that point runs between the mountains and the sea to the northern extremity of the island, and to proceed eastward to a junction with the first column. (3) A third column proceeding directly up the railroad to the capture of Tarlac, and thence still up the road to Dagupan, driving the insurgent forces before it toward the line held by the first two columns. These movements were executed with energy, rapidity, and success, notwithstanding the exceedingly unfavorable weather and deluges of rain, which rendered the progress of troops and transportation of subsistence most difficult. On the 12th of October a strong column under General Lawton, with General Young commanding the advance, commenced the northerly movement up the Rio Grande from Arayat, driving the insurgents before it to the northward and westward. On the 18th the advance reached Cabiao. On the 19th San Isidro was captured, and a garrison established; on the 27th Cabanatuan was occupied, and a permanent station established there. On the 1st of November Aliaga and Talavera were occupied. In the meantime detachments, chiefly of Young's cavalry, were operating to the west of the general line of advance, striking insurgent parties wherever they were found and driving them toward the line of the railroad. By the 13th of November the advance had turned to the westward, and our troops had captured San Jose, Lupao, Humangan, San Quintin, Tayug, and San Nicolas. By the 18th of November the advance had occupied Asingan and Rosales, and was moving on Pozorrubio, a strongly intrenched post about 12 miles east of San Fabian. General Lawton's forces now held a line of posts extending up the eastern side of the plain and curving around and across the northern end to within a few miles of the Gulf of Lingayen. On the 6th of November a force of 2,500, under command of General Wheaton, sailed from Manila for the Gulf of Lingayen, convoyed by ships of the Navy, and on the 7th the expedition was successfully landed at San Fabian with effective assistance from a naval convoy against spirited opposition. On the 12th the 33d Volunteers, of Wheaton's command, under Colonel Hare, proceeded southeastward to San Jacinto, attacked and routed 1,200 intrenched insurgents, with the loss of the gallant Maj. John A. Logan and 6

enlisted men killed, and one officer and 11 men wounded. The enemy left 81 dead in the trenches and suffered a total loss estimated at 300. In the meantime, on the 5th of November, a column under General McArthur advanced up the railroad from Angeles to Magalang, clearing the country between Angeles and Arayat, encountering and routing bodies of the enemy at different points, and capturing Magalang. On the 11th it took Bamban, Capas, and Concepcion, and on the 12th of November entered Tarlac, from which the enemy fled on its approach. Meantime, parties, mainly of the 36th Volunteers, under Col. J. F. Bell, cleared the country to the right of the line of advance as far east as the points reached by General Lawton's flanking parties. On the 17th of November McArthur's column had occupied Gerona and Panique, to the north of Tarlac. On the 19th, Wheaton's troops, and on the 20th, McArthur's troops, entered Dagupan. On the 24th of November General Otis was able to telegraph to the Department as follows: 'Claim to government by insurgents can be made no longer under any fiction. Its treasurer, secretary of the interior, and president of congress in our hands; its president and remaining cabinet officers in hiding, evidently in different central Luzon provinces; its generals and troops in small bands scattered through these provinces, acting as banditti, or dispersed, playing the rôle of "Amigos," with arms concealed.'—*Annual Report of the Secretary of War, 1899, (Message and Documents: Abridgment, 1899-1900, v. 2, pp. 735-741).*—General Young reported to General Otis from Pozorrubio, on November 17: "Aguinaldo is now a fugitive and an outlaw, seeking security in escape to the mountains or by sea. My cavalry have ridden down his forces wherever found, utterly routing them in every instance, killing some, capturing and liberating many prisoners, and destroying many arms, ammunition, and other war impediments. On the 30th, Major March was sent by General Young, as he expresses it, 'on Aguinaldo's trail,' and encountered the forces of the Filipino General Pilar in the Tila Pass."—*Report of Lieutenant-General commanding the army, 1900, pt. 4, p. 331.*—The Americans made an ascent lasting two hours on a steep zig-zag trail winding up the Tila mountains, during which time the enemy kept up an incessant fire, varied by rolling stones upon the heads of the soldiers. When the Americans gained the crest of the hill, the barricades were soon taken. The loss of the insurgents in the fight was fifty-two, including General Gregorio del Pilar. The Americans suffered two killed and nine wounded. Aguinaldo with his wife and a few men were living in a convent at Cervantes, secure in the belief that Tila Pass could not be taken.

1899.—Beginnings of acceptance of American sovereignty.—Treaty with sultan of Sulu.—While the fight with the insurgents of Luzon was still going on, other islands began to resign themselves to the claims of the United States. Negros was the first island to accept American sovereignty. Its people proclaimed allegiance to the United States, and an arrangement was effected by which the island should be under military authority for the time being, with the expectation of popular government ultimately. Meanwhile, after some delay and difficulty, General Otis made a treaty with the sultan of Sulu which brought a large part of the warlike Moros under American control. "By Article I the sovereignty of the United States over the whole archipelago of Jolo [or Sulu] and its dependencies is declared and acknowledged. The United States flag will be used in the archipelago and its dependencies, on land and sea.

Piracy is to be suppressed, and the Sultan agrees to co-operate heartily with the United States authorities to that end and to make every possible effort to arrest and bring to justice all persons engaged in piracy. All trade in domestic products of the archipelago of Jolo when carried on with any part of the Philippine Islands and under the American flag shall be free, unlimited, and undutiable. The United States will give full protection to the Sultan in case any foreign nation should attempt to impose upon him. The United States will not sell the island of Jolo or any other island of the Jolo archipelago to any foreign nation without the consent of the Sultan. Salaries for the Sultan and his associates in the administration of the islands have been agreed upon to the amount of \$760 monthly. Article X provides that any slave in the archipelago of Jolo shall have the right to purchase freedom by paying to the master the usual market value. The agreement by General Bates was made subject to confirmation by the President and to future modifications by the consent of the parties in interest. I have confirmed said agreement, subject to the action of the Congress, and with the reservation, which I have directed shall be communicated to the Sultan of Jolo, that this agreement is not to be deemed in any way to authorize or give the consent of the United States to the existence of slavery in the Sulu archipelago."—*Message of the President, Dec. 5, 1899 (Message and Documents: Abridgment, 1899-1900, v. 2, pp. 47-48).*—The population of the Sulu archipelago was estimated at 120,000, including 20,000 fighting men.

1899-1900.—Final defeat of insurgents.—By the end of November, 1899, the government established by the Philippine insurgents in central Luzon and the organized armed forces by which it was maintained had been destroyed, and the principal civil and military leaders of the insurrection, accompanied by small and scattered bands of troops, were the objects of pursuit in the western and the northern parts of the island. That pursuit was prosecuted with vigor and success, under conditions of extraordinary difficulty and hardship, and resulted in the further and practically complete disintegration of the insurrectionary bands in those regions, in the rescue of nearly all the American prisoners and the greater part of the Spanish prisoners held by the insurgents, in the capture of many of the leading insurgents, and in the capture and destruction of large quantities of arms, ammunition, and supplies. There still remained a large force of insurgents in Cavite and the adjacent provinces south of Manila, and a considerable force to the east of the Rio Grande de Pampanga, chiefly in the province of Bulacan, while in the extreme southeastern portions of Luzon, and in the various Visayan islands, except the island of Negros, armed bodies of Tagalogs had taken possession of the principal seacoast towns, and were exercising military control over the peaceful inhabitants."—*Annual Report of United States Secretary of War, Nov. 30, 1900, pp. 5-10.*—A series of successful movements against these groups finally defeated and dispersed them, leaving only an annoying guerrilla warfare, which was gradually suppressed. As fast as the Americans occupied territory, the policy of aiding the inhabitants in the re-establishment of their local governments was followed, and the protection of the United States was promised. Troops were, therefore, distributed through the Philippine islands in over 400 different posts.

1900.—Cagayan, Sibuta, and Bachi islands

sold by Spain to the United States. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-December).

1900.—Progress toward civil government.—**Establishment of municipal governments.**—**Appointment of second commission with legislative powers.**—**Second commission's recommendation of civil government for the islands.**—The year 1900 is marked by steady and rapid progress toward civil government for the islands. The first commission, whose chief function was that of investigation and advice, strongly recommended the establishment of territorial government. Meanwhile the first step toward self-government for the Philippines was taken when the municipal governments were organized. The provisions of the law establishing municipalities were framed by a board of which Don Cayetano Arrellano, chief justice of the Philippines, was president. The law provided for the recognition of the existing towns of the Philippines as municipal corporations under the administration of an alcade and a municipal council, who were to be chosen by the qualified electors of the town. These electors must be male persons over twenty-three who annually pay thirty pesos or more of the established taxes, and can read, write, and speak either English or Spanish. This was the beginning of government by the people. "The Schurman Philippine Commission for some reason had been required to report to the secretary of state. The management of the new dependencies was now transferred to the War Department. Elihu Root became secretary of war in 1899, and thereafter until 1904 Philippine affairs were under his personal direction and control. . . . The government of the Philippines as it exists to-day is largely his creation, and his efficient work in establishing and maintaining peace in the Archipelago was given due weight when, in 1913, he was granted the Nobel prize. The president derived his power to govern the territory from his constitutional authority as commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and this power continued after the ratification of the treaty of peace and until such time as Congress assumed jurisdiction and control of the territory. . . . In April 1900, the president appointed the United States Philippine Commission [the second commission], which was designed to supplement the work of the army and establish a civil government which should exist until Congress assumed charge. The members of the new commission were not so well known to the public as those of the Schurman Commission had been. The president, Mr. William H. Taft, of Ohio, had been solicitor-general of the United States and was well and favorably known to the legal profession as a United States circuit judge. Neither of the other members had more than a local reputation. They were, however, all men of high standing in the states from which they came. Mr. Luke L. Wright had been attorney-general of Tennessee. . . . Mr. Henry C. Ide, of Vermont, was a lawyer and had served creditably as chief justice of Samoa during the period of the joint American, English and German protectorate. Mr. Dean C. Worcester was assistant professor of zoology at the University of Michigan and was the only member who had the advantage of any personal knowledge of the islands, having visited them on two previous occasions on scientific expeditions and recently as a member of the Schurman Commission. Mr. Bernard Moses was professor of history at the University of California, and had written several books on Spanish-American history. All these men served their country and the Philippines faithfully and well. Mr. Taft became civil gov-

enor, secretary of war and president of the United States. Mr. Wright became the first governor-general of the Philippines, the first American ambassador to Japan, and secretary of war during the last days of President Roosevelt's administration. Mr. Ide became governor-general and minister to Spain. Mr. Worcester remained a member of the commission and secretary of the interior until 1913. Mr. Moses, after serving as commissioner and secretary of public instruction, resigned and returned to the University of California. The Instructions which were prepared by Secretary Root [under the direction of President McKinley] for the guidance of this commission constitute a very noble state paper. The general principles therein announced were such as would naturally control in any government for which America, with her traditions, was responsible. . . . Until September 1, 1890, the commission was to devote its attention to . . . investigations. On that date the part of the power of the government which was of a legislative nature should be transferred from the military governor to the commission and be thereafter exercised by it under rules and regulations prescribed by the secretary of war until the establishment of a complete civil central government, or until Congress should otherwise provide. The legislative power thus conferred included the making of rules and orders having the effect of law for raising revenue by taxation, customs, and imposts; the appropriation and expenditure of such funds; the establishment of an educational system and a civil service; the organization and establishment of courts, of municipal and departmental governments, and all other matters of a civil nature for which the military governor was then competent to provide by rules or orders of a legislative character. . . . The commission was seriously embarrassed in its work by limitations upon its legislative power. Many subjects which required consideration were deemed beyond the war powers of the president. There were some strict constructionists who doubted the validity of many things which were being done, even the action of the president in creating the commission. In order to remove such doubts Congress was urged to confirm what had been done and specifically to authorize the commission to enact laws with reference to public lands, mining, franchises, and other matters deemed necessary for the development of the country."—C. B. Elliott, *Philippines to the end of the military régime*, pp. 480, 496-497, 501-502, 524.—Meanwhile the Filipinos had not lost their last hope of immediate independence. Encouraged by the sympathy of many Americans, especially those of the Democratic party, the citizens of Manila, on July 15, 1900, presented an appeal to Congress. It was signed by 2,006 of the most prominent people of Manila.

1900.—Speech of Senator Hoar against subjugation and retention of the islands by the United States. See U.S.A.: 1900 (April).

1900.—Philippine question in American politics. See U.S.A.: 1900 (May—November).

1900.—Adoption of civil service rules. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1900.

1900.—Problem of the Spanish friars.—One of the first problems which the commission had to face was the question, whether the Spanish friars should be allowed to return, and, if not, the disposition that was to be made of the great tracts of land owned by them. On this matter the sentiment of the Filipinos themselves was greatly divided. On the one hand there were those who regarded the friars as the head and fountain of oppression.—"Perhaps the most deep-seated cause

of Filipino insurrection against Spanish authority was this unchecked growth of ignorant, cruel, and oppressive ecclesiasticism. It was this which weighed most heavily upon the people. It made the mere question of gaining a livelihood difficult, but especially did it strangle intellectual and moral growth. It not only oppressed the Filipinos, but it overawed and dominated the Spanish authorities. It was the power of the mendicant orders which drove out the just Condé de Caspe, and later the well-disposed and clement Blanco, which stimulated and supported the frightful atrocities of the cruel Polavieja during the revolution of 1896. Archbishop Nozaleda, a Spanish monk of the Dominican order, was a leader in urging wholesale and often wholly unjustifiable arrests, which were succeeded by the torture and execution of hundreds of persons. It is difficult for a mind reared in the freedom and culture of modern Europe, or still freer America, to realize the horrible excesses and actual mediæval cruelties which were committed in the prisons of Manila and elsewhere in the islands upon Filipino insurgents, or those accused of being in league with them, during the revolution of 1896."—H. Welsh, *The other man's country*, ch. 1.—On the other hand there was the enormous power of organized Catholicism, in the Philippines and in America, as well as in the world at large, which pointed, with not wholly unjustifiable pride, to the accomplishments of the friars in the islands. "The ideals of civilization for the Spanish missionary priests in the Philippines were substantially the same as those of Bacon and Raleigh, of the founders of New England and the founders of New York. In the mind of all, a civilized people was one which lived under settled laws by steady labor, which was more or less acquainted with the material progress made amongst the races of Europe, and, as all would say, which was Christian. The Spanish friars undertook the task of giving such a civilization to the Malays of the Philippines, and no other body of men of any race or any faith have accomplished what they have done. A task of somewhat similar kind has been attempted by others in our own day in the name of Christian civilization but not the Catholic Church. Hawaii has been under control of missionaries from New England for seventy-five years more completely than the Philippines were ever under that of the Spanish friars. The native kings adopted the new creed and enforced its adoption on their subjects by vigorous corporal punishments. The missionaries were abundantly supplied with such resources of civilization as money could buy, and they have grown wealthy on their mission; but what has been the fate of the natives? They have dwindled in numbers to a fourth of what they were. . . . In the Philippines in a hundred and forty years a million of Catholic natives has grown seven fold. In Hawaii under missioners of the world's manufacture a hundred and forty thousand of the same race has shrunk to thirty-eight thousand. Have the promises of the Spanish friars or those of the American ministers been the most truthfully kept? The actual condition of the Catholic population formed by the work of the religious orders should not be judged by the excesses which have marked the present revolution. Many old Christian nations have gone through similar experiences."—B. J. Clinch (*American Catholic Quarterly Review*, v. 24, p. 15).—The point of view of the commissioners on this vexed subject was expressed in a report by Judge Taft, sent to Washington as part of the general report of the commission, bearing date, November 30, 1900:

"Excepting the Moros, who are Moslems, and the wild tribes, who are pagans, the Philippine people belong to the Roman Catholic Church. The total number of Catholic souls shown by the Church registry in 1898 was 6,559,998. To care for these in that year there were in the archipelago 746 regular parishes, 105 mission parishes and 116 missions, or 967 in all. Of the regular parishes all save 150 were administered by Spanish monks of the Dominican, Augustinian, or Franciscan orders. Natives were not admitted to these orders. There were two kinds of Augustinians in these islands, the shod and the unshod. The latter are called Recoletos, and are merely an offshoot from the original order of St. Augustine. By the revolutions of 1896 and 1898 against Spain, all the Dominicans, Augustinians, Recoletos, and Franciscans acting as parish priests were driven from their parishes to take refuge in Manila. Forty were killed and 403 were imprisoned, and were not all released until by the advance of the American troops it became impossible for the insurgents to retain them. Of the 1,124 who were in the islands in 1896, only 472 remain. The remainder were either killed or died, returned to Spain, or went to China or South America. There were also in the islands engaged in missions and missionary parishes, 42 Jesuits, 16 Capuchins, and six Benedictines, and while many of these left their missions because of disturbed conditions they do not seem to have been assaulted or imprisoned for any length of time. In addition to the members of the monastic orders, there were 150 native secular clergymen in charge of small parishes who were not disturbed. There were also many native priests in the larger parishes who assisted the friar curates and they have remained, and they have been and are acting as parish priests. The burning political question, discussion of which strongly agitates the people of the Philippines, is whether the members of the four great orders of St. Dominic, St. Augustine, St. Francis, and the Recoletos shall return to the parishes from which they were driven by the revolution. Colloquially the term 'friars' includes the members of these four orders. The Jesuits, Capuchins, Benedictines, and the Paulists, of whom there are a few teachers here, have done only mission work or teaching, and have not aroused the hostility existing against the four large orders to which we are now about to refer. . . . The truth is that the whole government of Spain in these islands rested on the friars. . . . The civil and military officers of Spain in the island were here for not longer than four years, and more often for a less period. The friars, priests, and bishops, therefore, constituted a solid, powerful, permanent, well organized political force in the islands which dominated policies. The stay of those officers who attempted to pursue a course at variance with that deemed wise by the orders was invariably shortened by monastic influence. Of the four great orders, one, the Franciscans, is not permitted to own property, except convents and schools. This is not true of the other three. They own some valuable business property in Manila, and have large amounts of money to lend. But the chief property of these orders is in agricultural land. . . . The revolutions against Spain's sovereignty began as movements against the friars. . . . Having in view these circumstances, the statement of the bishops and friars that the mass of the people in these islands, except only a few of the leading men of each town and the native clergy, are friendly to them cannot be accepted as accurate. . . . In the light of these considerations it is not wonderful that the people should regard

the return of the friars to their parishes as a return to the conditions existing before the revolution. The common people are utterly unable to appreciate that under the sovereignty of the United States the position of the friar as curate would be different from that under Spain. This is not a religious question, though it concerns the selection of religious ministers for religious communities. The Philippine people love the Catholic Church. . . . The depth of their feeling against the friars may be measured by the fact that it exists against those who until two years ago administered the sacraments of the Church upon which they feel so great dependence and for which they have so profound a respect. The feeling against the friars is solely political. The people would gladly receive as ministers of the Roman Catholic religion any save those who are to them the embodiment of all in the Spanish rule that was hateful. If the friars return to their parishes, though only under the same police protection which the American Government is bound to extend to any other Spanish subjects in these islands, the people will regard it as the act of that Government. . . . The friars have large property interests in these islands which the United States Government is bound by treaty obligations and by the law of its being to protect. It is natural and proper that the friars should feel a desire to remain where so much of their treasure is. . . . It would avoid some very troublesome agrarian disturbances between the friars and their quondam tenants if the Insular Government could buy these large haciendas of the friars, and sell them out in small holdings to the present tenants, who, forgiven for the rent due during the two years of war, would recognize the title of the Government without demur, and gladly accept an opportunity, by payment of the price in small instalments, to become absolute owners of that which they and their ancestors have so long cultivated. With the many other calls upon the insular treasury a large financial operation like this could probably not be conducted to a successful issue without the aid of the United States Government, either by a direct loan or by a guaranty of bonds to be issued for the purpose. The bonds or loans could be met gradually from the revenues of the islands, while the proceeds of the land, which would sell readily, could be used to constitute a school fund."

1901.—Act of the United States Congress increasing army and authorizing enlistment of native troops.—Rejection of proviso of Senator Hoar. See U.S.A.: 1901 (February).

1901 (March).—Congressional grant of power.—Spooners Act.—"On March 2, 1901, Congress took its first halting step toward the performance of its constitutional duty to provide rules and regulations for the new territory. The Spooners Act, however, did little more than approve what the president had done by virtue of the war power and authorize him to continue governing the islands. It provided that 'all military, civil and judicial powers necessary to govern the Philippine Islands acquired from Spain . . . shall, until otherwise provided by Congress be vested in such person and persons and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct for the establishment of civil government and for maintaining and protecting the inhabitants of such islands in the free enjoyment of their liberty, property and religion.'"—C. B. Elliott, *Philippines to the end of the military régime*, pp. 524-525.

1901 (July).—Establishment of civil government.—Organization of provincial governments.

—Capitulation of Aguinaldo.—Tariff law.—Industrial depression.—“An executive order was . . . issued by the president directing that on and after the fourth day of July, 1901, until otherwise directed, the executive authority in all civil affairs in the government of the Philippines which had been exercised by the military governor should be exercised by the president of the Philippine Commission. Mr. Taft was named as the first civil governor. The power to appoint all civil officers was transferred from the Philippine Commission to the civil governor with the advice and consent of the commission. Although the military governor was relieved of civil duties in the pacified territory, his authority was continued in districts in which insurrection against the authority of the United States existed and in which public order was not sufficiently restored to enable provincial civil governments to be established. The continuance of military government in certain provinces was necessary for another year, but it was finally terminated by the order of President Roosevelt, issued on July 4, 1902, which recited that the insurrection was ended and that civil government had been established throughout the entire Archipelago not inhabited by Moro tribes. . . . Most interesting to the Filipinos was the announcement that the membership of the Commission had been enlarged and that the president had appointed Dr. T. H. Pardo de Tavera, Senor Don Benito Legarda, and Senor Don Jose Luzuriaga, all natives of the Philippines, to fill the new positions thus created. . . . It was also announced that on the first of the following September, the effectiveness of the insular government would be increased by the organization of four executive departments to be known as the Departments of the Interior, Commerce and Police, Finance, and Justice, and Public Instruction, which would be under the control respectively of Commissioners Worcester, Wright, Ide, and Moses.”—C. B. Elliott, *Philippines to end of commission government*, pp. 4-6.—Early in 1901 provincial governments were organized in Luzon, and Mr. Taft set forth on a journey through the islands, upon the invitation of the Filipinos, to organize provincial governments everywhere. “The commission reached the conclusion that it would aid in the pacification of the country; would make the members of that body very much better acquainted with the country, with the people, and with the local conditions, and would help to educate the people in American methods, if the commission went to the capital of each province and there passed the special act necessary to create the provincial government and made the appointments at that time. Accordingly, the commission visited thirty-three provinces. . . . The policy of the commission in its provincial appointments has been, where possible, to appoint Filipinos as governors and Americans as treasurers and supervisors. The provincial secretary and the provincial fiscal appointed have uniformly been Filipinos. It will be observed that this makes a majority of the provincial board American. The commission has, in several instances, appointed to provincial offices former insurgent generals who have been of especial aid in bringing about peace, and in so doing it has generally acted on the earnest recommendation of the commanding officer of the district or province. We believe the appointments made have had a good effect and the appointees have been anxious to do their duty.”—*Second Report of Second United States Philippine Commission*, Dec. 1, 1900-Oct. 15, 1901, pt. 1, pp. 7-20.—See also TERRITORIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES.—The new tariff

for the islands, which the commission had been long engaged in framing, was submitted, in March, to the government at Washington for approval. “In his letter of transmittal Judge Taft says that the proposed bill follows largely the classification of the Cuban tariff, ‘but has been considerably expanded by the introduction of articles requiring special treatment here by reason of different surroundings and greater distance from the markets.’” —*Report of President to Congress concerning the progress of the work of the commission*, Mar. 18, 1901.—The last obstacle to the transference of all governmental power from military to civil authorities was removed when a stratagem, executed with great daring by Brigadier-General Frederick Funston of the American forces, resulted in the capture of Aguinaldo, March 23, 1901. The years of warfare had, naturally, left the islands in a depleted condition.—“The civil government has assumed responsibility for the preservation of order and the maintenance of law throughout the Christian Filipino territory of this archipelago at a time when the material conditions are most discouraging and present every conceivable obstacle to the successful administration of the affairs of 6,000,000 or 7,000,000 people. The war of six years since 1896 has greatly interfered with the regular pursuit of agriculture, which is almost the only source of wealth in the islands. . . . The greatest blow to agriculture has been the loss of the carabao or water buffalo, upon which the cultivation of rice, according to the mode pursued in these islands, is wholly dependent. The war in some degree, and the rinderpest in a much larger degree, have destroyed about 90 per cent of the carabaos; and the natives—never very active in helping themselves—have simply neglected the rice culture, so that now the islands are compelled to spend about \$15,000,000 gold to buy food upon which to live. . . . The cholera has swept over these islands with fatal effect, so that the total loss will probably reach 100,000 deaths. . . . The bane of Philippine civilization in the past was ladronism, and the present conditions are most favorable for its growth and maintenance. . . . It is true that the ladrones, though they live on nothing but cattle and rice stealing, and never attack American soldiers, and prey only upon their own people, do masquerade as insurgents; but they recognize no authority and have no characteristics other than those of banditti. . . . The picture that I have given of the depressed condition of agriculture, and the tendency to ladronism in the Tagalog provinces and in some of the Visayan provinces, does not apply to those provinces in which hemp is the chief product. They are wealthy and prosperous.”—*Report of Governor W. H. Taft (Report of the Philippine Commission, 1902, pt. 1.)*

Also in: F. W. Atkinson, *Philippine islands*.—J. Foreman, *Philippine islands*.—R. R. Lala, *Philippine islands*.—F. H. Sawyer, *Inhabitants of the Philippines*.—J. G. Schurman, *Philippine affairs*.—W. H. Taft, *Civil government in the Philippines*.—D. C. Worcester, *Philippine islands and their people*.

1901 (August).—Education.—Immediate efforts.—Public schools organized.—“Within two weeks of the capitulation of Manila to our military forces, General Otis personally had selected and ordered modern text-books as the first step in opening schools in the Islands. Eighteen days after Manila fell, seven schools were opened there under the direction of one of our army chaplains, although it was months before we knew the Philippines were to be transferred to us. These acts

had much effect upon the natives, who were wondering what sort of people we were. Non-commissioned officers of the army were assigned as school-teachers, and the teaching of English especially advanced. . . . We continued to go ahead, even more rapidly when Aguinaldo attacked us in February, 1899. Two months after that event, we had an army officer, a Yale graduate, as superintendent of the Manila schools, of which there were then thirty-nine in active operation. . . . Thus, although we were in the very hottest of the insurrection, our army had about a thousand schools crowded with pupils long before the civil government took over the army's task in June, 1901. By the first of the preceding September, General Otis had expended more than twice as much for text-books and supplies as Spain spent for all school charges of every nature during some entire years just preceding 1898 in all the Islands outside of Manila. In the late summer of 1900, Fred. W. Atkinson, one of the most renowned educational experts in the United States, landed in the Islands with the appointment of general superintendent of public instruction, with no directions except to secure progress. An organizer of the first class, he had the Commission pass an organic act upon January 21, 1901, that laid a broad foundation for a thoroughly modern system of schooling in every corner of the Archipelago. . . . One of the first big things done was to send to the United States for a thousand teachers, who had to meet a high standard of requirement. In 1901 they came over in small numbers up to August, when six hundred arrived in one transport. In twenty days they were on their way to their new work, and from that time English became the only medium of instruction. For this regulation, which has been warmly criticized, there were several reasons, all of which are now so buttressed by later events that probably nobody is to be found who would have it altered. First, English, more than any other language, is that of commerce in the Far East, and its use is becoming more general with each day. That it is bound to be the universal tongue of that part of the world cannot longer be disputed. To those who have felt that Spanish should have been continued, the response is that there was no Spanish that could cause serious consideration, among the mass of people. . . . Then it was evident that it would be a number of years before we could permit these people to try to govern themselves, which meant that English was for a long time to be the language of the official world of the Islands, both written and oral, hence the language by which official employment and favor could be procured. The Islands as a whole not only had no tongue, but, what was worse, had many entirely different dialects. It was necessary therefore that they should have some common language if they ever were to become a homogeneous people; and in view of the fact just presented, English was the best language for them, and the eagerness with which they seized the opportunity to acquire it is further evidence of the wisdom and correctness of this position. . . . Under Spain there was a total enrollment of two hundred and fifty thousand pupils. In 1911 it had risen to six hundred and ten thousand."—F. Chamberlin, *Philippine problem*, pp. 80-83.

1902.—Padre Aglipay's secession from Roman Catholic church.—Gregorio Aglipay, an Ilocano, and an ordained priest of the Catholic church, who had taken part in the insurrection, became the source of some trouble in 1902 by founding an independent Filipino Catholic church. Opposition

to his activities threatened to become violent, and Governor Taft was obliged to take a firm stand, as indicated in the final paragraph of his report on the subject.—"I have taken occasion to say, whenever an opportunity occurred, that the insular government desired to take no part whatever in the religious controversies thus arising; that it would protect Father Aglipay and his followers in worshiping God as they chose just as it would protect the Roman Catholic Church and its ministers and followers in the same rights. But that, if the law was violated by either party, it would become the duty of the government to step in and restrain such lawlessness."—Governor W. H. Taft, *Report*, 1902, pp. 39-40.—In 1922, the members of the Independent Catholic church numbered 1,413,506.

1902-1903.—Purchase of friar lands.—In May, 1902, Governor Taft was directed by the secretary of war to visit Rome to confer with the pope on the question of buying the friars' agricultural lands. As a result of this visit the pope gave his approval to the purchase and appointed an apostolic delegate to represent the church in the transaction. After long and protracted discussions, the price for the lands was fixed at \$7,543,000, and the purchase was completed, 1903.

1903-1913.—Moro province.—Renegades subdued.—"The Act of Congress of July 1, 1902, recognized the long-established distinction, based on religion and different stages of development, between the Filipinos, and the non-Christian tribes and Moros, and the consequent necessity for providing different forms of government for the different groups of people. On July 1, 1903, that part of the Archipelago inhabited by the Moros was by the commission organized as a separate province under the name of the Moro Province, with a form of local government which had been worked out by Brigadier-General Davis while in command of the military department. Prior to that time the government was purely military and thereafter military influence was continued by the detail and appointment of army officers to the civil offices. From the organization of the province until the reorganization in 1913, Generals Wood, Bliss and Pershing in turn were in command of the military department while occupying the civil office of governor of the province. During that time nearly all of the subordinate civil offices were also held by army officers. The number, however, was gradually reduced until in December, 1913, when General Pershing resigned, only the position of health officer was held by an officer of the United States Army. The Moro Province which was thus governed directly or indirectly by military officers during fifteen years included nearly all of the islands of Mindanao, the Sulu Archipelago, the Tawi Tawi group, and the other islands south of the eighth parallel except Palawan, Balabac, and certain small islands adjacent thereto."—C. B. Elliott, *Philippines to the end of commission government*, pp. 92-93.—"On March 6-9, 1906, occurred a desperate battle at Dajo Crater, on Sulu Island, between American forces and renegades. On this occasion, at which the writer was present, the entire native force, numbering between 1200 and 1400 Moros, were slain. This was the most complete defeat the Moros have ever suffered."—H. M. Wright, *Handbook of the Philippines*, p. 155.

1904-1912.—Congressional investigation of friar lands.—"In 1910, . . . charges were made by Representative John A. Martin of Colorado that friar lands had been illegally and corruptly disposed of. On June 25, 1910, the House by reso-

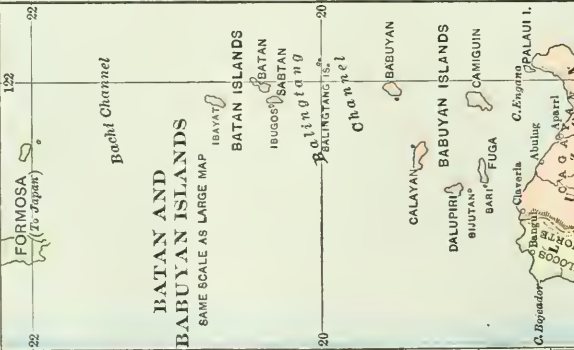
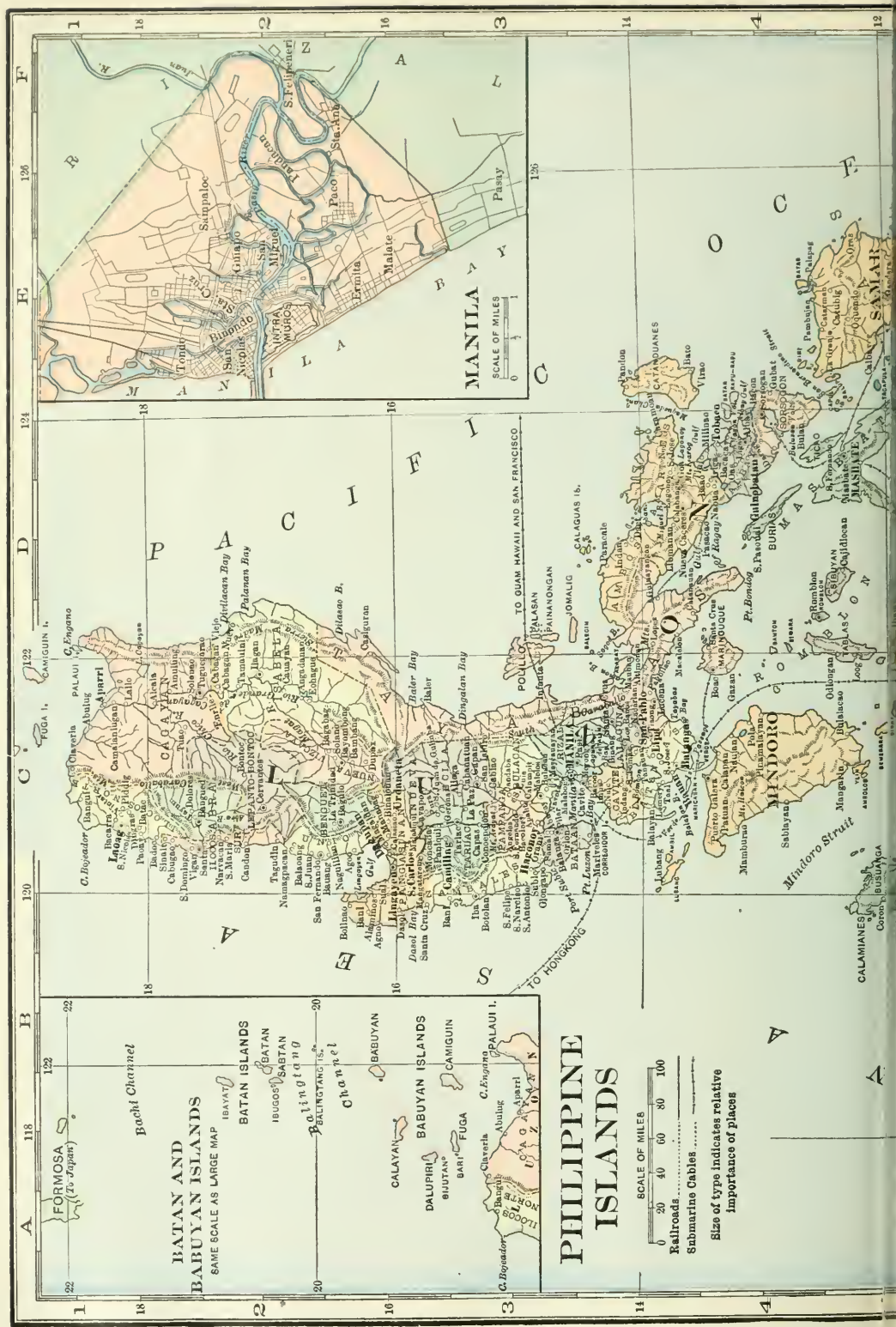
lution ordered an investigation. In November, Secretary Worcester and other officials concerned went to Washington and appeared before the committee. The charges of malfeasance appear to have been very recklessly made and were entirely disproved. Nor had lands been disposed of in a manner contrary to the law. Congress in legislating in 1902 [the Friar Lands Act was finally passed in 1904], had provided that grants from the national domain in the Philippines should be in the form of homesteads of not more than 16 hectares to an individual nor more than 1000 hectares to a single corporation. The Commission in disposing of the friar lands had not felt bound by these limitations. The Philippine public domain was property of the United States and subject to disposal under such conditions as Congress had determined, but the friar lands were entirely distinct and were the possession of the Philippine government. Several large tracts were leased to single individuals, including an official, and the Mindoro estate was sold to an American sugar corporation. If made generally, these large disposals would be inimical to the policy of developing small land-owners, but the situation of the Mindoro estate on an uninhabited and undeveloped coast strongly recommended its sale to a corporation with resources sufficient to develop it and encourage the settlement of that island. In view of the criticism which the sale or lease of large tracts had awakened, the administration at Washington instructed the Philippines government [1912] to seek only small lessees and occupants. The policy of the United States to open the public lands of the Philippines to homesteaders has never been successfully carried out by the Philippine government. The population is not naturally migratory and its ignorance and helplessness has prevented the general pre-emption of vacant lands."—D. P. Barrows, *Decade of American government in the Philippines*, pp. 47-48.—In 1904, Taft was succeeded as governor-general by Luke E. Wright, who continued in that office until 1906.

1905.—Report of committee on methods of dealing with the sale and use of opium. See OPIUM PROBLEM.

1906.—Change in constitution of provincial boards.—"The convention of provincial governors held in Manila in October, 1906, recommended that the then existing law providing that provincial boards shall be composed of a provincial governor elected by the municipal councilors and vice-presidents of the various municipalities of the province and a provisional treasurer and a third member appointed by the executive be so amended as to permit of the election of the provincial governor and third member by direct vote of the people. This recommendation was submitted to the Secretary of War, and on receiving his approval thereof the provincial government act was amended accordingly. This innovation in the constitution and selection of provincial boards has been an advantage both to the insular and to the local government. On the one hand it has removed all cause for friction between the provincial governor elected by the people and the two members of the board named by the executive. On the other it has imposed upon the provincial governor and the third member the responsibility for the well-being of the province and has removed from the insular government much of the responsibility for conditions purely of local concern."—*Report of the Philippine Commission*, Dec. 31, 1907 (*Message and Documents: Abridgment*, 1907, pp. 799-807).—In the early part of 1906 Henry C. Ide was made governor-general, serving only until September of

that year, when he was succeeded by James F. Smith, who held the office until 1909.

1907.—First election.—Opening the first legislature.—July 1, 1902, a bill was passed by Congress providing for a Philippine legislature. It was to consist of not less than fifty nor more than one hundred members, and it was to be elected when peace had been established, a census had been taken and two years of peace had elapsed. "On September 8, 1902, the Commission certified to the President that the insurrection, except in the Moro country, had ceased and that 'a condition of general and complete peace had been established.' Thereupon on September 25, President Roosevelt, 'being satisfied of the facts therein stated,' directed that the Commission should take the census in accordance with the provisions of the Act of Congress. It required three years to take the Census and publish the results, the last volume being published on March 27, 1905. On the following day Governor-General Wright [who had succeeded Taft when the latter resigned to become secretary of war] issued a proclamation calling attention to the fact and to the provisions of the Act of Congress which required that the conditions of general and complete peace should continue for two years more before the election could be called. . . . The election was called for July 30, 1907."—C. B. Elliott, *Philippines to the end of commission government*, pp. 16-19.—"In January, 1907, the Philippine Commission passed the Philippine election law. In framing this law the election codes of Massachusetts, New York, the District of Columbia, and California were consulted and features adopted from each, modified in such a way as to meet insular conditions and to avoid the mistakes and abuses that have arisen in some provincial and municipal elections in the islands. The aim has been to provide a law sufficiently explicit and not too complicated for easy comprehension. Every effort has been made to afford the necessary safeguards and machinery to insure purity, secrecy, certainty, and expedition, without causing too great a drain upon the resources of municipal and provincial governments. The prominent features of this law as amended are the divisions of those provinces not inhabited by Moros or other non-Christian tribes into 78 assembly districts, each province to constitute at least one district and the more populous being divided into more districts, in the ratio of 1 to every 90,000 of population and major fraction thereof remaining. In accordance with this apportionment there will be 80 delegates, two of whom will represent the city of Manila, which is considered as a province, within the meaning of the act of Congress, and divided into two districts."—*Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Insular Affairs*, Oct. 31, 1907 (*Message and Documents: Abridgment*, 1907, p. 781). It was in accordance with this law that the first Philippine Assembly was elected, July 30, 1907. The two houses of the new Philippine legislature met for the first time on October 11, 1907. Secretary Taft made the journey again to the islands in order to be present at the opening session. "As announced by provincial governors the elections for assemblymen resulted in the election of 32 Nacionalistas, 4 Independistas, 7 Inmediatistas, 16 Progresistas, 20 Independents, and 1 Centro Catolico. The total number of voters registered for the assembly elections was 704,966. . . . The delegates to the Philippine assembly, in accordance with the call of the governor-general as prescribed by the act of Congress, met at the Grand Opera House in the city of Manila on the 16th day of October at 9 o'clock A. M."—*Report of the Philippine Commission*, Dec.



PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100
Railroads
Submarine Cables
Size of type indicates relative importance of places



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Maps prepared specially for the NEW LARNED
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31, 1907 (*Message and Documents: Abridgment*, 1907, pp. 310-811).—Sergio Osmena, a young man who had already shown great ability as a provincial governor, was selected as the first speaker or presiding officer of the assembly. Secretary of War Taft, after his return from the islands where he opened the assembly, made an extended report to the president. He mentioned, in particular, the old Federal party which stood for peace under the sovereignty of the United States; the Nacionalistas which stood for independence; the Independistas, the Immediatistas, Intransigentes, and others with similar aims. In conclusion he stated: "As a shibboleth—as a party cry—immediate independence has much force, because it excites the natural pride of the people; but few of their number have ever worked out its consequences, and when they have done so they have been willing to postpone that question until some of the immediate needs of the people have been met. I may be wrong, but my judgment is that the transfer of real power, by giving to the people part of the legislative control of the Christian provinces, sobers their leaders with the sense of responsibility and teaches them some of the practical difficulties of government. . . . I do not for a moment guarantee that there will not at times be radical action by the Assembly, which cannot meet the approval of those who understand the legislative needs of the Islands, but all I wish to say is that the organization and beginning of the life of the Assembly have disappointed its would-be critics and have given great encouragement to those who were responsible for its extension of political power."—*Special Report of William H. Taft, Secretary of War, to the president, on the Philippines, Jan. 23, 1908 (60th Congress, 1st Session, Senate Document, no. 200)*.

1907-1909.—Free trade for islands.—August 6, 1907, the Payne and Colton Bills became law, and the markets of the United States were opened to the Philippine islands. This came as the culmination of years of determined effort on the part of Mr. Taft as civil governor, secretary of war, and later as president. In 1909, Cameron Forbes became governor-general, serving until 1913.

1911.—Recent volcanic activity.—Destructive typhoons.—"The Philippines are of volcanic formation. Activity has diminished in historic times and losses from eruption and earthquake are seemingly less than in earlier centuries. There are, however, no less than twelve volcanoes still more or less active. Of these the most notable is Mayon, which was in eruption at least twenty-five times in the nineteenth century, and next in activity is Taal. In 1754 this volcano erupted with violence and destroyed the towns of Taal, Lipa and Tanawan, which at that time were built on the shores of the lake in the midst of which the volcano rises. From that date, while constantly active and an object of great interest, Taal volcano inflicted no damage until the night of January 30, 1911, when after some hours of premonitory quaking and exploding it suddenly erupted with terrific force, emitting deadly blasts of gas and dropping masses of scalding mud for miles southward. The light of incandescent gases was witnessed at Manila, 40 miles away, and the explosion was heard at Dagupan, 160 miles distant. Numbers of villages about the lake were utterly destroyed and at least 1300 people perished. The extent of the tragedy was not at first appreciated at Manila, until adventurous officials traversed the locality and discovered hundreds of half buried bodies among the ruined villages. Then relief forces were sent, including constabulary and Red Cross representatives, and attention was given to such injured as survived.

The following year the government established a seismological station on the shore of the lake to observe future phenomena and give warning of danger."—D. P. Barrows, *Decade of American government in the Philippines, 1903-1913*, pp. 47-48, 51.—In 1897, the islands were swept by a typhoon, which destroyed several towns. The loss of life was estimated at 6,000, of whom 400 were Europeans. This was followed on October 12 by a cyclone which destroyed several villages and caused further loss of life.

1913-1917.—Under Democratic administration.—Filipinization.—Jones Act.—The American government in the Philippines had been established by Republicans in the face of Democratic opposition. Throughout the long Republican régime the Democrats had stood as champions of Philippine independence. When, therefore, in 1913, a Democratic administration came into power, there was a thorough overhauling of the Philippine government with a view to the speedy attainment of independence. The first step taken by the Wilson administration in regard to the islands was to allow the Filipinos a majority of the commission, or upper house. The second was the passage of the Jones Act which became the fundamental law of the islands. It was approved in August, 1916. Under its terms the Christian and civilized provinces were permitted to elect both a Senate and a House. The governor-general was authorized to appoint representatives for the non-Christian portions of the islands. The Filipino legislature was given legislative control over the whole archipelago. (See U.S.A.: 1916 [August]: Philippine [Jones] Act.) "For the first time a legislative measure affecting the Filipino-American relationship received Philippine sanction. The Philippine Legislature had time and again petitioned for the enactment of the law. Resolutions after resolutions had been adopted by the Philippine Assembly asking for its passage if no more radical measure could be enacted. The Filipino Resident Commissioners had worked for the same thing. The Filipino people endorsed the measure in numerous public meetings, in resolutions passed by provincial boards and municipalities and ratified that endorsement when they returned the majority party in power.—M. M. Kalaw, *Self-government in the Philippines*, p. 15.—"The Philippine Government Law of 1916 describes itself as an act 'to declare the purpose of the people of the United States as to the future political status of the people of the Philippine Islands and to provide a more autonomous government for those islands.' The enacting clause is preceded by the following preamble:

"Whereas it was never the intention of the people of the United States in the incipency of the war with Spain to make it a war of conquest or for territorial aggrandizement, and

"Whereas it is, as it has always been, the purpose of the people of the United States to withdraw their sovereignty over the Philippine Islands and to recognize their independence as soon as a stable government can be established therein, and

"Whereas for the speedy accomplishment of such purpose it is desirable to place in the hands of the people of the Philippines as large a control of their domestic affairs as can be given them without, in the meantime, impairing the exercise of the rights of sovereignty by the people of the United States, in order that, by the use and exercise of popular franchise and governmental powers, they may be the better prepared to fully assume the responsibilities and enjoy all the privileges of complete independence: Therefore, etc.

"This preamble was attached to the statute for

reasons purely political. It has no legal significance. . . . The law makes very substantial changes in the form of the Philippine government and imposes additional responsibilities upon the Filipinos. The appointive power of the president is somewhat restricted, but that of the governor-general is greatly enlarged, although his appointments are subject to confirmation by the Philippine Senate. He has ceased to be the presiding officer of the Upper House of the Legislature. But the principal changes are in the legislative department. The United States Philippine Commission and the Philippine Legislature as constituted under the Civil Government Law of 1902 are abolished and they are succeeded by a new body known as the Philippine Legislature, composed of an elective Senate and House of Representatives, with jurisdiction over the entire Archipelago. An elective Senate slightly diluted by executive appointees to represent the uncivilized regions takes the place of the former upper house of the legislature, which was composed entirely of the appointed members of the Philippine Commission. The old division of the islands into Christian, non-Christian and Moro territory has disappeared. The Archipelago is now divided into twelve senatorial and ninety representative districts. Each senatorial district is entitled to two elective senators who must be qualified electors, over thirty years of age, able to read and write either Spanish or English, residents of the Philippines for at least two years, and of the district for one year immediately prior to the election. Each representative district is entitled to one representative, who must be a qualified elector, over twenty-five years of age, able to read and write Spanish or English, and have been a resident of the district for at least one year immediately prior to the election. Although the entire territory of the islands is brought under the jurisdiction of the new legislature, that part formerly under the exclusive control of the commission is not granted the privilege of electing its representatives. As it would have seemed a trifle too absurd to grant the franchise to the Moros and wild men, Congress provided that the governor-general shall appoint without the consent of the Senate and without restriction as to residence senators and representatives who will in his opinion best represent the districts included in that territory. . . . The members of the first new Philippine Legislature were required to be elected by the electors having the qualifications of voters under the existing Philippine law. But thereafter and until otherwise provided by the Philippine Legislature the right to vote is extended to

"Every male person who is not a citizen or subject of a foreign power, twenty-one years of age or over (except insane and feeble-minded persons and those convicted in a court of competent jurisdiction of an infamous offense since August 13, 1898), who shall have been a resident of the Philippines for one year and of the municipality in which he shall offer to vote for six months next preceding the day of voting, and who is comprised within one of the following classes.

"(a) Those who under existing law are legal voters and have exercised the right of suffrage.

"(b) Those who own real property to the value of 500 pesos, or who annually pay 30 pesos or more of the established taxes.

"(c) Those who are able to read and write either Spanish, English, or a native language.' . . . The ability to read and write a dialect alone implies such limited educational qualifications as to have no particular value. The extension of the franchise by the new law increases the number of

voters from about two hundred fifty thousand to approximately six hundred thousand and the additions are from those who are too ignorant to qualify under the former law. . . . The Philippine Legislature now has full control over the question of suffrage. The powers of the governor-general are now clearly defined. He is to be appointed by the president of the United States with the advice and consent of the United States Senate, holds office at the pleasure of the president and is vested with the supreme executive power and made responsible for the faithful execution of the laws. He is charged with the duty of supervising and controlling all the departments and bureaus of the government and is commander-in-chief of any locally created armed forces and militia. He appoints, subject to confirmation by the Philippine Senate, all officers whose appointment is not otherwise provided for. He must within ten days after the convening of each regular session of the legislature submit a budget of receipts and expenditures of the government as the basis for the annual appropriation bill. When necessary to prevent or suppress lawless violence or insurrection, or repel invasion, he may summon the *posse comitatus*, call out the militia, or call upon the military and naval forces of the United States. When the public safety requires it, he may suspend the writ of *habeas corpus* or place the islands or any part thereof under martial law. When this power is exercised he must at once inform the president of the United States of the facts and circumstances and the latter may modify or vacate his orders. It is provided that the governor-general shall make an annual report of the transactions of the government through "an executive department of the United States to be designated by the President." For the first time in the history of the American administration the governor-general is given the power to veto an act of the legislature or any item thereof. Should both houses of the legislature by a two-thirds majority of the members pass a bill over the veto it then goes to the president, whose approval or veto is final. The Philippine Legislature, like its predecessors, is required to report all laws enacted by it to Congress, which reserves the power to annul them. The president must also appoint a vice-governor, an auditor and a deputy auditor. The vice-governor, who must be secretary of public instruction and have control over education and health, is authorized to exercise all the powers of the chief executive in the event of a vacancy, or the disability or temporary absence of the governor-general. . . . During the commission régime there were four executive departments, the heads of which were appointed by the president by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. Under the new law the Department of Public Instruction only is required to be retained and it must contain the Bureaus of Education and Health and such others as may be assigned to it. All the other executive departments are placed under the control of the Philippine Legislature, which may increase the number or abolish any or all of them, or make such changes in the names and duties thereof as it sees fit. All executive functions must be directly under the governor-general or within one of the departments under his supervision. The Act of Congress creates one new bureau to be known as the Bureau of non-Christian Tribes, which shall have general supervision over the public affairs of the inhabitants of the territory represented in the legislature by appointive senators and representatives. The heads of the departments other than that of public instruction are to be appointed by the governor-general instead of the

president, as heretofore, and confirmed by the Philippine Congress. . . . The new legislature is directed to elect two resident commissioners to the United States 'who shall be entitled to an official recognition as such by all departments.' This provision is substantially the same as in the former law and leaves them dependent upon the courtesy of the House of Representatives for the privilege of a seat and the right to speak in the house. . . . The legislature is specifically authorized to modify or repeal all laws relating to revenue or taxation in effect in the islands, with the following limitations as to the tariff. It will be remembered that there are two tariff laws, one an Act of Congress regulating trade between the United States and the Philippines, the other a Philippine tariff law regulating trade between the islands and other countries. The law we have been considering contains the following provision: 'While this act provides that the Philippine government shall have authority to enact a tariff law, the trade relations between the islands and the United States shall continue to be governed exclusively by laws of the Congress of the United States: *Provided*, that tariff acts or acts amendatory to the tariff of the Philippine Islands shall not become law until they shall receive the approval of the President of the United States.' . . . The judicial system is unchanged. But the salary of the chief justice is reduced to eight thousand dollars and that of an associate justice to seven thousand five hundred dollars per annum. The salary of the governor-general is fixed at eighteen thousand dollars, with the right to the use of the official residences. The vice-governor is to receive ten thousand dollars, the auditor six thousand dollars and the deputy auditor three thousand dollars per annum. . . . There is a difference of opinion as to the wisdom of some of the provisions of this law. It seems to me that it was unwise to extend the suffrage, and it would have been safer to vest the appointive power in the governor-general absolutely. . . . A weak and complaisant chief executive will be inclined to win cheap popularity by signing all bills which are presented to him. A strong governor-general who uses his veto power fearlessly and conscientiously will save the country from the consequences of many mistakes, but he will be anathema to the people he serves. It is to be regretted that Congress did not follow the custom of the other powers and fix a definite term of office for the governor-general and vice-governor. Had they been given four-year terms expiring in the middle of the presidential term the government would have been more stable and there would have been less temptation for the president to treat the positions as rewards for political services. The new law has not changed the nature of the government or the legal relation between it and the United States. The Philippines are a possession and, in an international sense, a part of the United States. The government is neither sovereign nor quasi sovereign; it is an agency of Congress and subject to its control. Its authority is derived from the orders of the president before Congress acted and the subsequent Acts of Congress. Within the limits of its authority it is a complete governmental organism with executive, legislative and judicial departments exercising the functions commonly assigned to such departments in a constitutional republic. . . . Governor-General Harrison appointed Hadji Butu of Jolo, one of the advisers of the Sultan of Sulu, a member of the Senate, and Datu Piang, a Moro from Cotabato, and a prominent Igorot from the Mountain Province, members of the House of Representatives, to represent the

districts included in what was formerly called the non-Christian territory. Such appointments seem very absurd, but it must be remembered that these men are in fact recognized leaders of their people. The last time I saw Datu Piang he stood digging up the sand with his toes while soliciting government aid to retrieve one of his wives who had run away from the over-populated home. Nevertheless, he will represent the people in a much more real sense than will many of the elected legislators. What Datu Piang wills is, and for years has been, the law for many Moros who inhabit the Cotabato Valley. The legislature was duly organized on October sixteenth. Quezon became president of the Senate, and Osmena speaker of the House of Representatives. . . . The Act of Congress provided that the existing executive departments should continue until changed by the new legislature. The change was promptly effected. The old departments, with the exception of that of public instruction, which Congress required to be retained, were abolished, and new and additional ones created, under the names of the Departments of the Interior, Commerce, Agriculture, Treasury, Transportation and Communications, and Public Resources. The new office of assistant secretary for each department was created and Filipinos were appointed secretaries and assistant secretaries, the aggregate salaries being about what had been paid formerly. The governor-general, the vice-governor, the auditor and certain members of the Supreme Court are the only Americans who hold high office in the Philippine government. . . . Few members of the upper classes who do not hold or aspire to office seriously claim that the people are ready to govern themselves. But they express their views in a decided undertone. They are very uncertain as to what the future will bring forth, and they are not seeking to qualify as patriots or martyrs. They have a vivid recollection of the confiscations and compulsory contributions which were levied upon them during the brief period of Aguinaldo's ascendancy. . . . There is also reason to believe that some at least of those who have been most active in the independence propaganda do not desire that it be too promptly successful. These men found it a popular party shibboleth and encouraged it until in some localities it got beyond their control. One of the most prominent of the Nationalist leaders once informed me that his constituents were able to grasp the simple idea of absolute independence, but that they could not comprehend the complicated arrangements involved in an autonomous government under American supervision, and that he was advocating independence in the hope of obtaining a government similar to that of Canada. They were aiming at the stars in the hope of reaching the high hills."—C. B. Elliott, *Philippines*, pp. 428-442.

1914-1921.—Recreational facilities. See RECREATION: 1914-1921: Recreational facilities, etc.

1917-1918.—Industrial expansion.—Philippine bank fiasco.—Effect of World War.—The high-water mark of the foreign commerce of the Philippine Islands was reached in 1917. "With 1916 and its abnormal war demands and war prices, a period of febrile business prosperity began; and, in the intoxication of magic profits and unprecedented commerce, part of the government seemed to lose all caution. Sugar was one of the wands of wizardry then making rich every person it touched. The Islands are excellently adapted to the raising of sugar. The government bent itself to encourage sugar production. To build railroad side tracks to this end was well enough, but to lend the funds of the Philippine National Bank, and to deplete the gold reserve for the benefit of ill-considered enter-

prises, was foolish business. From the time when, in the teeth of the foreign bankers, the currency of the Islands had been stabilized and unified, a reserve of \$50,000,000 had been maintained in New York to support the peso at par. The result was that, year after year, Philippine exchange was immovable; a peso was worth fifty cents, as it should be, no more, no less. But when the passion for extending the business of the Islands by encouraging new sugar centrals took hold upon the government, hungry eyes began to be turned upon the \$50,000,000 gold reserve. Why should it lie there all these days idle when capital invested in the Philippine sugar business was bringing 100 per cent. profit and developing the resources of the country? In an evil hour, the management laid hands upon this indispensable ballast and heaved it overboard. In a short time exchange began to go against the Philippines, and by February 1, 1921, the peso was at a discount of 12½ per cent. . . . At first there was a duty on Philippine products sent to the United States, being the surviving ghost of the Spanish galleon idea. For a time this, also, hindered trade. In 1909 most of it was removed; in 1913 the last traces of it vanished; and thereafter, under the stimulus of free trade and with the help of American capital, the commerce of the Philippines shot up to astonishing prosperity, most of it being with the United States. In 1908 there were 123 vessels in the foreign trade that had a Philippine registry. In 1919, 117 foreign trading-vessels with a Philippine registry entered the port of Manila alone. . . . In 1900 the net tonnage of vessels entering Philippine ports from the United States and foreign countries was 670,337; in 1919 it had risen to 1,711,881. . . . When the great commercial revival came, the genius of it was at first all foreign; Americans, British, Germans, Chinese reaped its goodly profits. After 1909 a great change came in the native attitude toward business as a career and great business as a worthy occupation. Young Filipinos were trained to it; Filipino capital came out of its agrarian haunts and went forth with the rest. In ten years (1910-1920) Filipino capital invested in business increased 2000 per cent."—C. E. Russell, *Outlook for the Philippines*, pp. 149, 167-169.—"The influence of the war on Philippine trade was very marked. Not only was there no trade with enemy countries of central Europe, but that with the friendly powers of the Continent was much reduced. . . . On the whole, the trade with oriental countries, where the haul was shorter and the risk to shipping less, showed marked increases. That with China was materially greater than for 1916 and nearly double what it was for 1915. . . . The trade with Australasia, always important, was nearly doubled. At the same time the trade with the British East Indies fell off slightly, with no apparent reason except that shipping conditions were not favorable. Trade with Japanese China, that is, the Kwangtung Territory, underwent some changes, doubtless owing to modifications in administrative policies. Imports from this territory increased somewhat, while the exports declined. Canada took less of Philippine products during the year, but her small import trade with the islands increased more than 100 per cent. . . . Approximately two-thirds of all the exports were sold in the United States and three-fifths of all the imports were purchased there."—J. F. Boomer, *Philippine islands (Supplement to United States Commerce Reports, Dec. 26, 1918, p. 5)*.—"By cutting off the supply of European laces and embroideries, the world war enabled the dexterous Filipinos to show what they could do. With their ten years of public school training in

lace and embroidery work, the pupils and former pupils began supplying the American demand for hand-made waists and lingerie. Philippine designs became the style, and the export of hand-made waists and lingerie from the Philippine Islands jumped from a few thousand dollars' worth in 1912 to a value of more than \$4,500,000 in 1918. . . . The war also gave a great impetus to the gardening and food-production campaign, which the Bureau of Education, in conjunction with the Bureau of Agriculture, had been pushing since 1908. Corn production was quadrupled, rice production was increased, and the growing of wholesome vegetables became general among the families having children in the public schools. The primary schools, which place special emphasis on practical farming, have been the prime factor in civilizing the Moros and in inducing the mountain peoples to give up their roaming life, to form settled villages, and to become peaceful farmers. The varied diet which now has become general throughout the public-school towns of the archipelago has practically eliminated *beri beri* from these communities. In order to complete the development of this public school system, tried and tested through twenty years of strenuous evolution, Dr. Marquart, the Director of Education, and the Hon. Sergio Osmena, leader of the Filipino people and Premier of the present administration, in 1918 worked out a new educational program and secured a \$30,000,000 appropriation to put it through. By this plan it is contemplated that primary education for every Filipino child of school age will be a realized fact by 1923. This large sum is a continuing appropriation, in addition to the regular public schools appropriation, which averages \$10,000,000 annually. So universal education has been attained, and one of the best school systems of the world developed within twenty-five years of the American entrance into these Islands. It is a miracle of American efficiency, American ideals, and Filipino co-operation. The Philippine public school system is the finest fruit of American democracy produced outside the favoring clime of the United States. It was the marvel of the International Educational Congress at the Panama Pacific Exposition of 1915."—O. G. Jones, *Uncle Sam's "Mandate" in the Philippines (New York Times Current History, Apr., 1921)*.—Francis Burton Harrison was governor-general in this period. He was appointed by President Wilson in October, 1913, and served until 1921.

1918-1921.—Extension of native rule.—Council of state.—Continued agitation for independence.—General Wood's investigation and report.—"With the consent and co-operation of Governor-General Francis Burton Harrison, and doubtless with the approval of his principal in the White House, the Filipinos promptly began to obtain by interpretation and in practice a control over the executive department greatly in excess of that granted them by law. They did this by restricting the free exercise of the executive powers of the Governor-General to matters which concerned the 'sovereignty' of the United States in the Philippines. As to domestic affairs, nine times out of ten, Mr. Harrison accepted, or at least acted in accordance with, the theory that the Governor-General should exercise his legal authority only upon the advice of the representatives of the Filipino people. Eventually this advice was received officially through the medium of a 'Council of State,' composed of the heads of both houses of the Legislature, the chiefs of the executive departments, and the Governor-General. The Filipinos practically established the fundamental that all of

the members of this body, save the Governor-General and the Vice-Governor, were responsible to the Legislature and not to the chief executive. In short, so far as internal affairs were concerned, a system of cabinet, or responsible government was erected upon the substructure of the Jones Act. Furthermore, there was established by law a 'Board of Control' composed of the Governor-General and the heads of the two legislative chambers. Into its hands was placed the management of all the economic enterprises in which millions were being invested at that time—the Philippine National Bank, the Manila Railroad, cement plants, coconut oil refineries, sugar centrals, and so forth. This device prevented the enormous executive powers involved from being lodged in the regular departments of the Government, where, legally, they would have been subject to the ultimate control of the chief executive. The Filipino leaders were taking no chances upon the sort of Governor-General who might succeed Mr. Harrison. Whoever he might be, he would find his hands securely tied."—R. Hayden, *Legal power granted Filipinos makes America's position weak* (*Christian Science Monitor*, Aug. 7, 1923).—"On November 1, 1918, the Philippine Legislature created a Commission of Independence selected from among its members to consider and report to the Legislature the ways and means by which immediate independence might be negotiated, the best guarantees of the stability and permanence of independence, and the ways of organizing 'in a speedy, effectual and orderly manner a constitutional and democratic internal government.' The Commission after a time advised that a special mission be sent to the United States to plead for immediate separation. Forty Filipinos, prominent in public life or in business, agriculture or labor, made up the Mission. Manuel Quezon, who had been Commissioner for the Philippines to Washington, was chairman; one of the leading members was the president of the Democratic or Opposition party. About the time it sailed for the United States the Legislature adopted a 'Declaration of Purposes,' to express the reasons for sending it and be a message to the government of the United States. . . . The Mission proceeded to Washington to call upon President Wilson, but he was in Paris at the Peace Conference. He delegated Secretary of War Baker to represent him and to read for him to the Mission a letter in which he expressed sentiments of sympathy and good-will, and asked the Secretary to speak for him. Secretary Baker said: 'I know that I express the feelings of the President—I certainly express my own feelings, I think I express the prevailing feeling in the United States—when I say that we believe the time has substantially come, if not quite come, when the Philippine Islands can be allowed to sever the merely formal tie remaining and become an independent people.'"—C. E. Russell, *Outlook for the Philippines*, pp. 325-326, 328.—President Wilson in his message to Congress, Dec. 7, 1920, called attention to the fact that the Philippines had succeeded in maintaining stable government since the last action of Congress in their behalf and "have thus fulfilled the condition set by the Congress precedent to a consideration of granting independence to the islands." Mr. Wilson expressed his belief that it is "now our liberty and our duty to keep our promise to the people of those islands by granting them the independence they covet." That session of Congress did not act on his suggestion. There was conflicting evidence which could not be ignored; and, hence, on March 20, 1921, President Harding appointed Gen. Leonard Wood, and W. Cameron Forbes as a commis-

sion to go to the Philippine islands, to study the conditions and to report. On March 23, Secretary of War Weeks gave General Wood his instructions, stressing the importance of the mission, as follows: "The decision of the question thus arising is of momentous importance, involving, as it may, the very life of the Filipino people as a people and the reputation and credit of our own country. Even if it were possible hereafter to correct an error now made, it would be difficult to measure the cost of the correction." The special mission arrived in Manila, May 4, 1921. After four months in the islands a report was made, signed Oct. 8, 1921. In this report, the commissioners noted the marvellous capacity for progress shown by the Filipinos, their thirst for education, and other fine qualities; but reported a decided retrogression in efficiency in most of the departments of government during the years of Filipinization (1914-1921). They considered that the blame for this should rest not so much on the Filipinos themselves as on the governor-general (Harrison), for failure to make the right appointments and to exercise proper supervision. In particular, the commissioners mentioned the deterioration of the courts, the inefficiency of the land-office, the need of more American teachers, the retrogression of the Bureau of Science, and the health service, the closing of the School of Tropical Medicine, the increased rate of taxation, and a generally bad financial condition. With the comparative proximity of Japan to the islands, the complications that might ensue from the above conditions were pointed out by many. The report of the commissioners concluded with the following recommendations: "1. We recommend that the present general status of the Philippine Islands continue until the people have had time to absorb and thoroughly master the powers already in their hands. 2. We recommend that the responsible representative of the United States, the Governor General, have authority commensurate with the responsibilities of his position. In case of failure to secure the necessary corrective action by the Philippine Legislature, we recommend that Congress declare null and void legislation which has been enacted diminishing, limiting, or dividing the authority granted the Governor General under Act No. 240 of the Sixty-Fourth Congress, known as the Jones bill. 3. We recommend that in case of a deadlock between the Governor General and the Philippine Senate in the confirmation of appointments that the President of the United States be authorized to make and render the final decision. 4. We recommend that under no circumstances should the American Government permit to be established in the Philippine Islands a situation which would leave the United States in a position of responsibility without authority. LEONARD WOOD, *Chairman*, W. CAMERON FORBES. October 8, 1921."—*Report of the Special Mission on Investigation to the Philippine islands to the secretary of war* (pamphlet), p. 46.

1921.—Philippines as a party issue in the United States.—Social problems.—Sanitation.—"Since their acquisition by the United States the Philippine Islands have suffered from an access of politics. Primarily, they have to some extent been the shuttlecock of American party politics, in the sense that they have been used as an issue in attempts to further factional interest in the United States, often without real regard for the interests of the Filipinos. . . . There are two Philippines. One is the Philippines of Manila, Iloilo, and Cebu; which has representation before Congress, on the Commission, on the Insular Supreme Court; which elects its own governors and Assembly, and talks

about independence. The other Philippines contains people of a different race, who practice a different religion, have different manners and customs; who live under a different form of government, and who have never thought of independence in the accepted political meaning of the term. This is that part of the archipelago officially denominated Moro Province."—T. F. Millard, *America and the Far Eastern Question*, pp. 404, 415, 488.—For much of the race antagonism which has developed in the Philippines, a number of writers blame the social standards of the American women who came there to live after the establishment of peace. "Men who have lived there since the days of Spanish rule, tell of a time, just after the suppression of Aguinaldo's insurrection, when for a few months there existed a feeling of perfect good will. With the horrors of war so fresh in the memory of both, Americans and Filipinos fraternized together. . . . Americans attended parties given by the prominent Filipinos and danced with the wives and daughters of their hosts. For a time they were on a social equality. . . . Enter then, the American woman. Peace had been secured and wives came out to join their husbands. At once another campaign against the Filipino began. The social barriers set up by the American woman were quite as impregnable as those their hero husbands had built against the insurgents. . . . The American man, as usual, allowed his wife to regulate his social affairs, and as a result no Filipino is admitted to the clubs, and there is no place in Manila where the two races can meet socially on an equal footing. . . . Herein lies the task for some American woman in Manila who wants to do her country a real service. Let her turn her attention to breaking down the social barriers which the others have erected. One woman with tact and diplomacy might do a great deal toward bringing the two peoples together. If she could accomplish it, even in a small way, she would have done more than all the American officials in the islands can do toward settling the Philippine question."—C. Crow, *America and the Philippines*, pp. 230-231, 233-234.—"It can not be said that the Americans in the Philippines have been or are tactful in their manner of dealing with the question of independence or the Filipino people generally. . . . Socially, we have imitated the worst in other ruling white races. We have set up a pale for the Filipino. . . . No Filipino can belong to a Manila club. He may hold Oxford or Harvard degrees and the highest of Anglo-Saxon and Spanish cultures may have gone into his making, but the brown of his skin casts no shadow on the pure white of the Elks Club, social arbiter of Manila's élite. The clerk in a shop on the Escolta—which is, by the way, the very apotheosis of Main Street—who has but freshly got his discharge from army ranks soon enough develops an austere eclecticism in his social relationships."—N. Peffer, *Our own little Ireland in the Philippines* (*Literary Digest*, June 4, 1921, quoting *New York Tribune*, May 15, 1921).—The Japanese question has entered somewhat into all recent consideration of the Philippines. Although no armed invasion is prophesied, economic and political inroads by Japanese imperialists are near possibilities. "The cleaning of the Augean stables was a slight undertaking in comparison with purifying the Philippines. . . . The cholera and smallpox swept off the natives in Manila by thousands, and the further one went into the country the worse the conditions became. The details of daily life pertaining to the preservation of good health and decency, as observed among civilized people, were, except in rarest instances, entirely lacking from one end of the

Islands to the other. . . . In Manila there had never been any attempt at sanitation so far as can be discovered, through any regulations. No wonder that about three-fifths of all the children in Manila under one year of age were meeting death annually, at the time our civil government went into control. In 1902-1903 the cholera took off more than one hundred thousand of one hundred and sixty-five thousand inhabitants attacked. In Manila eight-two per cent of native cases perished, and about fifty per cent of Americans thus afflicted did not recover. That awakened the American officials as nothing else could have done, and sanitation became the first object of government. . . . In Manila, this part of the problem was attacked by installing a reliable water system, by building public sewers, and by rigid rules respecting the disposition of all refuse and the care of foods at all times. Then the thirty miles of canals within the city limits, choked with the pollution of a century, were dredged out, every stagnant pool was drained, the moat that ran about the ancient wall was filled in and made a park, and each native house was visited by careful inspectors, who saw that their regulations were observed. Hundreds of shacks were burned. No mercy was shown to the delinquent; and to-day Manila, except in the matter of infant mortality, is about as healthy a city as any of its size in the warmer part of America. The problem of drinking water throughout the Islands has been solved by the artesian well. More than any other one agency, this modern method of reaching good water has led to the control of contagious diseases. . . . We organized some thirty boards of health in the more important centers; and, backed by the law, started to enforce garbage collection, sewage disposal, street sweeping, universal vaccination, . . . in short, practically all of the rules so familiar to Americans. The universal vaccination was a tremendous task and one that met with great opposition. . . . Before this was done, records of the million people resident in and near Manila show that six thousand lost their lives annually from smallpox alone. After vaccination was completed in this territory, there was not one death in the subsequent year. [A modern hospital for the insane, the isolation of the lepers on the island of Culion where modern treatment is given, the distribution of quinine free of charge, prison sanitation, and free dispensaries are among American sanitary works.] . . . At Baguio, a summer resort has been created in the high mountains, with a climate that few places in America can surpass, and to that point, by a most beautiful automobile road, that is a model of engineering, the administration forces are moved in the wet, hot season."—F. Chamberlain, *Philippine problem*, pp. 113-117, 173.

1921-1923.—Wood as governor-general.—Demands of Filipinos for independence.—On October 5, 1921, Major-General Leonard Wood was appointed by President Harding, governor-general of the Philippines. "He [Wood] had found the Insular treasury worse than emptied. It was in default. The entire commercial structure of these immensely rich islands was on the verge of ruin. To prevent this disaster the Congress at Washington authorized a loan that made it possible for the Insular government, under a bond issue of \$45,000,000 gold, to rescue the treasury from the consequences of the disastrous operations of the Philippine Bank."—S. Baxter, *Uncle Sam in Cuba and the Philippines* (*American Review of Reviews* Aug., 1923).—"The sentiment there [in the Philippines] is as nearly unanimous in favor of independence as it is possible for any public question to

be in any country. . . . The national consciousness of the Filipinos has been deliberately aroused by the United States. The race pride is now [1922] involved. . . . All that can be done looking into the future is to require that any government shall be able eventually to put down public disorders. That, the Philippine Government will without doubt be able to do, unless interfered with by some outside power. . . . Peace and public order have been excellent in the Philippines during recent years; with every decade that passes, the local jealousies and provincial rivalries are diminishing. . . . They now think nationally,—not as Visayans or Tagalogs.”—F. B. Harrison, *Corner-stone of Philippine independence*, pp. 293, 296, 301, 302.—The agitation for independence has been almost continuous ever since the appointment of General Wood as governor-general. On November 22, 1922, a resolution was adopted by the Philippine House asking the United States to recognize the rights of the Philippine islands to independence. It was supported by the combined Collectivista and Nacionalista parties. On December 7, 1922, General Wood announced his decision to remain at his post in the Philippines, instead of returning to become provost of the University of Pennsylvania, according to his original intention, stating that he could not leave “in justice either to the United States or the Philippines.” On February 16, 1923, a resolution was introduced in the United States Congress by Representative Huck, of Illinois, proposing Philippine independence. “Manual Quezon, President of the Philippine Senate, on July 2 [1923] charged Governor General Leonard Wood with unduly interfering in the domestic affairs of the islands. He took issue with the use of the Executive veto and the Governor’s insistence on closing branches of the national bank. . . . Quezon in a tour of the islands attacked Governor General Wood’s policy of granting large leases on lands for the exploitation of the rubber industry. He maintained that great areas should not be granted either to foreign or Filipino monopolies ‘because the public lands were created by God, not to profit, to hold, but to provide everybody a share. Our policy in this regard is to preserve our natural resources for posterity.’ . . . Quezon has suggested that a promise of full independence in ten or twelve years, when the Philippines are completely English speaking, would satisfy the Filipinos.”—*New York Times Current History*, Aug. 1923, pp. 888-889.—A crisis was reached in July of 1923. Governor Wood had reinstated a secret-service official, after he had been exonerated from charges of wrongdoing. He had not consulted the man’s immediate superiors. Whereupon the cabinet officers resigned in a body, and the governor accepted the resignations, which were followed by an appeal to Washington. The next step was taken by the Filipino legislature which met as the “Philippine Commission of Independence,” demanded the recall of Governor-General Wood, and asked again for independence.

ALSO IN: J. Blount, *American occupation of the Philippines*.—F. C. Chamberlain, *Philippine problem*.—C. Crow, *America and the Philippines*.—S. A. Le Roy, *Americans in the Philippines*.—C. J. A. F. Lindsay, *Philippines under Spanish and American rules*.—W. H. Taft, *Special Report to the Presi-*

dent on Philippines.—H. P. Willis, *Our Philippine problem*.—W. H. Gardner, *Philippines and sea power* (*North American Review*, Aug., 1922).—C. E. Russell, *Outlook for the Philippines*.

PHILIPPSBURG, town in Baden, Germany, about fifteen miles north of Karlsruhe. It became a part of Baden in 1803.

1644.—Taken by French. See GERMANY: 1643-1644.

1648.—Right of garrisoning secured to France. See GERMANY: 1648.

1676.—Taken by imperialists. See NETHERLANDS: 1674-1678.

1679.—Given up by France. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1734.—Siege and reduction by French. See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

PHILISTINES.—“One small nation alone, of all which dwelt on the land claimed by Israel, permanently refused to amalgamate itself with the circumcised peoples,—namely the uncircumcised Philistines. They occupied the lots which ought to have been conquered by Dan and Simeon, and had five principal cities, Gaza, Askalon [see ASCALON], Ashdod, Gath and Ekron, of which the three first are on the sea-coast. Ashdod and Gaza were places of great strength, capable of long resisting the efforts of Egyptian and Greek warfare. The Philistines cannot have been a populous nation, but they were far more advanced in the arts of peace and war than the Hebrews. Their position commanded the land-traffic between Egypt and Canaan, and gave them access to the sea; hence perhaps their wealth and comparatively advanced civilization. [See CHRISTIANITY: Map of Sinaitic peninsula.] Some learned men give credit to an account in Sanchoniathon, that they came from Crete. [They gave their name to Palestine.]”—F. W. Newman, *History of the Hebrew monarchy*, ch. 2.—“Where the Philistines came from, and what they originally were, is not clear. That they moved up the coast from Egypt is certain; that they came from Kaph-tor is also certain. But it by no means follows, as some argue, that Kaph-tor and Egypt are the same region. . . . It appears more safe to identify Kaph-tor with [Crete]. . . . But to have traced the Philistines to Crete is not to have cleared up their origin, for early Crete was full of tribes from both east and west. . . . Take them as a whole, and the Philistines appear a Semitic people.”—G. A. Smith, *Historical geography of the Holy Land*, ch. 9.—See also JEWS: Conquest of Canaan; Israel under the judges; Kingdoms of Israel and Judah; JERUSALEM: B. C. 1400-700; SYRIA: B. C. 64-63.

ALSO IN: Dean Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church*, lecture 16.—H. Ewald, *History of Israel*, bk. 2, sect. 3.

PHILLIPS, John (1770-1823), first mayor of Boston. See U.S.A.: 1772-1773.

PHILLIPS, Stephen (1868-1915), English poet and dramatist. See DRAMA: 1888-1921.

PHILLIPS, William (1878-), American diplomat. Minister to the Netherlands and Luxembourg, 1920-1922. See U.S.A.: 1921 (April-July).

PHILOCRATES, Peace of (345 B. C.). See GREECE: B. C. 357-336; MACEDONIA: B. C. 345-336.

PHILO-JUNIUS LETTERS. See JUNIUS LETTERS.

PHILOLOGY

1. Definition.—Language and reason.—Origin of language.—“Bow-wow” and “Pooh-pooh” theories.—Speech of primitive man.—Sign language.—Root words.—Onomatopœia.—Philology, according to its original meaning as a word, signified a love of learning and research, of textual criticism and literary history. Philology thus embraced the science of the intellectual life of one or more peoples. Yet another meaning of the term was a fondness for talking, a “love of words.” Since the Renaissance, however, “philology” has gradually become an accepted term to describe linguistic science, the study of languages and investigation of the laws of human speech. The foundations of philology may be traced to the grammarians of Alexandria under the Ptolemies of Egypt. Comparative philology arose during the nineteenth century from the epoch-making researches of Franz Bopp (1791-1867), following in the footsteps of the pioneer in Sanskrit literature, Sir William Jones (1746-1794), who was the first European to reveal the literary treasures of the ancient Hindus to the western world. “Comparative philology is in familiar use in England, to denote linguistic philology, or linguistics, as opposed to literary philology; but continental usage (especially German), restricting *philology* to literary philology, favors a specific term, like *linguistics*, *linguistic science*, *science of language*, *glossology*, etc., for the linguistic. Philology includes the study of language as the word or as speech in order to ascertain its elements and laws.”—F. H. Vizetelly, *Essentials of English speech*, p. 238.—“The history of language is the history of the growth of human reason. And from this point of view the science of language has not only afforded precious information respecting the past history of reason, but it will also, we may hope, deliver us from the indescribable and vexatious blundering which verbal ambiguities and confused thought issuing in the misuse of words, have brought upon the human race.”—L. Noiré, *Die Welt als Entwicklung des Geistes*.—The problem of when language began appears to be as unanswerable as that of the age of writing. The spoken word is obviously older than the art of committing it into script. Writing postulates a certain state of intellectual culture, however crude or primitive the form of script may be. That writing existed in Babylon 5,000 years B.C. is indisputably proved by documentary evidence. Some authorities, indeed, place the beginnings of writing as far back as the seventh millennium before our era. “As to the earlier Mesopotamian records, they date back some 5,000—perhaps 7,000—years B.C.; at least 1,000 before the period assigned by Archbishop Usher’s long-accepted ‘Chronology’ for the creation of the world itself. Solomon, who lived about 1,000 B.C., is accredited with the declaration that ‘of the making of many books there is no end.’ Modern exegesis tell us that it was not Solomon, but a later Alexandrian interloper who actually coined the phrase.”—H. S. Williams, *History of the art of writing*, folio 1, text to plate XI.—“In Egypt, inscriptions on stone have been brought to light lately which supply an actual record of historical names and facts from a time that appears to be hardly less than 7,000 years ago; and relics of workmanship from generations far earlier have been found in the same marvelous land. Further eastward, in the valley of the Euphrates, excavations now (1912) in progress are unearthing an abundance of writings, graven on stone or impressed on tablets and

cylinders of baked clay, which tell of a civilization that flourished in that Babylonian region very nearly fifty centuries before Christ; and nothing yet discovered reaches back to a prehistoric time when no form of writing was known.”—J. N. Larned, *Seventy centuries of the life of mankind*, v. 1, p. 20.—“The childish and anthropomorphic view, that God said to Adam, ‘This is a dog, This is an elephant,’ still held the minds of men captive in the eighteenth century, with the single difference, that the philosophers of that day put human reason in the place of God, and imagined that men by a kind of conventional agreement or pact had given names to things—in short, that they had *invented* language. As if an inventive act of this character did not demand a prodigious power of mind—a degree of intellect and wisdom that must have been infinitely greater than that at present possessed by the whole human race. . . . The first to rise well above this anthropomorphic view was Herder [1744-1803] whose divinatory genius in so many other fields discerned truths that science only later demonstrated by the help of accumulations of material, and who, even where he erred, never failed to give forth the most pregnant suggestions. The fundamental idea of his prize-essay, *Ueber den Ursprung der Sprache* (Upon the Origin of Language), is substantially this: ‘Man,’ says he, ‘gives proof of reflection, when, amid the hovering dream of images that flit before his senses, he collects himself into a moment of wakefulness, to dwell voluntarily upon some particular image, to survey it in a brighter and steadier light, and to abstract from it certain characteristics that establish that *this* is *this* object and no other.’ This he illustrates by the following example: ‘A man sees, for instance, a lamb. It passes, as an image, otherwise before his vision than it does before that of other animals. Whenever man is placed so that he must know a sheep, he is not disturbed by any instinct (as the wolf or the lion); the sheep stands before him exactly and entirely as represented by his senses. White, smooth, woolly. His thoughtfully operating mind seeks a characteristic mark. The sheep *bleats*. The characteristic is found. The inner sense is at work. The bleating—that which produced the strongest impression upon his mind, that which sprang forth and disengaged itself from all other qualities accessible to sight and touch—that remains in his mind. The sheep, let us say, returns. While, smooth, woolly. Our man looks, touches, meditates, again seeks a characteristic mark. The sheep bleats; and now he recognises it. He feels inwardly: ‘Thou art the Bleating One!’ he has humanly recognised it by, and called it by, a characteristic feature. By a *characteristic*, a *mark*! And what else is this than an inner *mark*-word, a verbal cue? He recognised the sheep by its bleating. This was the comprehended token by which the mind clearly hit upon an idea. What else is this than a word? And what is all human language but a collection of such words?’ This theory Max Müller has called the Bow-wow theory, and rejected it. It cannot be denied that as an hypothesis of the origin of language there is a good deal of truth contained in Herder’s statement of things. The most important points to be noted are, that it (1) explains how a visual image or percept is transformed into the phonetic word; and that (2) it makes the creation of language first appear as attached primarily to single characteristic marks. The weak points of the view lie in the facts (1)

that Herder leaves the origin of the world as a result of the necessity of communication, entirely unnoticed; and it is surely to be assumed that impulse of feeling and the necessity of communication both potentially influenced the origin of the first word; and (2) that the so-called onomatopoeic creation of language, that is, the designation of things by the sounds they make, has not yet been confirmed by any extant language. Single words, like *cuckoo*, and the like, prove nothing; and many names that appear to us as imitations can be traced back to other roots that show no imitational origin whatsoever. All the languages we know, on the contrary reveal an inner conceptual connection between words that denote some crying, sounding object, and primitive roots designating some *human* activity. Herder himself, at a later period, gave up his theory of imitations of sound, and again adopted that of the revelation of language. . . . Another attempt at explanation is that which seeks to derive language from interjections, and which Max Müller accordingly calls the *Pooh-pooh* theory. This also possesses a certain degree of probability, for account is taken herein of the necessity of giving vent to inner emotion by sounds and ejaculations, as also of the endeavor to communicate with others, and above all, of the example of animals, whose neighing, barking, roaring, crowing, and so forth, might seem to represent a prototype—an abortive effort to acquire phonetic speech.”—L. Noiré *Origin and philosophy of language*, pp. 2, 3-5.—“Although it has been at various times stated that certain savage tribes are entirely without language, none of these accounts appear to be well authenticated, and they are *à priori* extremely improbable. At any rate, even the lowest races of which we have any satisfactory account possess a language, imperfect though it may be, and eked out to a great extent by signs. I do not suppose, however, that this custom has arisen from the absence of words to represent their ideas, but rather because in all countries inhabited by savages the number of languages is very great, and hence there is a great advantage in being able to communicate by signs. . . . In considering the origin of . . . root-words, we must remember that most of them are very ancient, and much worn by use. This greatly enhances the difficulty of the problem. Nevertheless, there are several large classes of words with reference to the origin of which there can be no doubt. Many names of animals, such as *cuckoo*, *crow*, *peewit*, &c., are evidently derived from the sounds made by those birds. Everyone admits that such words as *bank*, *crack*, *creak*, *crush*, *crash*, *splash*, *dash*, *purr*, *whizz*, *hum*, &c., have arisen from the attempt to represent sounds characteristic of the object they are intended to designate. . . . Another important class of words is evidently founded on the sounds by which we naturally express our feelings. Thus from *Oh! Ah!* the instinctive cry of pain, we get *woe*, *væ* (Latin), *wail*, *ache*; *ἄχος*, Gr. From the deep guttural sound *ugh*, we have *ugly*, *huge*, and *hug*. From *pr*, or *prut*, indicating contempt, or self-conceit, comes *proud*, *pride*, &c. From *fi*, we have *fiend*, *foe*, *feud*, *foul*, Latin *putris*, Fr. *puer*, *filth*, *fulsome*, *fear*. From that of smacking the lips, we get *γλυκίς*, *dulcis*, *lick*, *like*, which though originally no doubt applied to things eaten, is now used generally. Turner mentions that on presenting some hatchets to the natives of Tauna, they ‘smacked their lips, and made their usual *click*, *click* with the mouth shut, in admiration of the fine new hatchets.’”—J. Lubbock, *Origin of civilisation and the primitive condition of man*, 5th ed., pp. 416, 423, 425.

2. Birth and death of languages.—Dialects.—

Creole language.—Pidgin English.—Yiddish.—Mixed languages.—“Like the leaves of the trees of the forest, the languages of the human race come into existence, bud, blossom, fade away, and fall out of use and are forgotten. Sanskrit, Zend, Hebrew, and Latin had their days before the Christian era, and then died away, their place being taken by younger vernaculars. And this process is always going on. There seems no fixed law, for it is obvious, that some languages, such as the Egyptian and Assyrian and Hebrew, have been dead for many centuries, leaving no descendants. Sanskrit and Latin have indeed died, but left large families of lineal descendants. There is a third category, containing such languages as Arabic and Greek, which have lived on to the present epoch, are still made use of as vehicles of speech, and have produced no offspring, except weak dialects, such as exist in the case of all living forms of speech. I make no allusion to Literature; the life of a language practically dead is sometimes prolonged for liturgical, literary, social, or political purposes. . . . Dialects both precede and follow the existence of their so-called parent-language. A potent dialect may develop into full life as a great conquering language, as English, a dialect of German, and Urdu, a dialect of Hindi, have done. On the other hand, the speakers of a great language, as the result of isolation or neglected culture, or professional idiosyncrasies, develop unconsciously a new dialect such as that current among sailors, or colonists in a distant island, miners in the bowels of the earth, or manufactures in a great business, where the environment is quite peculiar. The sole object of language is communication: all that unites certain classes of individuals with special bodies, with special necessities, tends to create a special form of communication, or a business-dialect. All that diminishes the opportunities of communication, the breaking-up of a tribe into separate and isolated sections, or castes, or classes, produces a rift in the common language, if they ever had one, and generates a local form of language, whether the people like it or not. As a fact they are unconscious of it. . . . I now pass to the subject of ‘Creole Languages.’ . . . In the year 1882 I wrote the following notice in a literary journal: ‘Professor Schuchardt, of the University of Gratz, has undertaken a work of considerable interest and labour. It is notorious that in every part of Asia, Africa, and America, from the contact of European languages with the native languages, new forms of speech are coming into existence, which at first sight may be called jargons, but which may possibly be the germs of new languages. At any rate, English and Urdu must have gradually come into existence in some such way. Most conspicuous among the class of degraded language-types is Pidgin-English [see also INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE: Natural development], which is, however, represented by a Literature of its own, and Creolese, which is represented by a translation of a portion of the Bible. . . . [Another dialect of this type is Yiddish, *alias* Judaish. There are two varieties: (1) a Spanish dialect, (2) a German dialect. It has been the fashion to call this last, the vernacular of the Jews, a “jargon,” but it is as much a dialect as any other modern dialect. A careful history of it has lately been published; there is a considerable Literature. There are sub-dialects of this dialect in Russia, Poland, and Galicia. (See also JEWS: Language and literature.)] . . . In the Cape Colony there is a settlement of Malays from Asia; they make use of a dialect called Cape Dutch, which has superseded their hereditary language. It is clear that we require more information on this branch of

the subject. Some years back it was laid down as an impossibility, that a mixed language could exist. A mixed word-store was admitted, as it is universal, but it was denied, that there could be any mixture in the grammatical structure of a language. This idea is now abandoned. In the two great vernaculars, English and Urdu, there is a mixture both of word-store and structure. In English the original Teutonic structure has become unrecognizable under the heavy burden of Latin intrusion, and the Urdu vernacular is choked with Arabic and Persian accretions, and the influence of a third language, the English, is now felt.—B. N. Cust, *Linguistic and Oriental essays, series 6, pp. 106, 108, 109.*

3. Historical criticism.—Psychology and anthropology.—Beginnings of comparative philology.—Ethnology and language.—“Aryan” theory.—“An historical criticism of language is alone able to furnish an empirical criticism of human reason. The fact that Max Müller fully recognised the nature of the task he proposed to himself, justified him in the profound utterance which has hitherto been so little understood: ‘All future philosophy will be a philosophy of language.’ . . . In the same way, independently of Max Müller, . . . Lazarus Geiger has expressed with equal definiteness the essential point of future philosophy—‘an empirical criticism of human reason through the criticism of language,’ while the main outlines of the future edifice have been boldly traced in his thoughtful and profound works. . . . In his lectures on psychology Waitz . . . lays down that, ‘the function of psychology, in relation to other philosophic studies, is that of foundation, for the formation of our ideas has a collective history, upon which their substance is dependent. They become scientifically serviceable only when it appears that they are not merely individual or accidental products of an unconscious process, but the necessary results of development, the products of laws of universal application, i.e. of laws to which the cultivation of their inner life must be always and entirely subject.’ Waitz was thus well aware of what was required; he was only uncertain as to the means by which the goal was to be attained. With inexhaustible zeal he turned first to physiology, then to comparative psychology, and lastly to anthropology, as a contribution to which his epoch-making work, ‘*Die Anthropologie der Natur-völker*’ was compiled. But he passed unsuspectingly by the richest, clearest, most trustworthy source upon which the historian of the development of human reason can draw. The discovery of this source was reserved for Max Müller and L. Geiger.”—L. Noiré, *Origin and philosophy of language, pp. 103-106.*—“Let us look at what has been achieved by the masters of comparative philology, and many others, who followed their banners. The East, formerly a land of dreams, of fables, and fairies, has become to us a land of unmistakable reality: the curtain between the West and the East has been lifted, and our old forgotten home stands before us again in bright colours and definite outlines. Two worlds, separated for thousands of years, have been reunited as by a magic spell, and we feel rich in a past that may well be the pride of our noble Aryan family. We say no longer vaguely and poetically *Ex Oriente Lux*, but we know that all the most vital elements of our knowledge and civilization—our languages, our alphabets, our figures, our weights and measures, our art, our religion, our traditions, our very nursery stories—come to us from the East; and we must confess that but for the rays of Eastern light, whether Aryan or Semitic or Hamitic, that called forth the hidden germs of the dark and dreary West, Europe,

now the very light of the world, might have remained for ever a barren and forgotten promontory of the primeval Asiatic continent.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 77-78.—“Ethnologists find reason to believe that the variations in the human species, which produced the different stocks or families of mankind now peopling the earth, had their genesis as far back in geologic time as the paleolithic period, and were evolved before the neolithic stage had been reached in any part of the world. Singular differences of opinion are found, however, and singular changes of view have occurred, as to what is and what is not fundamental in the variations of the human race. Color was accepted first, without question, as the basis of classification, and all humanity was divided into five great families, namely: the white or pale-skinned peoples, called Caucasians; the yellow-skinned Asiatics, or Mongolians; the blacks of central Africa and of some South Sea islands; the red aborigines of America, and the brown Malaysians of southeastern Asia and the contiguous seas. Then attention was turned to relationships of language, which seemed to have more meaning than the differing colors of skin. Philology, for a time, took ethnology in hand, and grouped the peoples of the globe by their speech. It found one great growth of language in Europe and parts of Asia, branching into many variants, but carrying the same structural form into all; and this Aryan form of speech, as the philologists named it, was taken for a mark of kinship among the many peoples to whose tongues it belonged. Another such development of varied languages having one structural form was found in southwestern Asia, and called Semitic, because supposed to have sprung from the speech of the children of Shem; while a third, very doubtfully distinguished from it, was traced in the neighboring regions of Africa, and attributed to an origin in the family of Ham. The languages in these three divisions—Aryan, Semitic, and Hamitic—are alike in the grammatical feature called ‘inflection,’ and contrasted thereby with a greater multitude of so-called ‘agglutinative’ languages, which were classed together as Turanian in the older philological schemes. Languages of the Aryan group include the Sanscrit and the Zend, with all that came from them in ancient and modern Indian and Iran, the noble speech of the Greeks, the Latin of Rome, and the many tongues of all the nations known as Celtic, Teutonic and Slavic in modern times. A generation ago there was almost no questioning of the theory of a common ancestry for the peoples—Hindus, Medes, Persians, Greeks, Romans, Italians, Frenchmen, Spaniards, Germans, Scandinavians, Dutchmen, Englishmen, Welshmen, Irishmen, Scots, Russians, Poles, and others,—whose languages grew plainly from the common roots of Aryan speech. They were looked upon as forming one great Indo-European or Indo-Germanic family of mankind, apart from other families, and dominant among them by virtue of some superior quality of race. There was disputation only concerning the primitive Aryan home, where the great race was cradled, and whence it was supposed to have swarmed forth, in successive hosts, at long intervals, to acquire in different lands the different characteristics of the Hindu, the Greek, the Roman, the Celt, the German and the Slav. For a time there was general agreement with Professor Max Müller, who thought it possible to trace the Aryas of antiquity to a first dwelling place on the high plains at the north of the Hindu Kush mountains; but other philologists found reasons equally cogent for looking elsewhere, in northern or eastern Europe, especially; and now there appears to be little hope of tracking the Aryan tongues to their primal

source. Gradually, the whole theory of the undertaking to find relationships of race by relationships of language was shaken by many criticisms. The large and uncertain extent to which languages have been spread in some cases and extinguished in others, by conquest, or by intermixture of peoples, was taken more into account. New schools of anthropology and ethnology have been breaking away from the philological influence, and looking to physical features once more for the marks of racial kinship."—J. N. Larned, *Seventy centuries of the life of mankind*, pp. 25-27.—See also ANTHROPOLOGY: Linguistics; ARYANS: Distribution; EUROPE: Introduction to historic period; Distribution of races; Correlation of race, nationality and language.

4. Revelations of Sanskrit.—Sir William Jones and Bopp.—Indian literature.—European scholarship.—Europeans alleged to originate from Asia.—"Full seventy years have passed since Sir William Jones published [in 1789] his translation of *Sakuntala*, a work which may fairly be considered as the starting-point of Sanskrit philology. . . . [The] scientific interest excited by the language, the literature, the philosophy, and antiquities of India has lasted, and has been increasing ever since. England, France, Germany, Italy, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and Greece have each contributed their share towards the advancement of Sanskrit philology, and names like those of Sir W. Jones, Colebrooke, Wilson, in England, Burnouf, in France, the two Schlegels, W. von Humboldt, Bopp, and Lassen, in Germany, have secured to this branch of modern scholarship a firm standing and a universal reputation. The number of books that have been published by Sanskrit scholars in the course of the last seventy years is but small. Those works, however, represent large and definite results, important not only in their bearing on Indian antiquities, but, as giving birth to a new system of Comparative Philology, of the highest possible importance to philology in general. In little more than half a century, Sanskrit has gained its proper place in the republic of learning, side by side with Greek and Latin. . . . When our earliest Sanskrit scholars directed their attention to Indian literature, the difficulties they had to struggle with were [very great]. . . . Not to mention the burning and enervating sky of India, and the burden of their official occupations, men like Halhed, Wilkins, and Sir W. Jones could hardly find a single Brahman who would undertake to teach them his sacred idiom. When, after some time, learned Pandits became more willing to impart their knowledge to Europeans, their own views of Indian history and literature were more apt to mislead their pupils than to guide them in a truly historical direction. Thus it happened that, at the beginning of Sanskrit philology, preference was given either to works which still enjoyed amongst the Hindus themselves a great, but frequently undeserved, popularity, or to those which by their poetical beauty attracted the attention of men of taste. Everything Indian, whether *Manu's Code of Laws*, the *Bhagavadgītā*, *Sakuntala*, or the *Hitopadēśa*, was at that time considered to be of great and extravagant antiquity, and it was extremely difficult for European scholars to form a right opinion on the real merits of Indian literature. . . . There is another circumstance which has retarded the progress of Sanskrit philology: an affectation of that learned pedantry which has done so much mischief to Greek and Latin scholarship. . . .

"The Aryan nations who pursued a north-westerly direction, stand before us in history as the principal nations of north-western Asia and Europe.

They have been the prominent actors in the great drama of history, and have carried to their fullest growth all the elements of active life with which our nature is endowed. They have perfected society and morals, and we learn from their literature and works of art the elements of science, the laws of art, and the principles of philosophy. In continual struggle with each other and with Semitic and Turanian races, these Aryan nations have become the rulers of history, and it seems to be their mission to link all parts of the world together by the chains of civilisation, commerce, and religion. In a word they represent the Aryan man in his historical character."—F. M. Müller, *History of ancient Sanskrit literature*, pp. 1-4, 7, 14-15.—See also HINDU LITERATURE; SANSKRIT.

5. European translations from Sanskrit.—Asiatic Society of Bengal.—Introduction of the study of Sanskrit into Europe.—Jones, Colebrooke, Hamilton, Schlegel and Rosen.—Prakrit.—"Sir William Jones (1746-94) was . . . the pio-



SIR WILLIAM JONES

neer of Sanskrit studies in the West. It was this brilliant and many-sided Orientalist who, during his too brief career of eleven years in India, first aroused a keen interest in the study of Indian antiquity by his unwearied literary activity and by the foundation of the Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1784. Having rapidly acquired an accurate knowledge of Sanskrit, he published in 1789 a translation of *Çakuntalā* [*Sakuntala*], the finest Sanskrit drama, which was greeted with enthusiasm by such judges as Herder and Goethe. This was followed by a translation of the *Code of Manu*, the most important of the Sanskrit law-books. To Sir William Jones also belongs the credit of having been the first man who ever printed an edition of a Sanskrit text. This was a short lyrical poem entitled *Ritusamhāra*, or *Cycle of the Seasons*, published in 1792. We next come to the great name of Henry Thomas Colebrooke (1765-1837), a man of extraordinary industry, combined with rare clearness of intellect and sobriety of judgment. The first to handle the Sanskrit language and literature on scientific principles, he published many texts, translations, and essays dealing with almost every branch of Sanskrit learning,

thus laying the solid foundations on which later scholars have built. While Colebrooke was beginning his literary career in India during the opening years of the century, the romance of war led to the practical knowledge of Sanskrit being introduced on the Continent of Europe. Alexander Hamilton (1765-1824), an Englishman who had acquired a good knowledge of Sanskrit in India, happened to be passing through France on his way home in 1802. Hostilities breaking out afresh just then, a decree of Napoleon, directed against all Englishmen in the country, kept Hamilton a prisoner in Paris. During his long involuntary stay in that city he taught Sanskrit to some French scholars, and especially to the German romantic poet Friedrich Schlegel. One of the results of these studies was the publication by Schlegel of his work *On the Language and Wisdom of the Indians* (1808). This book produced nothing less than a revolution in the science of language by the introduction of the comparative and the historical method. It led to the foundation of the science of comparative philology by Franz Bopp in his treatise on the conjugational system of Sanskrit in comparison with that of Greek, Latin, Persian, and German (1816). Schlegel's work, moreover, aroused so much zeal for the study of Sanskrit in Germany, that the vast progress made since his day in this branch of learning has been mainly due to the labours of his countrymen. In the early days of Sanskrit studies Europeans became acquainted only with that later phase of the ancient language of India which is familiar to the Pandits, and is commonly called Classical Sanskrit. So it came about that the literature composed in this dialect engaged the attention of scholars almost exclusively down to the middle of the [nineteenth] century. Colebrooke had, it is true, supplied as early as 1805 valuable information about the literature of the older period in his essay *On the Vedas*. Nearly a quarter of a century later, F. Rosen, a German scholar, had conceived the plan of making the more ancient literature known to Europe from the rich collection of manuscripts at the East India House; and his edition of the first eighth of the *Rigveda* was actually brought out in 1838, shortly after his premature death. But it was not till Rudolf Roth (1821-95), the founder of Vedic Philology, published his epoch-making little book *On the Literature and History of the Veda* in 1846, that the studies of Sanskritists received a lasting impulse in the direction of the earlier and more important literature of the Vedas. These studies have since been prosecuted with such zeal, that nearly all the most valuable works of the Vedic, as well as the later period, have within the last fifty years been made accessible in thoroughly trustworthy editions. . . . In the oldest period of Prākṛit, that of the Pāli Aṣoka inscriptions and the early Buddhist and Jain literature, two main dialects, the Western and the Eastern, may be distinguished. Between the beginning of our era and about 1000 A.D., mediæval Prākṛit, which is still synthetic in character, is divided into four chief dialects. In the west we find *Apabhramṣa* ('decadent') in the valley of the Indus, and *Çaurasenī* in the Doab, with Mathurā as its centre. Subdivisions of the latter were *Gaur-jarī* (Gujarātī), *Avantī* (Western *Rājputānī*), and *Mahārāshtrī* (Eastern *Rājputānī*). The Eastern Prākṛit now appears as *Māgadhi*, the dialect of Magadha, now Behar, and *Ardha-Māgadhi* (Half-Māgadhi), with Benares as its centre. These mediæval Prākṛits are important in connection with Sanskrit literature, as they are the vernaculars employed by the uneducated classes in the Sanskrit

drama. They are the sources of all the Aryan languages of modern India. From the *Apabhramṣa* are derived *Sindhī*, Western *Panjābī*, and *Kashmīrī*; from *Çaurasenī* come Eastern *Panjābī* and *Hindī* (the old *Avantī*), as well as *Gujarātī*; while from the two forms of *Māgadhi* are descended *Marāṭhī* on the one hand, and the various dialects of Bengal on the other. These modern vernaculars, which began to develop from about 1000 A.D., are no longer inflexional languages, but are analytical like English, forming an interesting parallel in their development from ancient Sanskrit to the Romance dialects in their derivation from Latin. They have developed literatures of their own, which are based entirely on that of Sanskrit. The non-Aryan languages of the Dekhan, the Dravidian group, including Telugu, Canarese, Malāyalam, and Tamil, have not indeed been ousted by Aryan tongues, but they are full of words borrowed from Sanskrit, while their literature is dominated by Sanskrit models."—A. A. Macdonell, *History of Sanskrit literature*, pp. 3-5, 27-28.

6. Grimm's law of permutation of consonants. —"So important a part of the history of a language are its special methods of phonetic change, that, in investigating the relations of any dialect with its kindred dialects, the first step is to determine to what sounds in the latter its own sounds regularly correspond. Thus, on comparing English and German, we find that a *d* in the former usually agrees, not with a *d*, but with a *t*, in the latter; as is shown by *Dance* and *tanz*, *day* and *tag*, *deep* and *tief*, *drink* and *trink*, and so on. In like manner, the German counterpart of an English *t* is *s* or *z*: compare *foot* and *fuss*, *tin* and *zinn*, *to* and *zu*, *two* and *zwei*, and the like; and a German *d* answers to our *th*, as in *die* for *the*, *dein* for *thine*, *bad* for *bath*. What is yet more extraordinary is the fact that, if we compare English with the older languages of our family—as with Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit—we discover the precise converse of this relation: as German *t* is English *d*, so English *t* is Latin *d* (compare *two* and *duo*); as German *d* is English *th*, so English *d* is Greek *th* (compare *door* and *thura*, *daughter* and *thugatēr*); as German *s* or *z* is English *t*, so English *th* (the lisped letter instead of the hissed, the spirant for the sibilant) is Latin, Greek and Sanskrit *t* (compare *three* and *tres*, *treis*, *tri*; *that* and *-tud*, *to*, *tad*). In short, taking the series of three dental mutes, surd, aspirate, and sonant, *t*, *th*, and *d*, we find that the Germanic languages in general, including the English, have pushed each of them forward one step, while the High-German dialects, chiefly represented by the literary German, have pushed each of them forward two steps. Thus, in tabular form.

1. <i>t</i>	S. <i>tad</i> (3),		
2. <i>th</i>	E. <i>that</i> (1),	Gr. <i>thura</i> ,	
3. <i>d</i>	G. <i>das</i> (2).	E. <i>door</i> ,	L. <i>dent-em</i> (1),
1. <i>t</i>		G. <i>tor</i> .	E. <i>tooth</i> (2),
2. <i>th</i>			G. <i>zand</i> (3).

[Note.—The writer gives here the Old High-German forms *tor* and *zand*, as illustrating the change more distinctly and fully than the corresponding modern German words, *Thor* and *Zahn*.] And a similar rule of permutation holds good also among the consonants of the two other series, the palatal and labial: *k*, *kh*, *g*; *p*, *ph*, *b*—the whole, with certain variations and exceptions, of which we do not need here to take account. This intricate method of correspondence without identity is generally styled, after its discoverer, 'Grimm's Law of Permutation of Consonants' (in German, simply the *Lautverschiebung*); it is a fact of prime conse-

quence in the history of the group of languages to which ours belongs, and, at the same time, one of the most remarkable and difficult phenomena of its class which the linguistic student finds anywhere offered him for explanation. Nor has any satisfactory explanation of it yet been devised; while, nevertheless, we have no reason to believe it of a nature essentially different from other mutations of sound, of equally arbitrary appearance, though of less complication and less range, which the history of language everywhere exhibits."—W. D. Whitney, *Language and the study of language*, pp. 97-98.—In 1822 Jacob L. C. Grimm published the second edition of his *Deutsche Grammatik*, in which he expounded this "Law of Permutation." "It should be understood, of course, that this is a very general statement of Grimm's Law, and that, as thus expressed, it is open to numerous exceptions and to the qualifications of some important sub-laws. Moreover, it should be remembered in tracing back English words to their cognates in the other Indo-European languages which are not subject to this shifting of consonants, as for example, Latin, that these other languages may also have had each its own peculiar development in its consonant system which may serve to obscure the simple operation of the law. It is also apparent that only those English words which are of native origin, that is, only that half of our bilingual language which is Teutonic and not late borrowed Romance, can be subject to Grimm's Law. Despite its various restrictions and qualifications, however, Grimm's Law is one of the most valuable linguistic principles which we possess. It enables us not only to group the Teutonic languages together, but also often to determine the history and etymology of the vocabularies of the various Teutonic languages, to tell what words are native and what are foreign. Moreover, the study of Grimm's Law has carried in its wake the discovery of many other linguistic laws and principles which are of the greatest interest and importance."—G. P. Krapp, *Modern English, its growth and present use*, pp. 52-53.

7. Phases in growth of Aryan language.—Sanskrit roots in Chinese.—Tibetan.—If we examine "the attempt of Professor [Georg] Curtius [1820-1885] to establish seven distinct chronological periods in the history of the Aryan speech, previous to its separation into Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Slavonic, Teutonic, and Celtic, I think we shall find two principles clearly established:—1. That it is impossible to distinguish more than *three* successive phases in the growth of the Aryan language. In the first phase or period the only materials were roots, not yet compounded, still less articulated grammatically, a form of language to us almost inconceivable, yet even at present preserved in the literature and conversation of millions of human beings, the Chinese. In that stage of language, 'king rule man heap law instrument,' would mean, the king rules men legally. The *second* phase is characterized by the combination of roots, by which process one loses its independence and its accent, and is changed from a full and material into an empty or formal element. That phase comprehends the formation of compound roots, of certain nominal and verbal stems, and of the most necessary forms of declension and conjugation. What distinguishes this phase from the inflectional is the consciousness of the speaker, that one part of his word is the stem or the body, and all the rest its environment, a feeling analogous to that which we have when we speak of *man-hood*, *man-ly*, *man-ful*, *man-kind*, but which fails us when we speak of *man* and *men*, or if we speak of *wo-man*, instead of *wif-man*. The principle of combination

preponderated when inflection was as yet unknown, but inflection itself was the result of combination, and unless it had continued long after inflection set in, the very life of language would have become extinct. The *third* phase is the inflectional, when the base and the modificatory elements of words coalesce, lose their independence in the mind of the speaker, and simply produce the impression of modification taking place in the body of words, but without any intelligible reason. This is the feeling which we have throughout nearly the whole of our own language, and it is only by means of scientific reflection that we distinguish between the root, the base, the suffix, and the termination. To attempt more than this three-fold division seems to me impossible. 2. The second principle which I tried to establish was that the growth of language does not land itself to a chronological division, in the strict sense of the word. Whatever forces are at work in the formation of languages, none of them ceases suddenly to make room for another, but they work on with a certain continuity from beginning to end, only on a larger or smaller scale. Inflection does not put a sudden end to combination, nor combination to juxtaposition. When even in so modern a language as English we can form by mere combination such words as *man-like*, and reduce them to *manly*, the power of combination cannot be said to be extinct, although it may no longer be sufficiently strong to produce new cases or new personal terminations. We may admit, in the development of the Aryan language, previous to its division, three successive strata of formation, a *juxtapositional*, a *combinatory*, and an *inflectional*; but we shall have to confess that these strata are not regularly superimposed, but tilted, broken up, and convulsed. They are very prominent each for a time, but even after that time is over, they may be traced at different points, pervading the very latest formations of tertiary speech. The true motive power in the progress of all language is combination, and that power is not extinct even in our own time. . . . Attempts have lately been made to point out a number of roots which Chinese shares in common with Sanskrit. . . . Mr. Edkins has . . . clearly shown the great advantage to be derived from an accurate study of Chinese dialects. The same scholar has done still more by pointing out how Chinese should at first be compared with its nearest relatives, the Mongolian of the North-Turanian, and the Tibetan of the South-Turanian class, before any comparisons are attempted with more distant colonies that started during the monosyllabic period of speech."—F. M. Müller, *Chips from a German workshop*, v. 4, pp. 136-138, 105.—See also CHINA: Languages and dialects.

8. Greek and Latin.—Historical grammar.—Etymology.—Phonetic laws.—Development of comparative philology.—Bopp, Burnouf, Benfey and Grimm.—Miklosich, Schleicher, Curtius and Corssen.—"The two classical languages, Greek and Latin, which looked as if they had fallen from the sky or been found behind the hedge, have now recovered their title-deeds, and have taken their legitimate place in that old and noble family which we call the Indo-European, the Indo-Germanic, or by a shorter, if not a better name, the Aryan. In this way not only have their antecedents been cleared up, but their mutual relationship, too, has for the first time been placed in its proper light. . . . When Greek and Latin had once been restored to their true place in the natural system of the Aryan languages, their special treatment, too, became necessarily a different one. In grammar, for instance, scholars were no longer satisfied to give forms and rules, and to place what was irregular

by the side of what was regular. They wished to know the reasons of the rules as well as of the exceptions; they asked why the forms were such as they were, and not otherwise; they required not only a logical, but also an historical foundation of grammar. . . . Instead of indulging in general speculations on the logic of grammar, the riddles of grammar received their solution from a study of the historical development of language. For every language there was to be a historical grammar, and in this way a revolution was produced in philological studies. . . . For instance, instead of attempting an explanation why the genitive singular and the ablative plural of the first and second declensions could express rest in a place—*Romæ*, at Rome; *Tarenti*, at Tarentum; *Athenis*, at Athens; *Gabiis*, at Gabii—one glance at the past history of these languages showed that these so-called genitives were not and never had been genitives, but corresponded to the old locatives in *i* and *su* in Sanskrit. . . . What gigantic steps truly scientific etymology has made in Greek and Latin, every scholar may see in the excellent works of Curtius and Corssen. The essential difference between the old and the new systems consists . . . in this, that while formerly people were satisfied if they knew, or imagined they knew, from what source a certain word was derived, little value is now attached to the mere etymology of a word, unless at the same time it is possible to account, according to fixed phonetic laws, for all the changes which a word has undergone in its passage through Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit. How far this conscientiousness may be carried is shown by the fact that the best comparative philologists decline to admit, on phonetic grounds, the identity of such words as the Latin *Deus*, and the Greek *Θεός*, although the strongest internal arguments may be urged in favor of the identity of these words.”—F. M. Müller, *Chips from a German workshop*, v. 4, pp. 205-210.—“Père Cœurdoux, a French Jesuit, writes in 1767 from Pondichery to the French Academy, asking that learned society for a solution of the question, ‘How is it that Sanskrit has so many words in common with Greek and Latin?’ He presents not only long lists of words, but he calls attention to the still more curious fact, that the grammatical forms in Sanskrit show the most startling similarity with Greek and Latin. After him almost everybody who had looked at Sanskrit, and who knew Greek and Latin, made the same remark and asked the same question. . . . A kind of silent conviction began to spread that there must be in Sanskrit a remedy for all evils; people could not rest till every word in Greek and Latin had . . . been discovered in Sanskrit. Nor were Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit enough to satisfy the thirst of the new discoverers. The Teutonic languages were soon annexed, the Celtic languages yielded to some gentle pressure, the Slavonic languages clamored for incorporation, the sacred idiom of ancient Persia, the Zend, demanded its place by the side of Sanskrit, the Armenian followed in its wake; and when even the Ossetic from the valleys of Mount Caucasus, and the Albanian from the ancient hills of Epirus, had proved their birthright, the whole family, the Aryan family of language, seemed complete, and an historical fact, the original unity of all these languages, was established on a basis which even the most skeptical could not touch or shake. . . . It was the great merit of Bopp that he called the attention away from this tempting field to the more laborious work of grammatical analysis. . . . It was in the nature of things that a comparative study of languages should at first be directed to what is com-

mon to all; nay, without having first become thoroughly acquainted with the general features of the whole family, it would have been impossible to discover and fully to appreciate what is peculiar to each of the members. Nor was it long before a reaction set in. One scholar from the very first, and almost contemporaneously with Bopp’s first essays on Comparative Grammar, devoted himself to the study of one branch of languages only, availing himself, as far as he was able, of the new light which a knowledge of Sanskrit had thrown on the secret history of the whole Aryan family of speech, but concentrating his energies on the Teutonic; I mean, of course, Jacob Grimm, the author of the great historical grammar of the German language; a work which will live and last long after other works of that early period shall have been forgotten, or replaced, at least, by better books. After a time Grimm’s example was followed by others. Zeuss, in his ‘*Grammatica Celtica*,’ established the study of the Celtic languages on the broad foundations of Comparative Grammar. Miklosich and Schleicher achieved similar results by adopting the same method for the study of the Slavonic dialects. Curtius, by devoting himself to an elucidation of Greek, opened the eyes of classical scholars to the immense advantages of this new treatment of grammar and etymology; while Corssen, in his more recent works on Latin, has struck a mine which may well tempt the curiosity of every student of the ancient dialects of Italy. At the present moment [1894] the reaction is complete; and there is certainly some danger, lest what was called a *syncretistic* spirit should now be replaced by an *isolating* spirit in the science of language. It cannot be denied, however, that this isolating, or rather discriminating, tendency has produced already the most valuable results, and I believe that it is chiefly due to the works of Curtius and Corssen, if Greek and Latin scholars have been roused at last from their apathy and been made aware of the absolute necessity of Comparative Philology, as a subject to be taught, not only in every university but in every school. I believe it is due to their works that a conviction has gradually been gaining ground among the best scholars at Oxford, also, that Comparative Philology could no longer be ignored as an important ingredient in the teaching of Greek and Latin; and while a comparative analysis of Sanskrit, Zend, Armenian, Greek, Latin, Gothic, High-German, Lithuanian, Slavonic, and Celtic, such as we find it in Bopp’s ‘*Comparative Grammar*,’ would hardly be considered as a subject of practical utility, even in a school of philology, it was recognized at last that, not only for sound principles of etymology, not only for a national treatment of Greek and Latin grammar, not only for a right understanding of classical mythology, but even for a critical restoration of the very texts of Homer and Plautus, a knowledge of Comparative Philology, as applied to Greek and Latin, had become indispensable.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 14-18.

9. “Indo-European” versus “Aryan.”—Germanic languages.—Scandinavian and Slavonic.—Celtic, Italic and Rumansh.—Modern Greek or Romic.—Descendants of Latin.—Umbrian.—Euguvine, or Iguvinian tables.—“We will employ ‘Indo-European,’ as having on the whole the best claim; it was deliberately adopted by Bopp, the great expounder of the relations of the family, and is as widely used as any of the others. Most of Bopp’s countrymen now prefer ‘Indo-Germanic,’ for no other assignable reason than that it contains the foreign appellation of their own particular branch, as given by their conquerors and teach-

ers, the Romans. Others, rejecting both these titles as cumbrously long, say instead 'Aryan,' which also has a wide and perhaps a growing currency; the chief objection is, that it properly belongs only to the Asiatic division, composed of the Iranian and Indian branches, and is still needed and widely used to designate that division. 'Sanskritic,' from the oldest and in some respects the leading language of the family, and 'Japhetic,' from the son of Noah to whom are attributed as descendants in the Genesis some of the people speaking its various dialects, are terms of limited and now obsolescent employment. The Indo-European family, then, is composed of seven great branches: the Indian, the Iranian or Persian, the Greek, the Italic, the Celtic, the Slavonic or Slavo-Lettic, and the Germanic or Teutonic. Taking these up in their inverse order, we have first the Germanic branch, in the four principal divisions already noted: 1. The Moeso-Gothic, or dialect of the Goths of Moesia, preserved only in parts of a Bible-version made by their bishop Ulfilas in the fourth century of our era, being long ago extinct as a spoken language. 2. The Low-German languages, still spoken in the north of Germany, from Holstein to Flanders, and across in the neighboring England, and including two important cultivated tongues, the Netherlands and the English. English literary monuments go back to the seventh century, Netherlands to the thirteenth; and there is an 'Old-Saxon' poem, the *Heliand*, or 'Savior,' from the ninth, and Frisian literature from the fourteenth. 3. The High-German body of dialects, represented at the present day by only a single literary language, the so-called German, of which the literature begins with the Reformation, in the sixteenth century; back of this, the New High-German period, lie a Middle and an Old High-German period, with their literatures in various somewhat discordant dialects, reaching back into the eighth century. 4. The Scandinavian division, written in the forms of Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic. The Icelandic monuments go back to the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and are in point of style and content older than anything in High or Low German: the Edda is the purest and most abundant source of knowledge for primitive Germanic conditions. The Icelandic is also, especially in its phonetic state, the most antique of living Germanic dialects. Besides these literary remains, there are brief Runic inscriptions, generally of but a word or two, going back, it is believed, even to the third or second century. The Slavonic branch has always lain in close proximity to the Germanic, on the east; it has been the last of all to gain historical prominence. Its eastern division includes the Russian, Bulgarian, Servian and Croatian, and Slovenian. The Bulgarian has the oldest records; its version of the Bible, made in the ninth century, in the same region where the Gothic version had been made five centuries earlier, has become the accepted version, and its dialect the church language, throughout the Slavonic division of the Greek church. The Russian is by far the most important language of the whole branch; it has remained from the eleventh century; some of the southern dialects present specimens from a yet remoter date. To the western division belong the Polish, the Bohemian, of which the Moravian and Slovakian are closely kindred dialects, the Serbian, and the Polabian. There is nothing in Polish earlier than the fourteenth century; Bohemian records are believed to go back to the tenth. This branch is often called the Slavo-Lettic, because it is made to include another sub-branch, the Lettic or Lithuanic, which, though considerably further removed from

the Slavonic than any of these from the rest, is yet too nearly related to rank as a separate branch. It is composed of three main dialects: the Old-Prussian, extinct during the past two centuries [see PRUSSIAN LANGUAGE: Old], the Lithuanian, and the Livonian or Lettish; all clustered about the great bend of the Baltic. The Lithuanian is the most important and the oldest, having records from the middle of the sixteenth century. It exhibits in some respects a remarkable conservation of ancient material and form. The Celtic branch is one which from the beginning of history has been shrinking in extent, till it now occupies only the remotest western edges of the immense region of western and central Europe which it formerly possessed. Not enough is known of the ancient Celtic dialects of northern Italy, of Gaul, of Spain, to show what was their place in the sub-classification of the branch. The preserved dialects composed two groups, usually called the Cymric and Gadhelic. The Cymric includes the Welsh, with 'glosses' from the ninth century or thereabouts, and a literature from the twelfth, but of which part of the substance is probably older, even up to the sixth; the Cornish, which became extinct as a vernacular about the end of the last [18th] century, leaving a considerable literature nearly as old as the Welsh; and the Armorican of Brittany, so nearly allied to the Cornish that it is believed to belong to fugitives from that part of England; its earliest records are of the fourteenth century. The Gadhelic group includes the Irish, which has monuments going back to the end of the eighth century, the Scotch Gaelic, of which the earliest remains are attributed to the sixteenth, and the insignificant dialect of the Isle of Man. [See also CELTS: Celtic language.] The Italic branch is represented among living languages only by the Romanic dialects, so called as being all descended from the dialect of Rome, the Latin. . . . They all rose at not far from the same period—namely, the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries—out of the condition of local *patois*, products of the corruption of the popular speech while the Latin continued the language of the learned. Fragments of French are oldest, coming from the tenth century; its literature begins one or two centuries later; the earliest Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, are from the twelfth, or hardly earlier. These four are the conspicuous modern members of the group. But there was also, in the eleventh to the fourteenth centuries, a rich literature of the chief dialect of southern France, the Provençal, which, except for a recent sporadic effort or two, has been ever since unused as a cultivated tongue. There exists, too, in the [former] northern provinces of Turkey, in Wallachia and Moldavia [now Rumania], a broad region of less cultivated Romanic speech, witness to the spread of Roman supremacy eastward: it is destitute of a proper literature. [Since this was written a considerable national literature has arisen.] Moreover, certain dialects of southern Switzerland are enough unlike Italian to be ordinarily ranked as an independent tongue, under the name of Rhaeto-Romanic, or Rumansh, or Ladin. The ancient members of the Italic branch, coördinate with the Latin, were long ago crowded out of existence; but a few remains of them are still left, especially of the Umbrian, north from Rome beyond the Apennines, and of the Oscan of southern Italy. The Latin itself, in its oldest monuments, reaches hardly three centuries beyond the Christian era, appearing there in a form which seems very strange, and is hardly intelligible, to those who have learned only the cultivated dialect of the last century B.C. The Greek branch attains a much greater age, those masterpieces of

human genius, the poems of Homer, being nearly or quite a thousand years older than our era. From about 300 B. C., all Greek is written in the Attic or Athenian dialect, as all modern German literature in the New High-German; but before that time, as in the Old High-German period, each author used more or less distinctly his own local dialect; and in this way, as well as, more widely but less abundantly, by inscriptions and the like, we have a tolerably full representation of the local varieties into which the Greek had divided in prehistoric times. There is, of course, a similar variety of dialects now; but only one is written, and it is called Modern Greek, or Romaic; it is less altered from the classic Greek than is the Italian from the Latin. Notwithstanding the wide sway of Greek civilization, the spread of Greek empire under Alexander and his successors, and the unexcelled character of the language, the latter has had a limited and inconspicuous career as compared with the Latin: out of Greece itself, it is spoken only on the islands and shores of the Aegean, and along the northern and southern edges of Asia Minor."—W. D. Whitney, *Life and growth of language*, pp. 180-185.—"Just as there are in the world great languages such as Chinese or Hebrew, or Arabic, which are not descended from our [Aryan] Mother Tongue, so there are some less important, in Europe, that are outside this family, such, for instance, as the language of the gipsies and of the Basques who live on the coast of the Bay of Biscay, that of the Finns, of the Turks, and of the Hungarians."—A. Chaplin, *Romance of language*, p. 14.—"The remoter relations of the Latin itself receive light from various sources. . . . The Oscan or Opican of southern Italy was the language of the Samnites and their allies, from whose hands Rome wrung after a severe and often doubtful struggle the dominion of the peninsula; it was not disused as the official speech of some of the southern provinces until less than a hundred years before Christ; and coins and inscriptions dating from the two or three preceding centuries still teach us something of its structure and character. The Umbrian, the tongue of north-eastern Italy, is yet more fully represented to us by the Eguvine tablets, inscribed with the prayers and ceremonial rules of a fraternity of priests, and supposed to be as old as the third and fourth centuries before our era. Of the Volscian dialect, also, and the Sabine or Sabellian—the former being more akin with the Umbrian, the latter with the Latin—some exceedingly scanty relics have been discovered. The interpretation and comprehension of all these—resting, as it does, solely upon comparison with the Latin and other more distantly related tongues—is at present, and is likely always to remain, incomplete and doubtful; but they are of essential importance, both in explaining some of the peculiarities of the Latin, and in fixing its position as one of a group of kindred dialects occupying the greater portion of the Italian peninsula, and hence most suitably to be denominated the Italic group. The theory that the Latin was produced by a mixture of somewhat discordant elements—of Roman, Sabine, and Oscan; or of these and Etruscan—brought together by historical circumstances, and finally fused into homogeneousness, is one which belonged to a former stage of linguistic science, and is now rejected as uncalled-for and groundless. Yet more untenable, and wanting even a semblance of foundation, is the derivation of Latin from Greek, a favourite dogma of times not long past but at present abandoned by every comparative philologist whose opinion is of the slightest value."—W. D. Whitney, *Language and*

the study of language, pp. 219-220.—"The Eguvine [Eguvine, or Iguvinian] *Tables* have recently [1874] been the object of the studies of M. Michel Bréal, the result of which he has begun to communicate to the Académie des Inscriptions. These tablets of bronze, in the Umbrian language, containing the acts of a corporation of priests established at Iguvium (now Gubbio, about 100 miles due north of Rome, in the late Papal States), whose authority seems to have extended over a considerable district round, were, as is well known, discovered at that town in 1444. According to Antonio Concioli, who devoted himself to their history in the seventeenth century, they were originally nine in number; but in 1540 two of them were removed to the Arsenal at Venice, where all trace of them was subsequently lost. It is hoped that they may still exist in some of the Venetian palaces, and M. Bréal asks that the Italian Government should direct a search to be made for them. The text of the remaining seven—the older portion of which is in an alphabet borrowed from Etruria, the more recent in Roman characters—was published as early as 1723, in the work of Dempster, *De Etruria Regali*. It was not, however, till the present [10th] century that any successful attempt was made at deciphering them, and the credit of reading them is chiefly due to Aufrecht and Kirchhoff in their *Umbrische Denkmäler* (1849-51). Notwithstanding the diligence of these scholars there still remain various obscurities, grammatical and lexical, on which M. Bréal promises to throw fresh light. The complete decipherment of the inscriptions is a matter of equal interest to philology and to classical archaeology."—*Academy*, Mar. 28, 1874.

10. Refutation of "Aryan" theory.—Duodecimal theory.—European descent of Aryans claimed.—"In the Later Stone Age there lived somewhere a people or a group of peoples who spoke a tongue from which were descended the languages of the Hindus and the Persians, the Greeks and the Romans, the Slavs, the Celts, and the Teutons, including the Scandinavians and the English, that is, *the present speech of perhaps a quarter of a billion people in Asia and of most of the inhabitants of Europe and of North and South America*. Comparative study of these various languages has reconstructed to a considerable extent not only the speech but also the daily life, the government, and the religion of that Neolithic people, known as Aryan, Indo-Germanic, or Indo-European, which had split into groups and wandered apart before the dawn of recorded history. Linguistic relationship is not in itself sufficient proof of racial relationship. The conquered may adopt the language of the conquerors, or the conquerors that of the conquered, or there may be peaceful mingling in irregular proportions of race and language. Max Müller's oft-quoted words have become almost an article of philological faith: 'To me an ethnologist who speaks of Aryan race, Aryan blood, Aryan eyes and hair, is as great a sinner as a linguist who speaks of a dolichocephalic (long-headed) dictionary or a brachycephalic (round-headed) grammar.' When we speak of the Indo-Europeans we mean merely the people, whoever they were, that spoke Indo-European, and we imply nothing whatever as to race or racial characteristics. As a matter of cold fact and despite many opinions on the subject, we know very little racially about the ancient Indo-Europeans; we do not even know whether they were one race or a mixture of types. But language is the best evidence of *community of life and culture*, and we can at least assume that at some time and in some more or less definite territory there dwelt

a people or a group of peoples, racially pure or racially mixed, who lived, to a large extent, a common life and who spoke a tongue which was the common ancestor of the languages now spoken by the majority of the civilized peoples of the earth. . . . But where did this ancient people live? That is the so-called 'Aryan Question,' which after nearly a century of philological investigation remains still a question, although it is perhaps in process of solution. [See also ARYANS: Distribution; EUROPE: Introduction to historic period; Distribution of races.] . . . One of the most recent, and perhaps the most widely accepted, of these arguments rests upon the assumption of close contact between early Indo-European and Semitic civilizations. The evidence consists mainly of a mingling in prehistoric times of the Indo-European-decimal system and the Babylonian duodecimal or sexagesimal system of numerals. . . . Such elements are widespread in Indo-European speech. The claim is that these facts tend to prove that the Indo-Europeans once lived in or near Babylonian territory and colored their decimal system with its duodecimal system. It is certain that the Indo-European system of numerals was originally, and in all essentials still is, decimal; and it is very probable indeed that the duodecimal admixture is in some way of Babylonian origin. But it is not necessary to assume therefore that the Indo-Europeans must have lived near Babylonia. . . . Indeed, if the Indo-Europeans had ever lived near Mesopotamia in immediate contact with so highly developed and so vigorous a material civilization as the Babylonian, we should expect vastly more Semitic influence upon Indo-European than could possibly be indicated by the rather casual evidences that have been preserved. Furthermore, duodecimal notation appears also in the speech of a non-Indo-European, Finno-Ugrian people in northern Europe and among the Chinese in eastern Asia. That the Chinese or the Finns ever lived near Babylon is unthinkable. The duodecimal argument is a general one, but many scholars have presented claims in behalf of rather particular localities in Asia. Some have laid the home of the Indo-Europeans north of Afghanistan between the Oxus and the Jaxartes rivers, or between the Oxus and the Hindu-Kush Mountains; others have argued for the plateau of Pamir, 'the Roof of the World'; others for Armenia; others for the region north and south of the Caucasus; and still others for the Aralo-Caspian steppe. Most of these special claims have been either disproved or rendered exceedingly improbable. Modern philological research attacks the problem by somewhat different methods from those that were used in the past. First, it reaches a degree of detachment by showing that the Asiatic hypothesis rests upon mere tradition and upon a number of more or less scientific arguments, most of which have faded away in the light of scholarly investigation. Next, it adopts as a principle of method the process of elimination. Many earlier writers erred: (a) In arguing *ab initio* and with special pleading for this or that restricted area, without sufficient regard to the various probabilities of the other parts of the Indo-European field; (b) In basing final conclusions upon one or two quite specific and isolated pieces of evidence. In all likelihood the case never will be decided on the testimony of a single witness or the presentation of a single fact, however material it may be, but a conclusion can, it seems now, be made exceedingly probable through the *preponderance of evidence*. Preponderance of evidence is best obtained by starting, not with a point, but with the entire Indo-European territory, eliminating the parts from

which the Indo-Europeans could not possibly have come, and then searching for the balance of probability in an effort to limit still further their original home. . . . A word found in only two or three Indo-European languages is likely to be original Indo-European if those languages are widely separated geographically. The majority of borrowings can be traced and checked by historical, cultural, or purely phonetic criteria. The giving of an old name to a new thing is not a common process. Even with modern transportation the number of imported products is always small in proportion to the number of native products. And the language of Neolithic man was, for the most part, restricted to the physical world immediately about him. Such evidence as that drawn from vocabulary is cumulative. If a number of Indo-European languages had a word derived in each case from the same stem, and if the literature of each language indicated that the word in that language signified, for example, the same, or approximately the same, animal as in the other languages, and if the animal were familiar enough to make borrowing unlikely, then it would be absurd to deny the probability that the ancient Indo-Europeans knew that animal. And if the floral and faunal words that are more or less common Indo-European property are predominantly those of the temperate rather than the torrid zone, it is only reasonable to suppose that the Indo-Europeans came from the temperate zone. And certainly the flora and fauna of the Indo-Europeans indicate Europe rather than Asia as their original home."—H. H. Bender, *Aryan question: Did the languages of Europe come from Asia?* (Princeton Lectures, Oct., 1921).—"Professor Bender, after eliminating for ethnological, archeological or philological reasons the rest of Europe, inclines to think that the balance of probability leans toward 'the great plain of Central and Southeastern Europe, which embraces, roughly, the present Poland, Lithuania, Ukraine and Russia south and west of the Volga. . . . Almost every condition is satisfied by the conception of the Indo-Europeans as inhabiting some part of this plain as late as 3000 or 2500 B. C. (they knew at least one metal before the dispersion, certainly copper), early differentiated linguistically into distinct groups and covering a vast territory, a pastoral people just at the beginning of agriculture, but still nomadic enough to change their habitat freely under changing economic or political conditions. In that great plain the Lithuanians, whose actual speech keeps more evidence of the Aryan foretime than any other, seem to have dwelt in their 'present location for at least 5,000 years, which would approximate the duration of the Indo-European period, so far as it is known. There is probably no other part of Indo-European territory for which there is so much evidence against autochthonous, non-Indo-European predecessors.' Many will believe and many doubt. At least the Poles will never admit this precedence of the Lithuanians."—*New York Times*, Dec. 4, 1921.

11. Geographical boundaries of language.—Monosyllabic, agglutinative and inflected forms of speech.—Ancient European dialects.—Fusion into Romance, Germanic and Slavonic groups.—Racial characteristics of language.—"From east to west on the Eurasian land mass the three main forms of language occupy strictly geographical settings. Monosyllabic Chinese lies rigid and lifeless within its barriers of high mountains and vast seas. The static condition of Chinese civilization is reflected in the changeless form of its language. A new idea requires a new word and a corresponding symbol. In the wild and wide-stretching

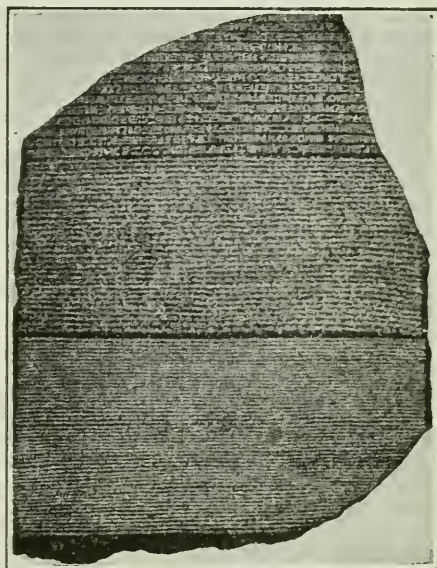
steppes of Siberia, communication of thought or feeling is maintained through the medium of agglutinative forms of speech. Grammatically, this marks an improvement over the monosyllabic language. In the case considered here it expresses the restlessness and mobility of steppe life. At the same time inferiority of civilization is revealed by poverty of ideas and consequently of words. In the west, however, whether we consider western Asia or Europe, we deal with the world's best nursery of civilization. In those regions are found the highly inflected and flexible languages of the Aryan and Semitic families. The grammar of these languages—a mere adaptation to superior requirements of order and method—renders them particularly responsive to the constant improvement in thought which characterizes western countries. Aryan languages are spoken all the way from northern India to Europe's westernmost confines. This territory comprises the western extension of the central belt of high Eurasian mountains together with its fringing lowlands. In its elevated portion it is the domain of the Alpine race and of the Nordic in its depressed northern border. On the other hand, that portion of the northern Eurasian grasslands which extends into Europe forms part of the area of Uralo-Altaic languages.”—L. Dominian, *Frontiers of language and nationality in Europe*, p. 7.—“Just as the Aryans seem to have crushed out or absorbed all the former peoples of the countries which they invaded and upon whom they imposed their speech, so it has generally happened that the language of the capital has triumphed over all others. *Greek* means the language of Athens, *Latin* that of Rome. In France, of later times, the dialect spoken in the neighbourhood of Paris became the literary language of the country, owing to the accident that the Capets fixed their capital at Paris, and the same thing happened in England when William I chose London as his capital, and it would seem that in each case that dialect has survived which has absorbed most foreign elements. Although for beauty and richness Latin cannot be compared with Greek, the former is in a way of more importance to Europe generally because it has become the parent of so many daughter languages, while Greek has given birth to modern Greek [Romaic] only. These Latin descendants are generally called the *Romance Languages*, which we know separately as *Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and Roumanian*. When the Romans conquered a country or a tribe, they left there a colony of Romans, the organisation of which was Roman, the speech Roman, so that the natives had to learn a certain amount of Latin to get on at all. This Latin, however, which gradually mingled with and, in large part, replaced the various native dialects, was not the classical Latin of Cicero and Horace, but the everyday speech of the soldiers, and of the merchants who soon followed when the country had once been opened up. This everyday or *Popular Latin*, as it is called, thus became the speech of all the countries where Rome was mistress, and these daughter languages resemble their mother in varying degrees, as they came into closer or more distant connection with Rome itself. Thus Italian is, as we should expect, the Romance language most like Latin; then follow Spanish and Portuguese. Provençal spoken in the south of France, colonised by the Romans and called by them ‘*The Province*’; and the farthest off, French. [See FRANCE: Language; FRENCH LITERATURE: 5th-15th centuries.] Yet another branch of this large family is the Celtic group, which includes *British*, which survived as Cornish but may now be called ‘dead.’ . . . Another British survival,

Cymric or Welsh, is better preserved and great efforts have been made of late years to encourage the study of this language by means of a large national gathering, the Eisteddfod, held every year, at which prizes are awarded for the best Welsh poem and for the encouragement of Welsh music and literature and the preservation of the national language and customs. There are still to be met Welsh peasants who understand little English, and in Wales church services are held every Sunday in Cymric. A sister speech of Cornish and Welsh is *Breton*, the language of Brittany, and that the two languages have much in common, though separated by the sea, is proved by the fact that the onion-sellers who come over each year from Brittany to Wales can easily understand and be understood in Wales. *Manx*, or the language of the Isle of Man, is fast dying out, being kept alive only in the speech of the peasants, as is the case with *Gaelic* or Scotch, but *Erse* or Irish is more fortunate, for, as in the case of Welsh, great efforts have been made of late years to preserve the national language of Ireland. [See also CELTS: Celtic language.] Last, but not least, comes the group to which our language belongs, the Teutonic, including besides *English, the German, Dutch, and Scandinavian* tongues. *German*, or properly speaking *High German*, is of course the language of a large part of Austria as well as of Germany, whereas *Low German* is a name given to the subdivision of this family which includes English, Dutch, and Frisian, the Low German of North Germany. The Scandinavian group comprises the languages of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Iceland, and is interesting as being the language of many of our ancestors, the Vikings, and that in which the old *Sagas* or tales of the northern heroes were written. Of Gothic, the old language of the Goths, we do not know much, though what we do know is of great importance in the early history of English. The manuscripts of greatest value to philologists are those of Ulphilas, bishop of the Goths, who translated into Gothic probably the whole of the New Testament and portions of the Old, though only parts of his work have been preserved.”—A. Chaplin, *Romance of language*, pp. 21-25.—Our early ancestors “did not always stay at home on their plain, wherever it was, but gradually migrated to the neighbouring countries, and from there still farther afield, gradually mixing with other peoples, borrowing words from them, living different lives under different conditions and so becoming less and less like the people they had left at home. And, as the people altered in their way of living and habits, so their language changed—foreign words were adopted, new names were coined to fit the new occupations and objects of a different life, so that by degrees the language they spoke would hardly be recognised as that of their fathers. Now this change took place very slowly and not in one direction only, but in many, so that a number of variations or dialects of the Mother Tongue grew up, not, at first, very different from their parent, and the people from one part of a county could understand the speech of people from other parts. In some lands, however, as in Greece, where the country is cut up naturally into valleys, the people in one valley would gradually come to speak somewhat differently from those in other valleys whom they seldom, if ever, met because of the difficulties of crossing the mountains that divided them. As time went on, the differences between the speech of one valley and another became more and more marked, until, by the time some of the people migrated to another country, they spoke a language very different from that of their

fathers."—*Ibid.*, pp. 11, 13-14.—"Language areas, in common with many other facts of geography, have been largely determined by the character of the surface or climate. Occurrences such as the extension of Polish speech to the Carpathian barrier or the restriction of Flemish to the lowland of northwestern central Europe, are not the work of mere chance. An investigation of linguistic boundaries, therefore, implies recognition of the selective influence of surface features. But the influence of region upon expansion or confinement of language is far from absolute."—L. Dominian, *Frontiers of language and nationality in Europe*, pp. 2-3.

12. Ancient Egyptian language recovered.—Riddle of Rosetta Stone.—Hieroglyphic and Demotic.—Coptic and its dialects.—For about 2,000 years the language of ancient Egypt had been literally dead, not in the sense that ancient Greek, Latin, Sanskrit or Hebrew are termed "dead" languages. Ever since these four ceased to be "living" or spoken tongues, there have at all times been numerous scholars who were more or less thoroughly acquainted with them. But for two milleniums no living person could claim the slightest knowledge of the language spoken in the days of the Pharaohs; that secret lay buried, apparently forever, in the plentifully existent but undecipherable hieroglyphics which adorned the historic monuments of ancient Egypt. In 1798 some of Napoleon's soldiers, digging near the Rosetta mouth of the Nile, unearthed a piece of black basalt, eleven inches thick, three feet nine inches long and two feet four and a half inches wide. It bore three equivalent inscriptions—in hieroglyphic, demotic and Greek characters. The stone was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Alexandria and was placed in the British Museum in 1801. "The trustees of the British Museum recognized that the problem of the Rosetta stone was one on which the scientists of the world might well exhaust their ingenuity, and they promptly published to the world a carefully lithographed copy of the entire inscription, so that foreign scholarship had equal opportunity with British to try to solve the riddle. How difficult a riddle it was, even with the key in hand, is illustrated by the fact that, though scholars of all nations brought their ingenuity to bear upon it, nothing more was accomplished for a dozen years than to give authority to three or four guesses regarding the nature of the upper inscriptions, which, as it afterwards proved, were quite incorrect and altogether misleading. This in itself is sufficient to show that ordinary scholarship might have studied the Rosetta stone till the end of time without getting far on the track of its secrets. The key was there, but to apply it required the inspired insight—that is to say, the shrewd guessing power—of genius. The man who undertook the task had perhaps the keenest scientific imagination and the most versatile profundity of knowledge of his generation—one is tempted to say, of all generations. For he was none other than the extraordinary Dr. Thomas Young, the demonstrator of the vibratory nature of light. Young had his attention called to the Rosetta stone by accident, and his usual rapacity for knowledge at once led him to speculate as to the possible aid this tri-lingual inscription might give in the solution of Egyptian problems. Resolving at once to attempt the solution himself, he set to work to learn Coptic, which was rightly believed to represent the nearest existing approach to the ancient Egyptian language. His amazing facility in the acquisition of languages stood him

in such good stead that within a year of his first efforts he had mastered Coptic, had assured himself that the ancient Egyptian language was really similar to it, and had even made a tentative attempt at the translation of the Egyptian scroll. His results were only tentative, to be sure. Yet they constituted the very beginnings of our knowledge regarding the meaning of hieroglyphics. Just how far they carried, has been a subject of ardent controversy ever since. Not that there is any doubt about the specific facts; what is questioned is the exact importance of these facts. For it is undeniable that Young did not complete and perfect the discovery, and, as always in such matters, there is opportunity for difference of opinion as to the share of credit due to each of the workers who entered into the discovery. Young's specific discoveries were these: (1) that many of the pictures of the hieroglyphics stand for the names of the objects actually delineated; (2) that



ROSETTA STONE

(Original in the British Museum, London)

other pictures are sometimes only symbolic; (3) that plural numbers are represented by repetition; (4) that numerals are represented by dashes; (5) that hieroglyphics may read either from the right or from the left, but always from the direction in which the animals and human figures face; (6) that proper names are surrounded by a graven oval ring, making what he called a cartouche; (7) that the cartouches of the preserved portion of the Rosetta stone stand for Ptolemy alone; (8) that the presence of a female figure after such cartouches, in other inscriptions, always denotes the female sex; (9) that within the cartouches the hieroglyphic symbols have a positively phonetic value, either alphabetic or syllabic, and (10) that several different characters may have the same phonetic value. Just what these phonetic values are, Dr. Young pointed out in the case of fourteen characters, representing nine sounds, six of which are accepted to-day as correctly representing the letters to which he ascribed them, and the three others as being correct regarding their essential or consonantal element. It is clear, therefore, that he was on the right track thus far, and on the

very verge of complete discovery. But, unfortunately, he failed to take the next step, which would have been to realise that the phonetic values given to the characters within the cartouches were often ascribed to them also when used in the general text of an inscription; in other words, that the use of an alphabet was not confined to proper names. This was the great secret which Young missed, but which his French successor, Jean François Champollion, working on the foundation that Young had laid, was enabled to ferret out. Young's initial studies of the Rosetta stone were made in 1814; his later publications bore date of 1819. Champollion's first announcement of results came in 1822; his second and more important one in 1824. By this time, through study of the cartouches of other inscriptions, he had made out almost the complete alphabet, and the 'Riddle of the Sphinx' was practically solved."—H. S. Williams, *History of the art of writing*.—See also ROSETTA STONE.—"Hieroglyphic and Coptic literature together allow the Egyptian language to be investigated through a compass of over four thousand years. This is probably the only instance of so lasting a vitality all over the earth,—a ἀπαξ λεγόμενον of philology. Chinese, and even part of Hindoo literature, may reach up nearly to the same age; but Chinese dates are still unexplored by European science, and Hindoo chronology evinces most strongly the characteristics of mythological confusion. Christianity and Christian literature were only transient phenomena in Egypt. When the Arabs conquered the country, the bulk of the inhabitants, being forced to turn Mussulmans, gradually forgot their native tongue. The reading and copying of religious books remaining, however, an obligatory rule in the Christian monasteries, lower Egypt, by many MSS. of the tenth century, is proved not to have lost its language before the beginning of the eleventh. Arabic translations added to Coptic MSS. were introduced from and after this period. In Upper Egypt, according to the Arabian Macrizi's 'History of the Copts,' every man spoke Egyptian in the fifteenth century; in the sixteenth, Leo Africanus tells us, it had disappeared. At the present time Arabic is the exclusive idiom of Egypt, spoken by a Mahometan population of mixed Egyptian, Arabian, Kurdish, Turkish, and Berber blood. By the side of this hybrid race about half a million remain of the ancient and unmixed Egyptian stock. Called Copts, and adhering to monophysitic Christianity to this day, they still mechanically recite prayers in the venerable idiom of their ancestors; but they have long ceased to speak, and at present they hardly understand, a single word of their ancient tongue. Long ago the native name of Egypt, *Chemi*, the black, has given way to the Arabic denomination of 'Kebt.' Like the Greek Αἴγυπτος, however, 'Kebt' is explained as a foreign and abbreviated form of an indigenous name, older, or at least more sacred, than 'Chemi': 'Kahi ptah,' country of Ptah, or land of the Spirit to whom Egypt was specially consecrated. [See also EGYPT: Names.] With the introduction of Christianity the old and autochthonal alphabet of the country began to change. It is not easily determined when the hieroglyphical shorthand was utterly discontinued, and the Greek letters forming the Coptic alphabet became exclusively prevalent. As the Egyptian saint, St. Antonius, who lived about the middle of the third century, and did not understand any language but Egyptian, knew the contents of the Holy Scriptures perfectly well, these must have been translated at the beginning of

the third century at the latest. But although the translation of the Bible involves the introduction of the Greek alphabet, it does not follow that the Demotic form of the hieroglyphic characters was not preserved with it for a while. When Demotic died at last, six hieroglyphical signs, received into the Coptic alphabet to denote as many peculiar Egyptian sounds, were the only trace left of the local and primitive writing, from which neighbours had originally borrowed their letters. There is a moral in this. The more advanced nations, after the lapse of many centuries gratefully returning the gift of the more ancient but less progressive race, the highly-developed Greek alphabet was bestowed upon Egypt a thousand years after the primitive Egyptian characters, in their modified Phœnician form, first initiated Hellenes into the arts of reading and writing. The memorable six Egyptian characters preserved in Coptic, under the pictures of a garden, a snake, a triangle with stick and crescent, an eagle, a crocodile's tail, and a basket, respectively represent *sh*, *f*, *kh*, *h*, *dj*, *tsh*. There is a seventh sign for the syllable *ti*. The Coptic separates into slightly differing dialects: the Thebanic or Sahidic of Upper Egypt, the Memphitic of Lower Egypt, and the Bashmuric, so called from a region in the Delta. The Bashmuric being the most degraded, and the Sahidic, both locally and philologically, the more remote, the Memphitic is frequently called Coptic, to the exclusion of the others. Similarity of inflections is more surely illustrative of international relations than likeness of roots. Judging by the inflectional standard, Coptic is found to approach the Semitic much more closely than the Indo-Germanic in the nature and arrangement of its forms. In certain particulars justly considered to bear a nearly deciding witness to original unity, Coptic is all but identical with Hebrew, Arabic, and Ethiopian."—C. Abel, *Linguistic essays*, pp. 207-209.—See also HAMITES, HAMITIC LANGUAGES; LIBYANS.

13. Persian cuneiform inscription of Behistun.—Ancient Persian language revived.—Rawlinson's solution.—Near the city of Kermanshah, in Western Persia, there stands a massive bluff known as the rock of Behistun. (See BEHISTUN, ROCK OF.) Three hundred feet above the ground, on a polished surface, there is a sculptured bas-relief representing Darius with a string of chained captives taken in war. The tableau is surrounded by columns of cuneiform writing, repeating the same story in three different languages, those of Persia, Assyria and Elam (Susiana). This remarkable monument was scaled in 1835 by the British general, Sir Henry Rawlinson, who at great personal risk made a paper cast of about half the inscription. He returned to the task in 1848 and took a copy of all the remaining parts. "The key to the value of the Behistun inscription lies in the fact that its third language is ancient Persian. It appears that the ancient Persians had adopted the cuneiform character from their western neighbours, the Assyrians, but in so doing had made one of those essential modifications and improvements which are scarcely possible to accomplish except in the transition from one race to another. Instead of building with the arrow-heads a multitude of syllabic characters, including many homophones, as had been, and continued to be, the custom of the Assyrians, the Persians selected a few of these characters, and ascribed to them phonetic values that were almost purely alphabetical. In a word, while retaining the wedge as the basal stroke of their script, they developed an alphabet; making that last wonderful analysis

of phonetic sounds which even to this day has escaped the Chinese, which the Egyptians had only partially effected and which the Phœnicians were accredited by the Greeks with having introduced into the western world. In addition to this all-essential step, the Persians had introduced the minor, but highly convenient, custom of separating the words of a sentence from one another by a particular mark, differing in this regard not only from the Assyrians and the Egyptians, but from the early Greek scribes as well. Thanks to these simplifications, the old Persian language has been practically restored about the beginning of the nineteenth century, through the efforts of the German, Grotefend; and further advances in it were made just at this time by Burnouf in France, and Lassen in Germany, as well as by Rawlinson himself, who largely solved the problem of the Persian alphabet independently. So the Persian portion of the Behistun inscription could at least be partially deciphered. This, in itself, however, would have been no very great aid towards the restoration of the languages of the other portions, had it not chanced fortunately that the inscription is sprinkled with proper names. Now, proper names, generally speaking, are not translated from one language to another, but transliterated as nearly as the genius of the language will permit. It was the fact that the Greek word 'Ptolemaios' was transliterated on the Rosetta stone, that gave the first clew to the sounds of the Egyptian characters. Had the upper part of the Rosetta stone been preserved, on which, originally, there were several other names, Young would not have halted where he did in his decipherment. But fortune, which had been at once so kind, and so tantalising in the case of the Rosetta stone, had dealt more gently with the Behistun inscription; for no fewer than ninety proper names were preserved in the Persian portion, and duplicated, in another character, in the Assyrian inscription. A study of these gave a clew to the sounds of the Assyrian characters. The decipherment of this character, however, even with this aid, proved enormously difficult, for it was soon evident that here it was no longer a question of a nearly perfect alphabet of a few characters, but a syllabary of several hundred characters, including many homophones, or different forms for representing the same sound. But with the Persian translation for a guide on the one hand, and the Semitic languages, to which family the Assyrian belonged, on the other, the appalling task was gradually accomplished, the leading investigators being General Rawlinson, Professor Hincks, and Mr. Fox Talbot, in England; Professor Jules Oppert in Paris; and Professor Eberhard Schrader in Germany; though a host of other scholars soon entered the field. This great linguistic feat was accomplished about the middle of the [19th] century. But so great a feat was it, that many scholars of the highest standing, including Ernest Renan in France, and Sir George Cornwall Lewis in England, declined at first to accept the results, contending that the Assyriologists had merely deceived themselves, by creating an arbitrary language. The matter was put to the test in 1855, at the suggestion of Mr. Fox Talbot, when four scholars, one being Mr. Talbot himself, and the others General Rawlinson, Professor Hincks, and Professor Oppert, laid before the Royal Asiatic Society their independent translations of an hitherto untranslated Assyrian text. A committee of the society, including England's greatest historian of the century, George Grote, broke the seals of the four translations, and reported that they found them unequivocally in

accord as regards their main purport, and even surprisingly uniform as regards the phraseology of certain passages; in short, as closely similar as translations from the obscure texts of any difficult language ever are. This decision gave the work of Assyriologists an official status, so to say, and the reliability of their method has never since been in question. Thus it has come about that these inscribed bricks from the palace of Asshurbanapal, which, when the first of them was discovered, were as meaningless as so many black slabs, have been made to deliver up their message."—H. S. Williams, *History of the art of writing, text to plate XXI.*

14. Pahlavi or Pehlevi.—Anquetil-Duperron's translation of the Zend-Avesta.—Burnouf's creation of Avesta philology.—"However loosely the term Pahlavi may have been formerly applied, it has long been practically restricted to the written language of Persia during the Sasanian dynasty, and to the literature of that period and a short time after, of which some fragments have been preserved by the Parsis, in a character resembling that of the Avesta, but very deficient in distinct letters. These Pahlavi writings are of a very peculiar character: instead of presenting us with a pure Iranian dialect (as might be expected in the language of a period commencing with the purely Iranian ancient Persian, and ending with the nearly equally pure Iranian language of Firdausi), it exhibits a large mixture of Semitic words, which increases as we trace it further back, so that the earliest inscriptions of the Sasanian dynasty may be described as being written in a Semitic language, with some admixture of Iranian words, and a prevailing Iranian construction. . . . Since the Mohammedan conquest of Persia, the language has become greatly mixed with Semitic words from the Arabic, but this Semitic admixture is of a totally different character to that we find in Pahlavi. The Arabic element in modern Persian consists chiefly of substantives and adjectives, referring to religion, literature, or science; few particles or verbs have been adopted, except when whole phrases have been borrowed; in fact, the Arabic words, although very numerous, are evidently borrowed from a foreign language. The Semitic element in Pahlavi writings, on the contrary, comprises nearly all kinds of words which are not Arabic in modern Persia; almost all pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and common verbs, many adverbs and substantives in frequent use, the first ten numerals, but very few adjectives, are Semitic; while nearly every Arabic word in modern Persian would be represented by an Iranian one in Pahlavi writings. . . . The explanation of this extraordinary compound writing fundamentally Semitic in its words and Iranian in its construction, is that it never literally represented the spoken language of any nation. The Iranians must have inherited their writing from a Semitic people, and although they were acquainted with the separate sounds of each of the letters, they preferred transferring the Semitic words bodily, so as to represent the same ideas in their own Iranian language, and each Semitic word, so transferred, was merely an ideogram, and would be read with the sound of the corresponding Iranian words, without reference to the sounds of the letters composing it; thus the Persians wrote the old Semitic word *malkû*, 'king,' but they pronounced it *shâh*."—M. Haug, *Essays on the sacred language, writings, and religion of the Parsis* (E. W. West, ed.), pp. 81-83.—"The first scholar who made Europeans acquainted with the contents of the sacred books of the

Parsis was the celebrated Frenchman, Anquetil-Duperron. . . . He published (in 1771) . . . in French, *Zend-Avesta, the work of Zoroaster, containing the theological, physical, and moral ideas of this lawgiver, the ceremonies of the divine service which he established, and several important traits respecting the ancient history of the Persians, translated into French from the Zend original, with Notes and several Treatises for illustrating the matters contained in it*, by Anquetil Duperron, 2 vols. 4to. This groundwork for Avesta studies in Europe created an immense sensation when it was published. . . . In these languages [the Avesta and Pahlavi] there are no Arabic words whatever; the Avesta is written in a purely Aryan dialect, the elder sister of Sanskrit, as can be easily seen on comparing it with the language of the Veda; in Pahlavi there are many Chaldee, but no Arabic words, and the greater part of the language has a close connection with modern Persian. . . . Inquiries into the real nature of the Avesta and Pahlavi languages were not made until more than fifty years after Anquetil's work had appeared. The first who attempted to study this difficult subject was the Great Danish scholar Rask, who had himself been in Bombay, and had purchased many valuable Avesta and Pahlavi manuscripts, which are now deposited in the University Library at Copenhagen. He wrote in 1826 a pamphlet 'On the Age and Genuineness of the Zend Language.' In this little book he proved the close affinity of the language of the Zend-Avesta to Sanskrit. This proof was sufficient to remove whatever doubts might have been entertained as to the genuineness of the Avesta language. . . . [However], Rask himself cannot be considered as one of the founders of Avesta philology. This honour was also reserved for a Frenchman. The first who laid the foundation of a real Avesta philology was Eugene Burnouf, Professor of Sanskrit at the Collège de France at Paris, one of the most gifted and talented scholars of his time. . . . He applied his sound and critical knowledge of it to the discovery of the rudiments of Avesta grammar and etymology; and his laborious researches were crowned with success."—*Ibid.*, pp. 18, 20-22.—See also ZOROASTRIANS.

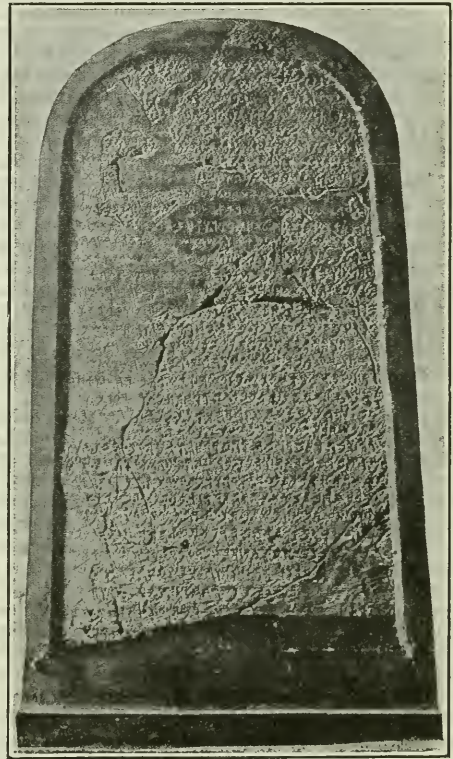
15. Semitic languages.—Phœnician, Hebrew, Syrian and Chaldean.—Aramaic.—Borrowings from Arabic, Persian, Turkish and Hindustani.—Arabic.—"The Phœnicians, inhabiting Tyre, Sidon, and the adjacent parts of the Mediterranean coast, and speaking a dialect so nearly akin with the Hebrew that its scanty remains are read with no great difficulty by the aid of that language, have been wont to be accounted as the first to give the [Semitic] race prominence in general history. The part which they played was of the most honorable and useful character. Their commercial enterprise widely extended the limits of geographical knowledge, and bound together distant peoples by the ties of mutual helpfulness. . . . A significant indication of the far-reaching and beneficent nature of their activity is to be seen in the fact that a large portion of the world's alphabets, including many of those which have the widest range, and have been used by the most cultivated nations, come from the Phœnician alphabet as their ultimate source. . . . Phœnicia has left no literature. . . . The coffin of one of the kings of Sidon, found but a few years since, presents in its detailed inscription a fuller view of the Phœnician tongue than is derivable from all its other known records. A few inscriptions, and a mutilated and obscure fragment in a play of the Roman poet Plautus, whereof the scene is laid

in Carthage, are the only relics left us of the idiom of that queenly city."—W. D. Whitney, *Language and the study of language*, pp. 297-298.—"Former beliefs as to Phœnician influence on Greek culture in its infancy, and, generally, as to the importance of the part played by the Phœnicians in the development of civilization throughout the Mediterranean world, have been modified by the archaeological discoveries of late years. . . . It is now doubted, and more than doubted, that the Phœnicians were the inventors, as long supposed, of the alphabetical system from which the alphabets of so many ancient and modern languages were derived."—J. N. Larned, *Seventy centuries of the life of mankind*, v. 1, p. 82.—"Last among the Asiatic languages, we come to the Semitic, so called because in the genealogies of the Genesis the Communities which speak them are mostly described as descendants of Shem. They fill the immense, but barren and thinly-populated peninsula of Arabia, with its northern borderlands, of Mesopotamia and Syria and Palestine, and with a district in Abyssinia, lying opposite its southwest corner. The northern division is composed of the Assyrian and Babylonian, the Canaanitic dialects (chief among them the Hebrew and Phœnician), and the Syrian, or Aramaic; the southern division contains the Arabic and Abyssinian dialects. This is their ancient territory: the Phœnician was carried to its colonies, and, as Carthaginian, might perhaps have become the tongue of Mediterranean civilization, but that the long struggle for supremacy ended with the complete overthrow of Carthage by Rome; the Hebrew, replaced in vernacular use, even in its own home, four centuries before Christ, by the Syrian (Chaldee, Aramaic), has led ever since the artificial life of a learned language, scattered among the civilized nations: the Arabic, as the sacred dialect of a conquering people and religion, has been carried, since the seventh century, over a part of the world comparable with that which the Latin came finally to occupy; it is the speech of the whole northern border of Africa; it has crowded out the other Semitic branches, and has filled with its words the Persian, Turkish, and Hindustani, and to a less extent the Malay and Spanish vocabularies. It has given birth, however, to no such group of independent derived languages as the Latin can show. The ancient Hebrew literature is familiar to us far beyond the rest, being our 'Bible'; its earliest parts go back into the second thousand years before Christ. . . . A very recently discovered Moabite tablet (of 900 B.C.) gives us a specimen of another ancient Canaanitic dialect, almost identical with Hebrew. The Aramaic has an abundant Greco-Christian literature, beginning from the second century, besides its share in the Talmudic writings. The Assyrian has a fragmentary literature in the inscriptions and tablets of Ninevah and Babylon, from a period beyond that of the earliest Hebrew. The Arabic begins its record mainly with the rise of Islam; since that time it is one of the richest literatures in the world. In southwest Arabia prevailed a very different body of dialects, usually styled Himyaritic, now preserved only in the jealously-guarded remains of an earlier civilization. With the Himyaritic is most nearly akin the Abyssinian group, which, in two principal literary dialects, the earlier Geëz or Ethiopic and the later Amharic, has a considerable literature, beginning in the fourth century. The Semitic family of languages and races is, after the Indo-European, by far the most prominent in the history of the world. . . . Semitic speech stands more alone in the world than any other, than even the nakedly isolating

Chinese or the indefinitely synthetic American. . . . [It] contains two characteristics—the trilitrality of the roots and their inflection by internal change, by variation of vowel—which belong to it alone.”—W. D. Whitney, *Life and growth of language*, pp. 246-248.—See also SEMITIC LITERATURE; JEWS: Language, etc.; MOABITES.—“The oldest monuments belonging to the southern or Arabian branch of Semitic speech are the inscriptions discovered in the southwestern corner of the great peninsula. They represent a language very different from the classical Arabic, as the character and civilization of the Sabæans and Himyarites, from whom they come, appear to have been very unlike those of the Arabs of the desert. Their exact period is hitherto unknown. Language and civilization have alike been almost wholly supplanted, since the rise of Islamism, by the conquering Arabic, only obscure relics of them being left in the Ekhili and other existing idioms of the south. Most nearly akin with the Himyaritic is the speech of the neighbouring region of Africa, which was unquestionably peopled from southern Arabia, by emigration across the Red Sea. The ancient tongue of Abyssinia, the Ethiopic or Geëz, has a literature, wholly of Christian origin and content, coming down from the fourth century of our era: its earliest monument is a version of the Bible. As a cultivated and current language, it has been gradually crowded out of use during the past six centuries by the Amharic, another dialect of the same stock, but of a more corrupt and barbarous character.”—W. D. Whitney, *Language and the study of language*, p. 299.

16.—Modern Indian languages.—Dravidian group.—Annamese and Burmese.—“Indian Society [is] minutely and antagonistically subdivided by differences not only of religion, but of breed. Across these differences lie others, of language and of dress, which, while smoothing in no way the more vital distinctions, give a uniform stamp to the people of a locality. Excluding the hill tribes, thirteen distinct languages are spoken, each with a distinct written character of its own. Eight of them are connected with Sanskrit—that is to say, Sanskrit grew as a classical development out of an early form of one of them. *Hindi* is the most widely spoken. It occupies the Indo-Gangetic plain, apart from its western and eastern extremities, and extends down the centre of the peninsula almost as far as Nagpur. It is used, with dialectic variations, by about 125 millions. Some of its dialects are of independent origin. But throughout this tract colloquial Hindustani is more or less understood. At the western end of the Indo-Gangetic plain, and in Sind, *Lahnda* is spoken by eight millions; at its eastern end *Bengali*, with *Assamese* (akin to Bengali), by fifty-two millions. In the upper portion of the peninsula *Uriya*, on the north-eastern coast, is the language of eleven millions; crossing westwards, *Mahratti*, *Gujarati* and *Rajasthani* are spoken respectively by nineteen, eleven, and twelve millions. On their frontiers these eight languages shade insensibly one into the other in village speech; but a knowledge of one of them would leave the others quite unintelligible. The area of the peninsula further south is divided between four languages which are not related to Sanskrit, *Telugu* (twenty-one millions) and *Tamil* (seventeen millions), towards the east, and *Kanarese* (eleven millions) and *Malayalam* [or Malayalam] (seven millions) on the west. Along the Afghan frontier—*Pushtu*—the language of Afghanistan, is spoken. It is akin to Persian. The language of Burma (spoken by eight millions) belongs to the

Tibetan family. The Mohammedan community of Upper India use Hindustani, a form of Hindi that embellishes its vocabulary by borrowing from Persian. They write this language in the Arabic script. Elsewhere Mohammedans use the tongue of their locality in speaking and writing; but by men of any education Hindustani is more or less understood.”—B. Fuller, *Empire of India*, pp. 135-136.—It has been claimed that the Tamulian or Dravidian group of languages belongs to the Scythian family. [See also DRAVIDIAN RACES.] “Throughout nearly the whole Dekhan [Deccan], these older races still form the predominant population, and speak and write their own languages. Chief among the latter are the Tamil, occupying the south-eastern extremity of the peninsula, along with most of the island of Ceylon; the Telinga



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or Telugu, is spoken over a yet more extensive region lying north of this; the Canarese, extending from the interior border of the Tamil and Telugu westward almost to the coast; the Malayam or Malabar, covering a narrow strip of the south-western coast, from Cape Comorin northwards; and the Tulu, filling a still more restricted area to the north of the Malayalam. All these are cultivated tongues, and possess written literatures, of greater or less extent and antiquity; that of the Tamil is the most important and the oldest, parts of it appearing to date back as far as the eighth or ninth century of our era; nothing in Telugu is earlier than the twelfth. The Dravidian races, however, have derived their religion, their polity, and their culture, from the superior race to the north of them, the Hindus; their alphabets are of Hindu descent; their philosophical and scientific terms are borrowed from the rich stores of the Sanskrit; their literary works are in no small

part translations or imitations of Sanskrit authors. . . . The Dravidian languages are not only, like the Scythian, of a generally agglutinate character, but their style of agglutinative structure is sufficiently accordant with that of the Scythian tongues to permit of their being ranked in the same family, provided that material evidence of the relationship, of a sufficiently distinct and unequivocal character, shall also be discovered."—W. D. Whitney, *Language and the study of language*, pp. 326-327.—The Dravidian group comprises the following languages: 1. Tamil; 2. Telugu; 3. Kanna-
re; 4. Malayalam; 5. Tulu; 6. Kudagu; 7. Toda; 8. Kota; 9. Khond; 10. Gond; 11. Oraon; 12. Rajmahali (or Rajmuhali); 13. Keikadi; 14. Yerukala. "The principal nations of Farther India are the Annamese or Cochin-Chinese, the Siamese, and the Burmese; tribes of inferior numbers, civilization, and importance are the Kwanto, Cambodians, Peguans, Karens, and others. Annamese culture is of Chinese origin; the races of Siam and Burmah emerge from obscurity as they receive knowledge, letters and religion (Buddhism) together from India. Their languages are, like the Chinese, monosyllabic and isolating; but they are as much inferior to that tongue in distinctness of construction and precision of expression as the people that speak them have shown themselves to be inferior to the inhabitants of China in mental activity and reach. Of indicative words, substitutes for the formative elements of more highly developed languages, they make an extended use. Such auxiliary and limiting words are in Siamese always put before, in Burmese always after, the principal root." W. D. Whitney, *Language and the study of language*, pp. 336-337.—See also INDIA: Languages and writing; HINDU LITERATURE; SANSKRIT.

17. English language.—Its antiquity.—Periods of English language.—Period of full inflection.—Early Latin influence.—Scandinavian elements.—"It is within my experience that none but very few Englishmen have the remotest conception of the antiquity of the native element of English, comprising, as it does, the most useful and necessary portion of the language. The usual error is to confuse speech with writing, and to limit the chronology of the spoken word by a consideration of the actual accidental moment when it happened to be written down. Yet there are strange exceptions. Many people are willing to concede at once that Welsh is merely a modern form of ancient British, and, consequently, that the Celtic languages are far older than the date of the existence of Julius Cæsar. According to Prof. Rhys, the oldest Welsh glosses only go back to the ninth century; let us say to about A.D. 800. At this rate, it is at once obvious that, for practical purposes, an old form of Welsh must have been spoken in Britain at least a thousand years before any of it was written down. And this is very much within the mark. When, again, we compare Welsh with Breton, Gaelic, and Irish, and note their divergences, it becomes clear that they must have taken a long time to diverge; before which era the common Celtic language required a long time for its grammatical formation. We are thus carried back into remote prehistoric times; and as a thousand years is quite an insufficient period to produce such developments as must have existed in Cæsar's time, we are very much within the mark when we say that some form of Celtic was being spoken somewhere in the time of King Solomon. We learn from comparative philology that such languages as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Germanic, Celtic, and the rest, are (as far as relates to unborrowed primitives) practically coeval. The

fact that the oldest English MS. (viz., the Epinal Glossary, about A.D. 700) is older than any Celtic glossary does not affect the question in the least, nor need we consider the fact that Greek MSS. are older than Sanskrit ones. It is, however, important to learn that a certain Greek inscription can be dated as early as B.C. 474 (Palæographical Society's 'Facsimiles'), and the Homeric poems must have been composed some centuries earlier. A still higher antiquity is assigned to the 'Rig-Veda.' From all this it follows that Sanskrit, Greek, Celtic and Germanic were already distinct languages in the days of Solomon, and it is further highly probable that, even at that early date, the Celtic and Germanic branches of the Indo-European languages must have been subdivided. We may be sure that a Germanic language essentially the same as English was then being spoken somewhere, though we may not be able to locate the tribe that spoke it. I venture to think that this way of stating the case may seem novel to many, yet the more it is considered the more readily the truth will appear. It must not be forgotten that English sometimes preserves an older form than Greek (as in the case of the word *work*, where Greek lost the initial *w*) or the Sanskrit (as in the case of *star*, where Sanskrit has lost the initial *s*). I observe that Kluge refers to the original Indo-Germanic as existing 'several milleniums' before our era, and suggests the year B.C. 2000 as the latest date for the Aryan division of dialects."—W. W. Skeat, *Antiquity of English (Notes and Queries, Sept. 24, 1898, p. 261)*.—"In the history of the language and its literature there are four periods: (1) The first, commonly spoken of the *Anglo-Saxon period*, and more recently sometimes termed *Old English* or *Oldest English*, dates from the earliest Teutonic speech in England, A.D. 1150. This was the period of full inflection. (2) The second, designated as the *Early Middle English*, during which French words in large numbers were introduced into the language. This period extended from A.D. 1150 to A.D. 1350, which should be divided into two separate periods (a) 1150 to 1250, during which the inflections were broken up; and (b) to 1350, which marked the introduction of French words. (3) The third, or Chaucerian Period, better known as the *Old English* of literature, now commonly called the *Late Middle English*, during which the Saxon and Norman and Angevin French elements were formed into a new literary language. This period extended from 1300 to 1477. (4) The fourth, which dates from 1477 is called *Modern English*, and extends to the present time. During this period foreign words in very large numbers were borrowed and have since been assimilated. The vocabularies of the French, the Spanish, the Portuguese, the Scotch, the Dutch, the Germans, the Italians, the Turks, the Hindus, the Russians, the Persians, the Chinese, the Japanese, the Arabs, and even the Sudanese have been drawn upon for terms with which to enrich the English tongue. Originally merely borrowed, many of these terms have now passed into our language as Anglicized, and it should not be a matter of surprise if this, the present so-called *Modern English* period, is eventually so divided as to mark the dates of each distinct stage of this assimilation."—F. H. Vizetelly, *Essentials of English speech and literature*, pp. 11-12.—See also ENGLISH LITERATURE: Formation; 3rd century; CELTS: Ancient Irish sagas.

"As far back as we can go in the history of the English language we can trace a gradual breaking down of the inflectional system. And even when we arrive at the earliest periods of Old

English, there are sure indications that the language is already in a transitional stage, and that the tendency towards inflectional loss in English is one that goes far back into the prehistoric periods of the language. . . . The development in the English inflectional system has, of course, been altogether unconscious, so far as the users of the language are concerned. . . . Inflections were lost because, in the practical use of the language, men tended to express themselves as briefly as possible. In English, furthermore, the language has developed freely and unrestrainedly from the earliest times down to the Modern English period. This would not have been the case, at least with literary English, if we had had a great classic literature in the Old English period, which was set up and retained as a model for all later periods, as classical Latin literature became the model for all later generations of Romans. If that had taken place our language would now probably have the comparatively elaborate Old English inflectional system, instead of the present Modern English one, which is almost completely devoid of inflection. . . . So few are the inflections of Modern English as compared with those, for example, of Latin or Greek, or even of Old English, the earlier stage of its own language, that it has been characterized as a 'grammarless tongue.' This characterization is approximately true of course only if we think of grammar as meaning the same thing as inflection. In Greek and Latin grammar, inflection, or accidence as it is sometimes called, does play a large part, inflection and the rules of concord being the two important divisions of classical grammar. Through its loss of inflections, however, English has also simplified its rules of concord, and it consequently does not present the same kind of grammatical system as the classical languages. That it is a 'grammarless tongue,' however, in the true sense of the word grammar, is not at all true. The language has its structure and its rules of right and wrong, and it is as necessary to observe them as it was for Greek and Roman to observe their inflectional system and rules of concord. . . . The periods [of inflection] of course pass over into each other gradually, although at the two main dividing lines, at 1100 and 1500, changes took place more rapidly than during the central portions of the periods. There is, therefore, both in the Old English and in the Middle English period, a fairly stable and fixed central or classical form of the language. . . . The Old English is called the period of full inflections because the inflections of the language at that time were not only relatively more numerous than they were in later periods, but were also pronounced with a full and distinct sense of the values of the various vowels in the inflectional endings. Since the inflectional endings bore no accent, it will be seen that this method of pronouncing the inflectional vowels is very different from the tendency of Modern English (or even of Middle English), where we regularly obscure final unaccented syllables in pronunciation."—G. P. Krapp, *Modern English, its growth and present use*, pp. 59-63.—"To . . . [the] early period, while the English were still living on the Continent with their Germanic brethren, belong the first class of loan words. No language is entirely pure; we meet with no nation that has not adopted some loan words, so we must suppose that the forefathers of the old Germanic tribes adopted words from a great many other nations with whom they came into contact; and scholars have attempted to point out very old loan-words from various sources. . . . What . . . were the principal words

that the barbarians learnt from Rome in this period which may be called the pagan or pre-Christian period? . . . In comparing them with later loan-words from the same source we are struck by their concrete character. It was not Roman philosophy or the higher mental culture that impressed our Germanic forefathers; they were not yet ripe for that influence, but in their barbaric simplicity they needed and adopted a great many purely practical and material things, especially such as might sweeten everyday life. . . . They were also short words, mostly of one or two syllables, so that it would seem that the Germanic tongues and minds could not yet manage such long words as form the bulk of later loans. These early words were easy to pronounce and to remember, being of the same general type as most of the indigenous words, and therefore they very soon came to be regarded as part and parcel of the native language, indispensable as the things themselves which they symbolized. We now come to the first of those important historical events which have materially influenced the English language, namely the settlement of Britain by Germanic tribes. . . . Who were the invaders, and where did they come from? This, too, has been a point of controversy. According to Bede, the invaders belonged to the three tribes of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes; and linguistic history corroborates his statement in so far as we have really three dialects, or groups of dialects: the Anglian dialects in the North with two subdivisions, Northumbrian and Mercian, the Saxon dialects in the greater part of the South, the most important of which was the dialect of Wessex (West Saxon), and the Kentish dialect, Kent having been, according to tradition, settled by the Jutes. . . . What language or what languages did the settlers find on their arrival in Britain? The original population was Celtic; but what about the Roman conquest? The Romans had been masters of the country for centuries; had they not succeeded in making the native population learn Latin as they had succeeded in Spain and Gaul? . . . The net result of modern investigation seems to be that not more than half a dozen words did pass over into English from the Celtic aborigines. . . . About 600 A.D. England was christianized, and the conversion had far-reaching linguistic consequences. We have no literary remains of the pre-Christian period, but in the great epic of Beowulf we see a strange mixture of pagan and Christian elements. . . . We must not suppose that people were wholly unacquainted with Christianity before they were actually converted, and linguistic evidence points to their knowing, and having had names for, the most striking Christian phenomena centuries before they became Christians themselves. One of the earliest loan-words belonging to the sphere is Church, *Æ. cirice, cyrice*, ultimately from Greek *kuriakon* '(house) of the lord' or rather the plural *kuriaka*. . . . The number of new ideas and things introduced with Christianity was very considerable. . . . It is worth noting that most of these loans were short words that tallied perfectly well with the native words and were easily inflected and treated in every respect like these. . . . Existing native words were largely turned to account to express Christian ideas, the sense only being more or less modified. . . . Word-composition and other formative processes were resorted to, and in some instances the new terms were simply fitted together from translations of the component parts of the Greek or Latin word they were intended to render. . . . A Scandinavian element, a French element, and a Latin element . . . enter

largely into the texture of the English language, and as each element is characteristically different from the others, we shall treat them separately. First, then, the Scandinavian element. . . . In order rightly to estimate the Scandinavian influence it is very important to remember how great the similarity was between Old English and Old Norse. . . . An enormous number of words were then identical in the two languages, so that we should now have been utterly unable to tell which language they had come from, if we had had no English literature before the invasion; nouns such as man, wife, father, mother, fold, house, thing, life, etc. . . . The consequence was that an Englishman would have no great difficulty in understanding a viking, nay we have positive evidence that Norse people looked upon the English language as one with their own. . . . But there are, of course, many words to which no such reliable criteria apply, and the difficulty in deciding the origin of words is further complicated by the fact that the English would often modify a word, when adopting it, according to some more or less vague feeling of the English sound that corresponded generally to this or that Scandinavian sound. . . . We also see in England a phenomenon, which, I think, is paralleled nowhere else to such an extent, namely the existence side by side for a long time, sometimes for centuries, of two slightly differing forms for the same word, one the original English form and the other Scandinavian. . . . In some cases both forms survive in standard speech; they have then, as a rule, developed slightly different meanings. . . . In other cases, the Scandinavian form survives in dialects only, while the other belongs to the literary language. . . . If . . . we try to find out by means of the loan-word test . . . what were the spheres of human knowledge or activity in which the Scandinavians were able to teach the English, the first thing that strikes us is that the very earliest stratum of loan-words, words which by the way were soon to disappear again from the language, relate to war and more particularly to the navy. . . . Next, we find a great many Scandinavian law-terms; they have been examined by Professor Steenstrup in his well-known work on 'Danelag.' He has there been able, in an astonishing number of cases, to show conclusively that the vikings modified the legal ideas of the Anglo-Saxons, and that numerous new law-terms sprang up at the time of the Scandinavian settlements which had previously been utterly unknown. . . . The Normans became masters of England, and they remained masters for a sufficiently long time to leave a deep impress on the language. The conquerors were numerous and powerful, but the linguistic influence would have been far less if they had not continued for centuries in actual contact and constant intercourse with the French of France, of whom many were induced by later kings to settle in England."—O. Jespersen, *Growth and structure of the English language*, pp. 29-35, 37, 40-44, 59, 64-67, 85.—See also ENGLISH LITERATURE: 6th-11th centuries.—After "the Norman conquest of England in 1066, the English language, though still spoken, . . . was gradually superseded by Latin and Norman French, and by the year 1150 the Old English period drew to a close."—F. H. Vize, *Essentials of English speech and literature*, p. 23.—See also EDUCATION: Medieval: 871-900; BIBLE, ENGLISH: 8th-11th centuries.

18. Middle English period.—Changes in whole structure of language.—French influence.—Modern period.—Influence of printing.—Latin element.—"The language of the Middle English period underwent a great number of changes, affecting not

only inflections, but also vocabulary, sounds, and the whole structure of the language. The causes of this development, this thoroughgoing reconstruction of the language, are very complex. So far as inflections go, however, one of the main causes was pretty certainly a change in the way words were accented in the Middle English period. The only kind of word stress which could have preserved the full inflectional endings of the Old English period is a general or distributed stress, spread over the word as a whole. But in the Middle English period apparently the stress of words began to become more like that of Modern English, to be placed strongly and heavily on the first syllables of words, with a consequent obscuring and weakening of the later syllables of the words. A second main cause of inflectional change in the Middle English period was the condition of general social and political unrest which accompanied the period of the Danish Conquest, and, a little later, the Norman Conquest. The result of these two conquests was the complete overthrow of the English social and political system. For a period of several generations there was a time of great confusion; the standards, the traditional rules and habits of the English people of Britain, in speech and in other matters, were forgotten and broken down. The result was that the constraints of a rigid social custom, of conventional education and good breeding, being to a considerable extent removed, the language was allowed to develop in an untrammelled and popular way. The usages of the radical, the ignorant, and uneducated part of the people were not held in check and the result was that when English began to assert itself, it was no longer the English of the Old English period, but an English that had been modified by passing through a period of popular and natural development. . . . The inflections of the Middle English period are largely the inflections of the Old English period in a disappearing stage. Owing to that change in word accent which has just been mentioned, the final syllables of words, especially inflectional syllables, tended to become weak and indistinct in pronunciation. This tendency is already apparent in the late Old English period, manifesting itself first in the ending *um* of the dative plural of nouns and of adjectives, in the time of Aelfric. This ending gradually became vague and uncertain, appearing in the various forms *un*, *on*, *en*, *an*, the last form becoming the predominating one by the end of the old English period. The most important inflectional development, however, of the early Middle English period consisted in the leveling of all unstressed end vowels under the vowel *e* (pronounced like the second syllable of 'sooner,' with the *r* silent, i. e., 'soon-uh'). . . . Several important consequences followed this leveling of the distinctive Old English vowel endings under the vowel *e*. In the first place, the grouping of the nouns into classes, or types, of declension had largely to be given up, for the principle of this classification was the difference in vowel ending. The two classes which remained were the class of the strong and weak nouns, the strong nouns being those that formed their genitive singular and nominative and accusative plurals in *es*, the weak nouns these that used the ending *en* for these and other forms. Moreover, with the breaking down of the different classes of declension passed away also grammatical gender. All inflections being leveled under the general inflections *e*, *es*, *en*, there was no longer any reason, or indeed any means, for keeping up the distinctions of grammatical gender, and words were used as

they are in Modern English, without gender, except in so far as they state, by their logical meaning, the sex of the objects which they designate. . . . The loss of grammatical gender in the noun naturally led to the loss of agreement in inflection between the noun and its adjective, so far as gender is concerned. The same leveling of inflectional endings took place in the adjective as in the noun; the only one which persisted after the loss of those indicative of gender as the vowel *e*, which served to mark the plural number and the weak inflection of the adjective. . . . Inflection of the verb as strong and weak, or irregular and regular, persisted in the Middle English period, but from early Middle English times there was a tendency on the part of strong verbs to become weak, for example, Old English *wēpan*, *wēop*, beside Middle English *wepen*, *wepete*, 'weep,' 'wept.' This tendency, which was developed still further in the Modern English period, and which is still operative, was due to the fact that the weak verbs were the more numerous, as well as being the simpler and more readily apprehended manner of tense formation. The weak verbs thus tended to become the type form, crowding out by analogy to them many old strong verbs and attracting to their class all new verbs that entered the language. . . . Another simplification that tended to take place affected the preterite tenses. In the Old English strong verb, the preterite plural stem was frequently different from the preterite singular, and past participle often different from both. In Middle English the three preterite stems tended to become alike, to simplify under one form, just as the forms of the article all tended to simplify under the type form *the*. Thus the Old English verb *bindan*, *band*, *bundon*, *bunden*, became in Middle English *binde*, *bound*, *bound*. This leveling never became complete, as in the case of the article, and we still have in Modern English verbs like *sing*, *sang*, *sung*; *drive*, *drove*, *driven*; the simplification, however, affected a considerable number of verbs."—G. P. Krapp, *Modern English, its growth and present use*, pp. 74-75, 77-80, 82-83.—"The linguistic influence [of the French] did not begin immediately after the [Norman] conquest, and . . . was strongest in the years 1251-1400, to which nearly half of the borrowings belong (42.7 per cent). [See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 11th-14th centuries; BIBLE, ENGLISH: 8th-11th centuries.] Further it will be seen that the common assumption that the age of Dryden was particularly apt to introduce new words from French is very far from being correct. In a well-known passage, Robert of Gloucester (ab. 1300) speaks about the relation of the two languages in England: 'Thus,' he says, 'England came into Normandy's hand; and the Normans at that time . . . could speak only their own language, and spoke French just as they did at home, and had their children taught in the same manner, so that people of rank in this country who came of their blood all stick to the same language that they received of them, for if a man knows no French people will think little of him. But the lower classes still stick to English and to their own language. I imagine there are in all the world no countries that do not keep their own language except England alone. But it is well known that it is the best thing to know both languages, for the more a man knows the more is he worth.' . . . Nearly all the words taken over before 1350 and not a few of those of later importation, have become part and parcel of the English language, so that they appear to everybody just as English as the pre-Conquest stock of native words. . . . We need only

go through a list of French loan-words in English to be firmly convinced of the fact that the immigrants formed the upper classes of the English society after the conquest, so many of the words are distinctly aristocratic. It is true that they left the old words *king* and *queen* intact, but apart from these nearly all words relating to government and to the highest administration are French. . . . Feudalism was imported from France, and with it were introduced a number of words, such as *fief*, *feudal*, *vassal*, *liege*, and the name of the various steps in the scale of rank. . . . *Court* is French, as well as the adjectives relating to court life, such as *courteous*, *noble*, *fine* and *refined*. *Honour* and *glory* belong to the French and so does *heraldry*, while nearly all English expressions relating to that difficult science are of French origin, some of them curiously distorted. The upper classes, as a matter of course, took into their hands the management of military matters; and although in some cases it was a long time before the old native terms were finally displaced, . . . we have a host of French military words, many of them of very early introduction. . . . Another natural consequence of the power of the Norman upper classes is that most of the terms pertaining to the law are of French origin. . . . As ecclesiastical matters were also chiefly under the control of the higher classes, we find a great many French words connected with the church. . . . To these words, taken from different domains, may be added other words of more general meaning, which are highly significant as to the relations between the Normans and the English, such as *sir* and *madam*, *master* and *mistress* with their contrast *servant* (and the verb *to serve*), further, *command* and *obey*, *order*, *rent*, *rich* and *poor* with the nouns *riches* and *poverty*; *money*, *interest*, *cash*, *rent*, etc. It is a remark that was first made by John Wallis and that has been very often repeated, especially since Sir Walter Scott made it popular in 'Ivanhoe,' that while the names of several animals in their lifetime are English (*ox*, *cow*, *calf*, *sheep*, *swine*, *boar*, *deer*) they appear on the table with French names (*beef*, *veal*, *mutton*, *pork*, *bacon*, *brawn*, *venison*). This is generally explained from the masters leaving the care of the living animals to the lower classes, while they did not leave much of the meat to be eaten by them. But it may with just as much right be contended that the use of the French words here is due to the superiority of the French *cuisine*, which is shown by a great many other words as well, such as *sauce*, *boil*, *fry*, *roast*, *toast*, *pastry*, *pastry*, *soup*, *sausage*, *jelly*, *dainty*; while the humbler *breakfast* is English, the more sumptuous meals, *dinner* and *supper*, as well as *feasts* generally are French. . . . The French led the fashion in the middle ages, just as they do to some extent even now, so we expect to find a great many French words relating to dress. . . . The French were the teachers of the English in most things relating to art; not only such words as *art*, *beauty*, *colour*, *image*, *design*, *figure*, *ornament*, *to paint*, but also the greater number of the more special words of technical significance are French."—O. Jespersen, *Growth and structure of the English language*, pp. 85, 88-90, 94, 98.—"In the meantime the blending of the French and the English tongues had progressed slowly yet steadily from the thirteenth century, when translators began to introduce in their works French words that were currently intelligible. It was not long thereafter that the best of French books issued were translated into English despite the opposition to this course from such men as Robert Grosseteste, Bishop of

Lincoln, who strove, but in vain, to have French retained as the literary language and English relegated to the inferior position of a dialect for use in intercourse with the common people—a language to be shunned by the polite society of his day. . . . Wycliffe's greatest service to literature lies in the fact that he undertook the translation into English of the whole Bible. This he produced between the years 1380 and 1384."—F. H. Vize-telly, *Essentials of English speech and literature*, pp. 35, 38.—See also BIBLE, ENGLISH: 14th-16th centuries.

The modern period in the growth of English "began with the introduction of printing into England. . . . For the reason that printing helped largely to establish the forms our words were to take, the literary language which it produced, since it had attained the almost inflectionless condition of the language of to-day, became known as *Modern English*. This language is commonly divided into two periods, the *Early Modern* or *Tudor English* which extends from Caxton to the close of Shakespeare's literary activity, and the publication of the King James Version of the Bible, or about one hundred and thirty years—1477 to 1611—and *Modern English*, from 1611 onward. The influence of books on the language was immeasurable. As they increased in number and spread throughout the land the study of the people became the art of reading. Printing tended to establish the forms of the written word which, while suited to the eye, differed in sound when pronounced to the ear. Confusion of spelling arose when persons living in different parts of the country endeavored to express the sounds familiar to their ears in writing or printing. To this confusion—modified somewhat as time passed by improvements in printing, by added facilities of communication and the resulting increase of contact between the people—we owe the anomalies to be found in our spelling to-day. Although the inflections had disappeared no system to replace them had been devised, so that a certain looseness in the order of using words prevailed. This was particularly so in the sixteenth century; then the language was the subject of syntactical license which would not be countenanced to-day. Dr. E. A. Abbott, who in his 'Shakespearian Grammar' made a valuable contribution to Tudor English, pointed out that the dropping of the inflections resulted in the use of words in any grammatical relation as long as they conveyed the idea of the speaker. 'For then,' said he, 'clearness was preferred to grammatical correctness and brevity both to correctness and clearness.' So the practise of placing words without any regard to syntax, in the order in which they first came to the thought, became common. This produced a forcible, direct, and clear English such as may be found in the writings of Shakespeare and Jonson."—*Ibid.*, pp. 49, 53-54.—"Altho the Modern English period is called the period of lost inflections, it should be understood that this term is used with relative, and not absolute, meaning. All inflections have not been lost in the Modern English period, altho compared with those of the Middle English or the Old English period they have dwindled to a very small number. Nevertheless the language still remains an inflectional language, and for the expression of certain ideas no other means than inflection has been devised. The developments in the Modern English period arise from the further carrying out of the two tendencies of the Middle English period, first the tendency towards obscuring the vowels of inflectional syllables and second, the tendency towards simplification by the substi-

tution of one type form in the place of a variety of forms. In the passage from the Middle English to the Modern English period, the language did not again become merely a popular dialect which later was elevated to the dignity of a standard literary language, as had occurred in the transition from the Old English to the Middle English period. On the contrary, from the end of the Middle English time to the present day the language has been watched with increasing care and vigilance. It has been systematized, regulated, purified; in short, it has tended to become more and more an established and settled literary and conventional language. The changes, consequently, which have taken place in the Modern English period have been comparatively slow and comparatively few in number. The difference between the English of the year 1900 and the year 1500 is much less than that between the English of the year 1250 and the year 1000. The Modern English has been a regulating, refining, systematizing period, rather than a revolutionizing, reconstructing period."—G. P. Krapp, *Modern English*, pp. 83-84.—"Although Latin has been read and written in England from the Old English period till our own days, so that there has been an uninterrupted possibility of Latin influence on the English language, yet we may with comparative ease separate the latest stratum of loans from the two strata that we have already considered. It embodies especially abstract or scientific words, adopted exclusively through the medium of writing and never attaining to the same degree of popularity as words belonging to the older strata. The words adopted are not all of Latin origin, there are perhaps more Greek than Latin elements in them, if we count the words in a big dictionary. Still the more important words are Latin, and most of the Greek words have entered our language through Latin, or have, at any rate, been Latinized in spelling and endings before being used in English, so that we have no occasion here to deal separately with the two stocks. The great historical event, without which this influence would never have assumed such gigantic dimensions, was the revival of learning. Through Italy and France the Renaissance came to be felt in England as early as the fourteenth century, and since then the invasion of classical terms has never stopped, although the multitude of new words introduced was greater, perhaps, in the fourteenth, the sixteenth and the nineteenth than in the intervening centuries. The same influence is conspicuous in all European languages, but in English it has been stronger than in any other language, French perhaps excepted. . . . It would be idle to attempt to indicate the number of Latin and Greek words in the English language, as each new treatise on a scientific subject adds to their number. But it is interesting to see what proportion of the Latin vocabulary has passed into English. Professors J. B. Greenough and G. L. Kittredge have counted the words beginning with A in Harper's Latin Dictionary, excluding proper names, doublets, parts of verbs, and adverbs in *e*, and *ter*. Of the three thousand words there catalogued, one hundred and fifty-four (or about one in twenty) have been adopted bodily into our language in some Latin form, and a little over five hundred have some English representative taken, or supposed to be taken, through the French. Thus we have in the English vocabulary about one in four or five of all the words found in the Latin lexicon under A. There is no reason to suppose that his proportion would not hold good approximately for the whole alphabet. . . . Latin has influenced

English not only in vocabulary, but also in style and syntax."—O. Jespersen, *Growth and structure of the English language*, pp. 114-115, 118, 126.

19. Influence of Shakespeare, Spenser and the Bible, on the English language.—"Many people who know the preëminent position of Shakespeare in English literature will probably be surprised to hear that his is not the greatest influence on English poetic diction. . . . It must be noted also that none of the words thus traceable to Shakespeare belong now to what might be called the technical language of poetry. Modern archaizing poetry owes its vocabulary more to Edmund Spenser than to any other poet. Pope and his contemporaries made a very sparing use of archaisms, but when poets in the middle of the eighteenth century turned from his rationalistic and matter-of-fact poetry and were eager to take their romantic flight away from everyday realities, Spenser became the poet of their heart, and they adopted a great many of his words which they had to explain to their readers are now perfectly familiar to every educated man and woman. . . . As for the technical grammar of modern poetry, the influence of Shakespeare is not very strong, in fact not so strong as that of the Authorized Version of the Bible."—O. Jespersen, *Growth and structure of the English language*, pp. 227-230.—"The influence of the Authorized Version of the Bible upon the English language can be measured only in part by its influence on the English-speaking peoples. As a literary work it has preserved to us a language peculiarly its own. Of Anglo-Saxon words it contains 97 per cent.—more than any other English book. Biblical English may be archaic in form, but this archaic character was not derived from Elizabethan or Jacobean sources. Hallam has pointed out that it is 'not the English of Daniel, or Raleigh, or Bacon,' but it may be traced back to the language of Wycliffe, and although this 'abounds with obsolete phraseology and with single words long since abandoned or retained only in provincial use' it has given all men so much satisfaction that no other revision which has succeeded it has been received with sufficient favor as to displace the veneration in which the King James Version is held."—F. H. Vizetelly, *Essentials of English speech and literature*, p. 121.—See also BIBLE, ENGLISH: Modern estimates.

19. Possibility of English as a world language. See INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGES: Living versus artificial languages.

20. Scythian family of languages, also known as Altaic, Ural-Altaic, and Turanian.—Ugrian or Finno-Hungarian.—Samoyedic.—Turkish.—Mongolian.—Tungusic.—"As usually constructed . . . [the Scythian family] covers with its branches the whole northern portion of the eastern continent, through both Europe and Asia, together with the greater part of Central Asia, and portions of Asiatic and European territory lying still further south. It is known by many different names: some call it Altaic, or the Ural-Altaic, family, from the chains of mountains which are supposed to have served as centres of dispersion to its tribes; others style it, from one or other of its principal branches, the Mongolian, or the Tartaric; the appellation Turanian has also won great currency within no long time [see TURANIAN RACES AND LANGUAGE], owing to its adoption by one or two very conspicuous authorities in linguistic ethnology, although recommended neither by its derivation nor its original application; . . . Scythian, finally, is a title which it has sometimes received, taken from the name by which the Greeks knew

the wild nomad races of the extreme north-east, which were doubtless in part, at least, of this kindred—and the designation Scythian we will here employ, as, upon the whole, though far from being unexceptionable, best answering our purpose. Five principal branches compose the family. The first of them, the Ugrian, or Finno-Hungarian, is almost wholly European in its position and known history. It includes the language of the Laplanders, the race highest in latitude, but lowest in stature and in developed capacity, of any in Europe; that of the Finns in [formerly] north-western Russia, with related dialects in Estonia and Livonia; those of several tribes, of no great numbers or consequence, stretching from the southern Ural mountains towards the interior of Russia and down the Volga—as the Permians, Siryanians, Wotiaks, Cheremisses, and Mordwins; and the tongue of the Hungarians or Magyars, far in the south, with those of their kindred, the Ostiaks and Woguls, in and beyond the central chain of the Ural—which was the region whence the rude ancestors of the brave and noble race who now people Hungary fought their way down to the Danube, within the historical period, or hardly a thousand years ago. [See also HUNGARY: Origin.] The second branch is the Samoyedic, nearest akin with the Ugrian, yet apparently independent of it. It occupies the territory along the northern coast of Europe and Asia, from the White Sea across the lower Yenisei, and almost to the Lena, one of the most barren and inhospitable tracts of the whole continent; while some of its dialects are spoken in the mountains to the south, about the head waters of the Yenisei—probably indicating the region whence the Samoyed tribes were driven, or wandered, northward, following the river-courses, and spreading out upon the shores of the northern ocean. What is known of them and their speech is mainly the fruit of the devoted labours of the intrepid traveller Castrén. The Samoyed dialects are destitute of literary cultivation and of records. . . . The subdivisions of the branch are numerous, and they cover a territory of very wide extent. . . . They are classed together in three principal groups: first, the northern, of which the Kirghiz, Bashkir, and Yakut are the most important members; they occupy (with the exception of the Yakut in the extreme north-east) southern Siberia and Tartary, between the Volga and the Yenisei; second, the south-eastern, including the Ugurs, Usbeks, Turkomans, etc., and ranging from the southern Caspian, eastward to the middle of the great plateau; third, the western, stretching through northern Persia, the Caucasus, the Crimea, and Asia Minor, to the Bosphorus, and scattered in patches amid the varied populations which fill the [former] European dominions of the Sultan. . . . They compose together a very distinct body of nearly kindred forms of speech, not differing from one another in anything like the same degree as the Ugrian languages. . . . The fourth branch of the Scythian languages is the Mongolian. . . . The Khalkas, Kalmucks, and Buriats are the most notable of their tribes. The fifth and last branch is called the Tungusic. It occupies a broad tract of north-eastern Asia, from the frontier of China on the north to the Arctic Ocean, and from the neighbourhood of the Yenisei almost to Kamchatka. Its most conspicuous dialect, the Manchu, belongs to tribes which have established a claim upon the attention of the world by their conquest of China . . . (1644). . . . The Manchus have written their language during some centuries past; but they have nothing which deserves the name

of a national literature; their books are translations or servile imitations of Chinese works. . . . The Mongol alphabet was the original of the present Manchu, and, in its turn, was derived from that of the Uigur Turks; the latter, again, goes back to the Syriac, having been brought into Central Asia by Nestorian missionaries. . . . The linguistic tie, now, which binds together the widely scattered branches of this great family, is a somewhat loose and feeble one, consisting less in the traceable correspondence of material and forms, the possession of the same roots and the same inflections, than in a correspondence of the style of structure, of the modes of apprehension and expression of grammatical relations. Each great branch forms by itself a group as distinct as is, for instance, the Germanic or the Slavonic in our own family; but there is no such palpable and unmistakable evidence of kinship between Ugrian, Turkish, Mongol, and Manchu, as between German, Russian, Greek, and Sanskrit. It is, to no small extent, those who know least in detail respecting the languages of the family who are most ready to assert and defend their historical connection; and, on the other hand, Castrén, himself a Finn, and whose long and devoted labors have taught us more respecting them than has been brought to light by any other man, ventures to assert with confidence only the demonstrable linguistic relationship of Ugrian, Samoyed, and Turkish, and regards the inclusion of Mongol and Manchu within the same circle as still questionable."—W. D. Whitney, *Language and the study of language*, pp. 308, 309-313, 315.

21. Slavonic languages.—History and distribution.—Baltic group.—Prussian.—Lithuanian and Lettish.—Russian, Polish, Czech and Slovenish.—"History and geography tell us that the Slavonic languages on the whole are spoken to-day [1910] over a far greater area than they were 1000 years ago, but also that the general position and shape of that area have considerably changed. Some of the Slavonic languages have waxed, others have waned; some are moribund, others are obsolete. A language is like any other organism, it cannot remain passive; stagnation means death, it must either grow or decay, expand or recede, and the history of the Slavonic languages furnishes instructive proof of this inevitable law. The principal difference between the position which the Slavonic languages held in the ninth century, and that which they occupy to-day, is the following: The limits reached by the Slav tribes in the ninth century at the close of the era of wholesale migrations show that the direction of their expansion up to that time had been centrifugal; they had radiated west, south, and east from a common centre, the Carpathians and the plains to the north and south of them. The positions held by them at the present day show that their expansion eastwards has continued uninterruptedly; but on the west and south they have either remained stationary, in some places protected from the retaliation of evicted tenants by mountains, in others obstructed from further progress by the sea, or they have receded before nations they had themselves displaced, now claiming to redeem what had once been their own. . . . It is customary in comparative philology, when tabulating the Indo-European family of languages, to speak of them as the Baltic group. Now although it is not reasonable or satisfactory to call a group of languages merely by the name of the ocean in the vicinity of which the people speaking them happen to dwell, still, for want of a better, Baltic serves the purpose, and is at least elastic.

The word itself is one of the few Lithuanian words that have been assimilated by other European languages; '*baltas*' in Lithuanian means 'white.' Now this group is always coupled with that of the Slavonic languages as the Baltic-Slavonic division of the Indo-European family. The reason is that a closer affinity exists between these two groups than between either of them and any other of the main divisions of the Indo-European family, and so, although it is out of the question to postulate a single prehistoric Baltic-Slavonic language, still it is scientifically permissible to treat them as one main division of the Indo-European family, and therefore to include also the Baltic in any tabulation of the Slavonic languages. . . . The so-called Baltic group includes three languages: Prussian, Lithuanian, and Lettish. Prussian was the language spoken by the people who in the ninth century inhabited the lands between the Vistula and Niemen rivers, bounded on the north by the sea and roughly corresponding to the limits of the present German province of East Prussia. The Prussian language in the seventeenth century became extinct, and only meagre fragments of it have been preserved in writing [see also PRUSSIAN LANGUAGE, OLD]; Lithuanian and Lettish are still spoken. The natural phenomena peculiar to the country, which abounds in vast swamps and forests, as well as its remoteness from great trade-routes, have conduced to the preservation of the antique character of these languages, especially of Lithuanian, but at the same time it is largely due to this cause that the earliest records and monuments of these languages go no further back than the sixteenth century. There is greater affinity between Lithuanian and Lettish than between either of them and Prussian, and, generally speaking, Lettish shows a later stage of development than Lithuanian; that is to say, it is the more remote of the two from what can be postulated as the language of their common origin. To what extent Lithuanian was spoken during those early centuries when the country was independent of all foreign influence it is now impossible to determine. . . . It is important to remember that the political boundaries of the mediæval state of Lithuania, which covered an immense area and included at one time all of what is now [1910] Western Russia, always extended far beyond the limits of the area where the Lithuanian language was spoken. At the present day . . . Lithuanian is spoken in the extreme north-eastern corner of East Prussia, in Russia throughout the government of Kovno, and in considerable portions of the governments of Suvalki and Vilna. The territory where Lettish is spoken lies immediately to the north of that occupied by the Lithuanians; it is bounded on the west by the Baltic and on the south by the political boundary dividing the government of Kurland [Courland], the whole of which is Lettish, from that of Kovno, which is purely Lithuanian. Lettish is also the language of the southern half of the government of Livonia and of the western half of that of Vitebsk. It must not be forgotten that the big towns in Kurland and Livonia, such as Mitau, Libau, and Riga, are largely German, and that the landholders in these two governments belong to the same nationality, while the rural population is entirely Lithuanian and Lettish. The main difference between Lithuanians and Letts is that the Lithuanians, except those of East Prussia, are solidly Roman Catholic; and that religion and education have for centuries past filtered through into Lithuania from Poland. The Letts and the Lithuanians of East Prussia, on the other hand, are one and all Lutherans. . . . Accordingly the vocabulary of

Lithuanian betrays Polish, that of Lettish, German influence. Lettish has also been influenced by the proximity of its neighbours of Finnish race, whom the Letts gradually propelled northwards into the extreme northern corner of the promontory of Kurland, where a portion of them still remains, and into Livonia proper. Lithuanian, has also been much influenced by White Russian, the dialect current in those provinces which in the Middle Ages formed the lands of the Lithuanian crown, and later with Lithuania became part of Poland. [See also BALTIC PROVINCES: Original and existing races; TURANIAN RACES AND LANGUAGE.] . . . Passing from the Baltic to the cognate Slavonic group of languages, the question arises, in which order the latter are to be classified. It is now the established custom to arrange the Slavonic language in three main divisions, the criteria for which are certain phonetic characteristics which need not here be closely considered. These three divisions are called, according to their respective geographical positions, the Western, Southern, and Eastern. It is impossible now to determine to what extent the differences of these languages one from another had already crystallized by the ninth century, that is to say, at the time when the migrations of the Slavonic tribes were complete, before the formation amongst them of separate political states, and before the time to which even the earliest extant fragments of these languages belong. It is, however, probable that many of the characteristics peculiar to each of the Slavonic languages as we know them to-day had already developed in the ninth century, because considerable expansion westwards, southwards, and eastwards of the Slavonic tribes had already taken place, and consequently distinctions of nationality had had time to appear and had acquired space to develop. To the western group, the first to be considered, belong those of the Slavonic languages spoken by the tribes who in the middle of the ninth century were settled north of the Danube and west of the so-called Baltic nationalities; the boundary between the western and eastern group (not accurately to be determined even to-day) roughly corresponds to the watershed between the Vistula and the Dnieper. That between the western and southern group is approximately indicated by the Danube. In the course of their migration westward Slavonic tribes belonging to this western division had penetrated as far as the Elbe and even beyond, and at the moment when our authentic knowledge of their history begins they were in possession of the whole of the country from the mouth of the Vistula to that of the Eider in Holstein, bounded on the north by the Baltic, on the west by the Elbe, the Saal, and the Bohemian Forest (Böhmer Wald). From among the many names of these Western Slavonic tribes that have been preserved, those have acquired greater prominence which correspond to the three important Western Slavonic languages of to-day. These are Lusatian-Wendish, Polish, and Cech. . . . The next of the Western Slavonic languages to be considered is Polish. Enjoying great prominence to-day, with a contemporary literature of extraordinary fertility and of great brilliance, and spoken by a larger number of people than any Slavonic language except Russian, Polish is only one of a group of dialects known in comparative philology as the Lechish group. The designation Lechish is an adaptation of the name by which the Poles were from early times called by their neighbours, but never used of themselves. In Lithuanian a Pole is still called Lenkas, and Poland Lenkai; the Russian equivalent is Lyahi. To the Lechish group belong, besides Po-

lish, all the Slavonic languages, except Lusatian-Wendish, which were at one time spoken throughout what is now Northern Germany from the Eider in Holstein to the Vistula. The unique survivor of these once extensively spoken dialects, besides Polish, is that called Kashubish, spoken by the Kashubs, or, as some of them call themselves, Slovintsi; these now number slightly over 200,000 people inhabiting the country between Danzig and the boundary of the provinces of Western Prussia and Pomerania. This dialect was only identified and classified during the last century, and philologists have concentrated their attention on it none too soon, for emigration to America and erosion at home are causing a rapid diminution in the numbers of this people. As usual disputes have arisen as to whether Kashubish is to be regarded as a separate language, or as a dialect of Polish, the Polish savants maintaining the latter view, while their Russian colleagues naturally seize the opportunity offered of subtracting the Kashubs from the sum total of the Polish nationality. . . . Another Slavonic dialect of the Lechish group has come down to us in the form of a few glossaries, though it is itself extinct since the seventeenth century; this is the dialect known as Polabish, because spoken by the Slavonic tribes settled on the lower Elbe—from 'po' = along, and 'Laba' = the Elbe. [See also SLAVS.] . . . The third group of the western division of the Slavonic languages is that known as Cech-Slovak. This rather cumbersome designation is, at any rate, accurate and comprehensive. The term Bohemian is often used synonymously with Cech, but is inexact and ambiguous, as the country known to us as Bohemia, but to the Cechs only as Cechy—a collective plural—contains, besides the Slavs, a large German population. The term Cech-Slovak comprises two closely related Slavonic dialects, whose affinity hardly justifies their being treated as separate languages. . . . The term Slovak is the most general, accurate, and unequivocal designation for the Slavonic people who speak this dialect, but is of comparatively modern origin. . . . The Cechs have from the earliest centuries of our era occupied the quadrilateral known in geography and history as Bohemia. Covered on all four sides by natural barriers in the shape of mountains and forests, the Cechs have, on the whole, maintained their original positions, though in the course of the turbulent Middle Ages, Germans reclaimed large portions of territory to the north and south of them. . . . Passing from the western to the southern division of Slavonic languages, between which the Danube is roughly the line of delimitation, the first to be considered in geographical order is that known as Slovenish. Strictly speaking, Slovenish is only a strongly-marked variation of Serbo-Croatian, just as Slovak is of Cech, and it is more correct to treat all the Slav dialects that are spoken from the Alps to the Balkans as one group, and to call that the Serbo-Croatian-Slovenish group. . . . In earlier times the Slovenes were known as Chorutane, and are thus mentioned in the early Russian chronicles and by the Cech chronicler Dalimil; this name Chorutane, which is now obsolete, was derived from that part of the country inhabited by the Slovenese, Carantanum, or Goratan, and survives still in the geographical term Carinthia or Kärnten. . . . Although fragments of this language dating from the tenth century have survived, and considerable examples of it from the time of the Reformation in the sixteenth century exist, the real revival of the Slovene nationality and language belongs to the nineteenth century."—N. Forbes, *Position of the Slavonic languages at the present*

day (*pamphlet*), pp. 6-12, 15-16, 19-22.—See also ARYANS: Meaning of term.

22. Great and Little Russian.—Serbo-Croatic.—Bulgarian and Albanian.—“Russian is the most important of the Slavonic languages and is spoken by 103 million people; it is usually and most correctly divided into two groups: Great Russian, of which White Russian is a variation, and Little Russian. It is impossible here to consider the separatist motives which have prompted many Little Russian philologists to treat their own dialect as a language independent of and on a level with Great Russian. Without in any way underrating the peculiar and original beauties of Little Russian, it is from the scientific point of view unjustifiable to regard it as anything but a strongly-marked variation of Great Russian. . . . In the ninth century, when their authentic history may be said to have begun, the territory occupied by the Slavonic tribes of the eastern division was of smaller dimensions than that included in the political Russia of to-day. . . . Great Russian is to-day the language of 65 millions in Russia and Siberia, and is spoken by over 99 per cent. of the population in the seven central governments; in the government of Moscow the proportion of Great Russians to other nationalities is 97 per cent., and in that of Petersburg [Petrograd] 81 per cent. . . . It is noticeable that while the Russian nationality and language have expanded to the north and east and south, its western boundary continuous with those of the Poles, the Lithuanians, the Letts, and the Finnish Esthonians is almost identical with that existing in the ninth century. The differentiation of Russian into three groups, Great Russian, White Russian, and Little Russian, has occurred within historical times; and these designations themselves, of purely literary origin, and even now seldom used popularly, do not date back further than the fourteenth century, and would seem to have come into use when Western Russia formed a part of Lithuania and Poland.”—N. Forbes, *Position of the Slavonic languages at the present day* (*pamphlet*), pp. 29-31.—“Servian or Serbo-Croatian, the other member of this group of the southern division, is in point of numbers of the people who speak it the third most important of the Slavonic languages. It is spoken throughout [modern Jugo-Slavia:] Servia, Montenegro, Bosnia, Hercegovina [Herzegovina], Dalmatia, Croatia, Slavonia, in the Banat in South Hungary, in the southern part of Istria, and also in the Macedonian vilayets of Turkey. It is thus the speech of nearly ten million people, who are distributed in twelve provinces of four political states, Servia, Montenegro [and before 1918], Turkey and Austria-Hungary. During the period of wholesale migrations the southern Slavs penetrated southwards through Macedonia into Greece, and in the hey-day of their independence in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries the political boundaries of Servia would seem to have included most of the Balkan peninsula, but generally speaking the territory occupied by the Croats and Servians to-day is continuous with that held by them in the ninth century; on their southern border, in Macedonia, they have undoubtedly lost ground before the Albanians, but they have made corresponding gains to the north in Hungary, whither they immigrated in large numbers when the power of the Ottoman Empire was at its height. From the earliest times this race, which is essentially one as far as language is concerned, has been known by two names, the Croats in the western half of the territory, and the Servians in the eastern half. But the difference between the Servians and the Croats is

not merely nominal, it is confessional; it is therefore in one respect fundamental and has always cut the nation in two. The history of each of these two halves of the same race has followed totally different lines, and it is owing to this duality that it has always been impossible to find one name for the language which would be acceptable to both divisions of the people who speak it. . . . The outward and visible sign of the difference between the two confessions, as reflected in the language, is the dissimilarity of the alphabets. The Croats and the Roman Catholic inhabitants of Bosnia, Hercegovina, and Dalmatia use the Latin alphabet, amplified by diacritic signs, the Servians and the Orthodox inhabitants of Bosnia, Hercegovina, Dalmatia, and Montenegro use that known as the Cyrillic, so called after the name of its inventor, the Greek missionary St. Cyril. . . . The duplex name Serbo-Croatian is of course an artificial and purely literary term; it is largely used in scientific works, but is quite unknown to any section of the people to which it is applied. . . . The other member of the southern division of the Slavonic languages is that known as Bulgarian. This curious tongue is the descendant of that old Bulgarian . . . which was the language spoken by the Slavs, who already by the middle of the seventh century had occupied the eastern half of the Balkan peninsula, that is to say, all Moesia, Thrace, and Macedonia, except the maritime territory which was then, as it is now, held by the Greeks. How these Slavonic tribes designated themselves, except by the generic name Slovene, is not known. The Bulgars themselves were not Slavs at all, but a wild people, who came from the neighbourhood of Kazan on the Volga, and in the second half of the seventh century, in the course of one of their several invasions of the Balkan peninsula, succeeded in overcoming, more thoroughly than usual, the Slavs settled between the Danube and the Balkan mountains. . . . Old Bulgarian, the speech comprehended, transmitted into writing, and thus immortalized by the Byzantine missionaries of the ninth century, is the oldest form of any Slavonic language that has survived. But speech is a fickle and elusive thing, and that spoken by the Bulgarian people soon assumed forms different from those of the language familiar to St. Cyril in the ninth century, standardized in the liturgy and translation of the Scriptures used by all Slav adherents of the Orthodox faith, and preserved in a theological literature of considerable extent. In this respect there is a great contrast between the histories of Bulgarian and Servian as we know them; for although the Cyrillic alphabet, which never exactly corresponded to Servian phonology, was in use in its original form in Servia till the nineteenth century, yet it is fortunately possible to control the changes that have from very early times occurred in Servian and to follow the historical development of that language, owing to the preservation of large quantities of political documents which the Servians used to write in the current vernacular of the day. Again, though both peoples, Servian and Bulgarian, have been subjected to similar physical and political conditions, have suffered identical historical vicissitudes, and been exposed to the influence of the same neighbours, yet the present condition of the two languages is widely dissimilar. While Servian is in many respects the most antique of the Slavonic languages in use to-day, and has preserved a wealth of old forms and inflections, Bulgarian, saturated with Rumanian and Albanian influences, has reached an advanced stage of analysis comparable with that of our own. The history of Bulgarian

is unfortunately far less continuous than that of Servian, and though the developments and changes that it underwent can be controlled from the ninth up till the fourteenth century, that is till the Ottoman conquest, yet of the language as spoken from that time till the beginning of the nineteenth century scarcely any specimens exist. The ecclesiastical language, crystallized in the liturgy and Scriptures, has remained much as it was in the ninth century; the speech of the people, apart from changes and peculiarities due to the Rumanian and Albanian influences already mentioned, has, like Servian, adopted an immense stock of Turkish words for use in every-day life; while the language of the literary and national revival dating from the second half of the nineteenth century has borrowed its more elaborate vocabulary wholesale from Russian."—N. Forbes, *Position of the Slavonic languages at the present day* (pamphlet), pp. 22-23, 26-28.

23. Caucasus languages.—Persian, Kurdish, Armenian, Ossete, Turki, Georgian, Circassian, and others.—"There are two or three corners in the world's surface, in which a strange collection of diverse Languages is found, the survivals of extinct Races, once great and strong. . . . In the west of Europe there is one solitary survival, the Basque in the Pyrenees; on the extreme east of Europe we find a cluster of Languages in the Caucasus, which are neither Arian, nor Semitic, nor Altaic. These mysterious Languages of the Caucasus have long had an exaggerated reputation. Herodotus (Book I. 203) remarks, that many and various are the tribes, by which the Caucasus is inhabited, most of them living entirely on the wild fruits of the forest. Strabo informs us (Book XI. 5), that no less than seventy Dialects were spoken in the country, which even then was called the Mountain of Languages. Pliny the Elder (Book VI. cap. 5, 12) quotes Timosthenes, a contemporary of Ptolemy Philadelphus, to the effect, that Dioscurias, on the shores of the Black Sea, was once a famous city, though then deserted, so much so, that three hundred Nations, all of different Languages, were in the habit of resorting to it, and in later times there were one hundred and thirty interpreters for the purpose of transacting business. . . . Shut up in their inaccessible mountains, the tribes had evaded all possibility of inquiry into their Language before the Russian Conquest [since the Crimean War, 1855]. Some few Vocabularies had been picked up from the mouths of stray members of a clan. But the Russians are very active and apt in the work of Surveys and Ethnographic inquiry; indeed, sometimes they anticipate an intended conquest by preparing a Grammar of the Language of the tribe. The Afghans must have felt that some one was walking over their grave, when Prof. Dorn in 1840 published his Pushtu Grammar at St. Petersburg [Petrograd]. As regards the Languages of the Caucasus, in books of such esteem on the general subject of Philology, as those of Max Müller, Whitney, and Hovelacque, there was nothing. In his 'Asia Polyglotta' Klaproth had given a few Vocabularies, and some specimens in his 'Kaukasische Sprachen.' Julg in his 'Litteratur der Grammatiken,' 1847, had referred to all the books available at the time. Max Müller, in his 'Languages of the Seat of War in the East,' 1855, had brought together much valuable information. Latham in his 'Elements of Comparative Philology,' 1862, summed up all that was known at that period, unfortunately giving no references to the authorities quoted, without which a volume of facts collected at second-hand is valueless. Berger, in the Report

of the Third Oriental Congress at St. Petersburg, 1876, gives a full Ethnographic description of the Caucasus, but in the Russian language. . . . [In] 'Grundriss der Sprachwissenschaft' (1884), [Müller] passes under review each of the peculiar Languages of the Caucasus in an exhaustive Grammatical Note. . . . The method, which I adopt, consists of two rules: A. That no Language is to be admitted, unless the locality of the tribe, who use it, can be indicated on a Map, not prepared for the purpose, but independently by competent authorities for strictly Geographical purposes. B. That no Language is to be admitted, unless some sufficient evidence, vouched for at first-hand, such as a Vocabulary, Grammar, or Text, or the personal knowledge of the reporter, can be produced. . . . With a view of carrying out an exhaustive process, all the Languages spoken in the Province of the Caucasus are entered, whether they are members of well-known families, or belong to the peculiar group called the Caucasian group, with regard to which Fredk. Müller remarks ('Alg. Ethn.' 1879, p. 26, Note): 'It is doubtful whether this group can be traced back to one common source. It is probable that the Languages spoken to the North of the Caucasus are quite distinct from those spoken to the South, and that in the Northern Sub-group there are Languages with totally distinct germs from each other.'

"I omit the German, French, Italian, and even Russian Languages, though there are many denizens, and even settled colonies of some of these nationalities of a modern date; but they lie outside this inquiry. I commence from the Southern boundary of the Province and proceed Northward. There is a strange admixture of Race and Language. . . . The great conquering, and commercial, Races are hopelessly intermixed. Of Jews there are none; . . . other Nationalities, such as Greek, Pole, Bohemian, Romanian, are sparsely represented.

"Iranian Branch of Arian Family: I. Persian; II. Kurd; III. Armenian; IV. Ossete. Altaic Family: V. Turki. Caucasian Group—Southern Sub-group: VI. Georgian. Northern Sub-group (West): VII. Abkhás; VIII. Tsherkess [Cherkess, Circassian]; (East): IX. Awár; X. Hurkan; XI. Kasi-kúmuk; XII. Tabasseran; XIII. Kurin; XIV. Artshi; XV. Ude; (North): XVI. Tshetschen; XVII. Tush. I shall describe each separately: of some Languages there are several Dialects; of others there are several synonyms; others are spoken by clans or tribes bearing tribal names. It is probable, that the more powerful Iranian, or Altaic, Languages may have swallowed up in the struggle for life scores of smaller Languages, as they will no doubt swallow up some of the small ones recorded above; yet these seventeen names represent all that remains of the seventy of Strabo, and the three hundred of Pliny. *Persian*: A few words are sufficient for this celebrated Language. As Trans-Caucasia was until 1826 part of the Persian Kingdom, it is natural to find, that the use of the Language has outlived the political domination: besides, there exists a considerable commerce betwixt the two countries. . . . It is interesting to find amidst the settled population of the Province two Persian colonies, speaking distinctive Persian Dialects: (1) Talish, the Dialect of a small District with a population of 43,000 round a town of that name, and the better-known Caspian Sea-port of Lenkoran; this Dialect has the character of being an ancient one, differing in forms, and words, from modern Persian. (2) Tati, spoken in the District of Baku on the Caspian Sea, and the Peninsula of Aspheron, with a population of 81,000: it is

supposed by some to be only a modern patois, corrupted by Turki, but according to Beresine its name carries the appearance of antiquity, for in the celebrated Tablets of Behistún the word 'Thatiya' occurs repeatedly preceding the name of Darius, meaning 'Darius spake.' This hypothesis seems doubtful. All the Persians are Mahometan, but Shiah, and hostile to the Turks, who are Sûni. *Kurd*: Forty-four thousand of this Nation have crossed the frontier, and settled in the Southern portions of Trans-Caucasia. They are all Mahometan. *Armenian*: [They] . . . occupy a large but broken area in Trans-Caucasia, especially in the towns. They speak a different Dialect from that used by their co-religionists in Asiatic Turkey. . . . *Ossete*, called also Iron [eeron]: This is one of the Languages spoken within the Range of the Caucasus, but as it belongs to the Iranian Branch of the Arian family, its description follows the other members of that branch. The tribe numbers one hundred and eleven thousand: they occupy a compact territory in the very centre of the Range, and it is traversed by the high road through the Dariel Pass, that leads from Tiflis to Vladikafkas. They hold the upper valley of the River Terek, as well as the mountain-tract to the West as far as the head waters of the Ardou, and the Mamisson Pass. The evidence of their Language is quite decisive as to their origin. *Turki*: Of this important nationality . . . the Azerbaijani are the most important, and spread over the greater part of Trans-Caucasia, and they are homogeneous with the population of the Persian adjoining Province of Tabriz. . . . Of the other varieties of the Turki Language (excepting, of course, the Osmanli) we know little. The Kumik occupy the low-lands betwixt the Caspian Sea and the Eastern slopes of the Caucasus. . . . The New Testament has been translated into Kirghiz, and the Gospel of St. Matthew into Jagatai or Trans-Caspian Turki. . . . *Georgian*: We now arrive at the first of the Languages specially identified with the Caucasus, and belonging to none of the great Language-families of Asia. Fredk. Müller divides the group (for they have no pretence to such affinity among each other as would justify the use of the word 'family') into a Southern and Northern Sub-group, and the Georgian with its Dialects composes the Southern Sub-group. . . . The origin of the name Georgian is presumably the Persian word 'Gurj.' The third Subdivision is unimportant; Tiflis, the Capital of the Russian Province, is the chief town of Grusia, Kutais of Imeritia, and Poti of Mingrelia. Suania is a small mountainous District difficult of access. They are all sometimes called the Kartalinian tribes, from their speaking a Language called by themselves Kartli. The Grusians, or Georgians proper, inhabit the basin of the River Kur, East of the Suram water-shed, and spread up the valley of the Aragwa to the very foot of the main Range, and occupy the valley of Kakhetia. The Imeritians occupy the valley of the River Riou or Phasis, West of the Suram Range. They are separated from the Mingrelians by the River Zenesquali. The Mingrelians extend to the Black Sea. The Gurians are a small Sub-tribe to the South of the Mingrelians, and beyond these are the Lazians, who were known by that name in the time of Strabo, and have lately been annexed to Russia. The Suanians are mentioned by Strabo and Pliny. All these Sub-tribes speak Dialects, more or less distinct, of the common Language, the Georgian; or some may even be called Sister-Languages. All the tribes are Christian, except the Lazian. The Language is essentially non-Arian. It has two Alphabets, both of which derive from

the Armenian Alphabet: one is used for the Bible and religious works, the Kutsuri, or Priest's; the other is the Mekhedsuli Kheli, or Soldier's, which is the ordinary cursive script. The translation of the Bible dates back to the eighth century, and there are other specimens of archaic literature. This is a strong Language with great vitality, and will hold its own and become the vehicle of culture and civilization. In a general way the tribes, which make up the Northern Sub-group, in the Western Regions of the Caucasus have been called the Circassian, in the Central Regions the Mizdzhedzi, and in the Eastern Regions the Lesgian: these are Ethnic terms. *Abkhas* or *Abas*: This tribe occupies the coast of the Black Sea from the point of Pitzunta to the confines of Mingrelia: they are kindred to the Tsherkess: the population numbers twenty-two thousand. Their Language has been thoroughly studied and described. *Tsherkess*: These are the famous Circassians; their proper name is Adighe. After a prolonged struggle they were subjugated by the Russians in 1864, and emigrated in a body of 400,000 to Turkey in Europe. . . . Their Language has been studied, but it has not been treated grammatically in accordance with the requirements of Philology, either by Schiefner or Fredk. Müller."—R. N. Cust, *Linguistic and Oriental essays, fourth series*, pp. 3, 5, 6, 7-9.—Some of the other languages of the Caucasus are: Awar, Hurkan, Kasikumuk, Tabasseran, Kurin, Artshi, Ude, Tshetshen, and Tush.

24.—African languages.—Bantu group.—East and West African tongues.—Work of missionary philologists.—Swahili.—"An attempt at gathering a number of African languages into one great group was first made in the south of the continent. Here the German Zoölogist Lichtenstein (born 1780) recognized that a whole series of languages had certain very striking peculiarities, their substantives being distinguished by means of prefixes. He saw not only that the system of prefixation was common to them all, but also that the prefixes themselves appeared to be everywhere virtually identical. This discovery was the starting point for the investigation of the Bantu languages [a term introduced by Bleek] which has been the chief preoccupation of the students of African linguistics during the last century. It proved on further inquiry that the area of these languages was much larger than Lichtenstein had assumed to be the case. From the limits of the Bushman and Hottentot region it extends beyond the Equator, both on the eastern and western sides of the continent, and forms a gigantic homogeneous group of closely related tongues, only varied at intervals by scanty remnants of those spoken by the Pygmies and Bushmen, or, in the east and south, by the Hamites and Hottentots. After a number of separate inquiries had been carried out in various parts of the field, it was a German scholar, the late Dr. Bleek, who first attempted to sum up the results arrived at in his *Comparative Grammar of South African Languages*, a comprehensive work published at Cape Town in 1869. The work has remained incomplete, owing to the premature death of the author, but it was, nevertheless, of fundamental importance. Bleek not only recognized the great extent of the Bantu area with approximate completeness and selected the most typical languages for detailed treatment, but he showed the unity of the grammar by means of the noun, in a wholly convincing manner, and followed a number of word-stems quite accurately through a series of languages."—C. Meinhof, *Introduction to the study of African languages*, pp. 28-29.—"The next scientific attempt at a classification of African languages

was made by a Viennese scholar, Friedrich Wilhelm Müller, who divided them into six groups. This arrangement was followed by the late Robert Needham Cust, an Indian official who devoted the leisure of a long life to the study of languages."—A. Werner, *Language-families of Africa*, p. 12.—The Müller here referred to must not be confused with Friedrich Max Müller, the celebrated Sanskrit philologist. "Among many others who, by careful study of a single language, have prepared the way for more accurate knowledge (and who, almost without exception, have been Protestant missionaries), we must mention one man who went to the very root of the problem as no one else had succeeded in doing—Endemann, of the Berlin Missionary Society. He acquired the elements of phonetics, in the first instance, from the well-known *Standard Alphabet* of the Egyptologist Lepsius [1855], and then, with indefatigable zeal and patience, took up the study of Sotho (Sesuto), a language extending over a large part of the Transvaal, and including also the dialects spoken by the Bechwana [Bechuanaland] in the Protectorate, Cape Colony, and Orange Free State, and by natives of Basutoland. His careful observation of sounds led him to the discovery of laws so clear and unerring that the phonetic and grammatical structure of one Bantu language was now absolutely certain. His book is a masterpiece of linguistic accuracy, and has not yet been superseded; whoever wishes to gain any real knowledge of Bantu must turn to Endemann. . . . [He] has now completed his great work, the *Sotho Dictionary*, which will remain the foundation of all lexicography in the Bantu area. . . . Hugo Hahn [was] the first to supply a grammar and dictionary to the Herero language. Along with him we must mention, as having done excellent work in the same language, Brincker, Kolbe, and Viehe,—missionaries like himself. Thus the number of Bantu grammars written in German increased and multiplied. Brincker's great Herero Dictionary was published with the assistance of the Berlin Academy of Sciences, his manual of Kwanyama and Viehe's Herero Grammar by the Seminary for Oriental Languages at Berlin. Thus scientific circles in Germany gradually began to take an interest in the Bantu languages. In East Africa we have to name in the first place the Englishman Edward Steere, Missionary Bishop of Zanzibar. When Otto Kersten was staying at Zanzibar with his Hamburg friend Ruete, he began, under Steere's tuition, the study of Swahili, that interesting language which to-day is of such importance as the official and trade language of East Africa. The German missionaries Krapf and Rebmann—the same to whom we owe such important geographical discoveries in East Africa—had preceded Steere in taking up the languages of that region, and have left us in their books a great abundance of valuable material. . . . Steere was also the first to take down fables and tales from the mouth of the people, thereby opening for us a way to the understanding of East African life and thought. His *Swahili Tales*, which are accompanied by a good English translation, may be recommended to every lover of folk-lore. . . . From the members of these inland tribes he obtained specimens of their vernaculars, and was thus enabled to compile his *Collections toward a Handbook* of Yao (1871), Nyamwezi (1882), Shambala (Zanzibar, 1867, Magila, 1905), and Makonde (Zanzibar, 1876). . . . Among Steere's successors in Swahili work, one man in particular is pre-eminent—Dr. C. G. Büttner, who lived for some time as a missionary in South-West Africa, issued several publications dealing with the Herero language, and subsequently filled the post of

Swahili Lecturer at the Berlin Oriental Seminary. The information on Swahili literature which we owe to him is clearer and more comprehensive than any previously accessible. He not only succeeded in reading Swahili texts written in Arabic characters, but in giving systematic instruction which enabled others to do so too. At that time such instruction was absolutely necessary, as the Arabic character was in universal use, as the German government has only gradually introduced the Latin alphabet for writing Swahili. Büttner also discovered the means of reading the old Swahili poems which were still to be found in East Africa or had been sent home by Krapf many years before, and lay buried in the library of the German Oriental Society at Halle, waiting for a skilled explorer to bring them to light. . . .

"Mention must be made of one more scholar who has done excellent work in the Swahili—the Rev. W. E. Taylor, formerly of the Church Missionary Society. . . . He has, to a certain extent, done for Swahili what Endemann did for Sotho. In his *African Aphorisms*, a collection of proverbs with notes and illustrations, he has provided us with an excellent means of gaining an insight into African psychology. Following on the work of these pioneers, we have a considerable body of literature, produced by writers of varying ability. Considerations of space prevent my dealing with this in detail, or giving a list of individual Bantu languages, of which about two hundred are known to us. I need only refer to the Zulus and other 'Kafirs,' to Uganda, and to Kamerun, and will confine myself to pointing out a few linguistic works of special importance. Heli Chatelein, of Angola, wrote an excellent grammar of the Mbundu language, and made a very pleasing collection of folk-tales. We owe to him the solution of a problem which had worried every one who had tried to learn a Bantu language—the meaning of place names. They are very numerous, and it is difficult to get at their signification; but since Heli Chatelein's time we have been in possession of the secret. Alfred Saker, a Baptist missionary in Kamerun, was the first to reduce to writing the [west] coast language—Duala—of the [former] German colony; while we are indebted to W. Holman Bentley, a missionary of the same society, for a very full Dictionary and Grammar of the Kongo language (London, 1887). . . . We owe to Christaller a good Duala grammar, and to Blank and others a widely circulated Swahili newspaper (the *Kiongozi*, appearing at Tanga). . . . In Pongwe (Gabun), in Swahili, and in the languages of Portuguese East Africa, some works of considerable extent have in recent times been executed by Roman Catholic missionaries, as well as various minor ones which may be passed over here. One which deserves special notice is the *Comparative Grammar of South African Bantu Languages* (London, 1891), written in English by Father Torrend, a Jesuit missionary in Portuguese East Africa."—C. Meinhof, *Introduction to the study of African languages*, pp. 30, 31-37.

25. African languages.—Classification.—Kabye language.—"Modern Languages of Africa [by R. N. Cust, 1883] was the first book to give English readers a comprehensive and systematic view of the subject, and, though it needs some correcting and supplementing here and there, still remains exceedingly useful. In fact, it is, so far, the only one of its kind. The six divisions adopted by Müller and Cust are as follows:—1. Semitic family. 2. Hamitic group. 3. Nuba-Fula group. 4. Negro group. 5. Bantu family. 6. Hottentot-Bushman group. In this book, the above arrangement has

been to some extent modified [by the present writer]. The Nuba-Fula group consisted of languages which did not seem to belong to any of the other divisions, and had to be placed, provisionally, in a class by themselves, though it was doubtful how far any of them were connected with each other. They comprised Fula, spoken over a large area of West Africa; the 'Nubian' languages of the Upper Nile; Masai in East Africa; Azande (Nyamnyam) and Monbutto (Mangbetu) on the northern edge of the Congo basin. This group is now omitted, as fuller knowledge has shown that Fula and Masai are Hamitic languages, while Nuba and the rest have to be placed in the Negro group. 'Hottentot' (note—This is merely a conventional name, used for convenience. As we shall see later on, it covers several different languages, the most important of which, at the present day, is Nama.) again, has been recognized as essentially a Hamitic language; it has therefore been removed from the sixth division; but the Bushman languages (of which there are several, too distinct and important to rank as mere dialects) are retained for the present in a separate class. . . . Müller called the class in which he placed Berber, Somali, Galla, etc., the 'Hamitic group,' because he did not consider their relationship to each other sufficiently clear to warrant their being entitled a family. The progress of research, however, has since shown that they are certainly connected, and we have accordingly entered them as the 'Hamitic family.' In like manner, 'the Negro group' seemed the only possible designation for a large number of languages, many of them very slightly known, spoken in Western and Central Africa. From the materials at the disposal of Müller and Cust, it seemed to make out a few sets of related languages, but not to trace any relationship between these groups. In fact many languages had to be placed in this division for the sole reason that they were neither Bantu, Hamitic, nor Semitic. It has now become evident, chiefly through the labours of Meinhof and Westermann, that there is a distinct family, comprising most of the West African languages (besides several others which extend in a continuous zone across the continent as far as Abyssinia), and possessing marked characteristics of its own. We therefore substitute for the name 'Negro group' that of 'Sudan family.' Several languages included under the old classification have been removed from this division and others (formerly placed in the 'Nuba-Fula group') added to it. We have also slightly altered the order of the divisions. The Sudan family is placed first, because it appears to be the most primitive; while it is believed by those most competent to judge that the Bantu languages are a later development, possibly arising out of the contact between Sudan and Hamitic speech. We therefore place the Bantu family second and the Hamitic family third, followed by the Bushman language, which for the present at any rate, it is desirable to treat separately. The Semitic family comes last, because it is not really indigenous to Africa. We cannot, indeed, be certain that the other languages—the Hamitic ones at any rate—originated in Africa; but, if not, we do not know when they came in, whereas we do know when Punic and Arabic did. . . . Coming back to the five divisions under which African languages are grouped for the purposes of this book, we find them to stand as follows:—1. The Sudan family. . . . 2. The Bantu family. . . . 3. The Hamitic family. . . . 4. The Bushman group. . . . 5. The Semitic family. . . . I. The Sudan family extends from Cape Verde to Abyssinia and comprises probably over two hundred languages, while fresh ones are

continually being brought to light. Among the best known are Wolof (in Senegambia), Mande, or 'Mandingo' (French Guinea and Ivory Coast), Tshi and Gã (Gold Coast), and Kunama (Abyssinia). . . . II. . . . Geographically, [the Bantu languages] . . . come next to the Sudan languages, the borderline being, in many places, very ill-defined, as for instance, in the northern part of the Congo basin. The Bantu extend over the whole of Africa south of the Congo and Lake Victoria, reaching up to the Tana river on the eastern side of the continent; but their area is not quite continuous, being interrupted by islands or 'enclaves' of Masai and Galla in the east, 'Hottentot' in the south, and a few other tribes or fragments of tribes elsewhere. . . . The Bantu family seems to contain as many languages as the Sudan—possibly more. Over three hundred names have been recorded; and, though some of these may have to disappear on closer examination, as being those of mere dialects, or different names for the same language, yet, on the other hand, fresh ones are continually being added to the list. . . . III. The Hamitic family once extended in an unbroken area right across North Africa. The ancient Egyptians spoke a Hamitic tongue, so did the Libyans and Numidians, whose descendants are now known as Berbers and Kabyles. Wedges were driven into this area by the Greek Colony of Cyrene and the Phœnician one of Carthage, and, later on, by the Roman occupation; while, on its southern fringe, many Hamitic peoples have been forced in among a negro population and mixed with them to such an extent that the contact has influenced their language, as has happened to the Hausa, Nandi and Masai. [See also HAMITES, HAMITIC LANGUAGE.] . . . IV. The *Bushman*—the earliest inhabitants of South Africa of whom we have any knowledge—have now all but disappeared from Cape Colony, but are still to be found in the Kalahari Desert and in some parts of the Transvaal. There are a number of different tribes, speaking quite distinct languages. These seem to have some characteristics in common with the Sudan family; but the peculiar click-sounds, of which there are six, if not more, are not found elsewhere except among the Hottentots and (possibly) the Sandawi in East Africa, of whom very little is known. (The clicks in Zulu were borrowed from the Hottentots). . . . V. The principal Semitic language in Africa is Arabic, which came in with the Muhammadan conquerors in the seventh century, and is now spoken throughout Egypt and North Africa, though it has not quite displaced the native Hamitic speech in Algeria and Morocco. Another Semitic language, now quite extinct, is Punic, spoken by the Tyrian colonists who founded Carthage. Ethiopic, or Ge'ez, the old language of Abyssinia (still used in the liturgies of the Abyssinian Church) and its descendant, Amharic (though some scholars appear to entertain a doubt about the latter), are also Semitic, as well as Harari and three or four minor languages of Abyssinia."—A. Werner, *Language-families of Africa*, pp. 12-13, 15-16, 19-20.—"The Kabyles are a people of Berber origin, inhabiting the Djurdjura mountains in Algeria, and also the country south of Cherchel (the Julia Cæsarea of the Romans), and the borders of the Metidja plain, which stretches away to the foot of the Atlas range. They were named by the Arabs from Arabic *Kabail*, plural of *Kabilah*, tribe, race, family. The Kabyles are quite a different nation from the Arabs; being more fit for social progress, and of more laborious habits. . . . The Kabyle language (*Thakaballith*), is of Berber origin, and is not only spoken in the country inhabited by the Kabyles, but also in the highlands

of Mount Atlas, towards Algiers, and in the province of Constantine. . . . It is an unwritten language [but has been reproduced in Roman characters by missionaries]. . . . [It] varies more or less between tribe and tribe, and between village and village; and even in different parts of the same village different words and expressions are used to denote the same thing. Nevertheless, in spite of these variations and different dialects, the basis of the language is the same, and the different tribes are all able to understand each other. The dialects are named Buji, Shieha, Tamazihl, Beni-Menassar, and Gadamsi. The Kabyle contains some words which have an affinity to the dialects anciently spoken in the islands of Teneriffe, Gran Canaria, Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, Gomera, Palma, and Ferro (Hiero). It has also borrowed or formed a very large number of words from the Arabic. The language has no article. When they borrow a noun from the Arabic, they frequently borrow the Arabic article [al] also, but usually drop the vowel; thus *lkadi* [al kadi], *lkursi*, *lkafer*. They do the same in borrowing words from the French; *lgazét'a* [la gazette], *lbureau* [le bureau]."—R. S. Charnock, *Notes on the Kabyle language*.

26. **Romany or Romanés, Gypsy language.**—Mystery of origin.—Appearance in Europe.—Regarded as Egyptian.—Philology indicates derivation from India.—Among the numerous unsolved or half-solved problems presented by the diversity of races, nations and languages, the question of the original home of the ubiquitous gipsy and the derivation of his language is not the least interesting. Wherever they appear on the globe, there the gipsies are invariably considered as being distinct from other nations and races, and are in turn objects of curiosity and aversion, awe and persecution. They were long regarded as too insignificant and contemptible a race to be worthy of literary notice; but during the last 150 years numerous researches have been instituted concerning their origin and history. The oldest and most widely-spread theory was that they came from Egypt. In consequence of this belief, created by the earliest gipsy arrivals themselves in Europe during the 15th century, most countries conferred upon them names denoting "Egyptians." Early in the 9th century they were known in Byzantium (Constantinople); by 1500 they had spread all over Europe, and in a more recent period to Australia and America. Persecution has been their share in almost every country; only in Russia and Hungary are they thoroughly "at home." There is some doubt as to who was the first to discover the Indian origin of the gipsies through the instrumentality of philology. Some attribute the discovery to Ruediger, a German, given variously as 1777 and 1782; Grellmann, also a German, and William Marsden, an Irishman, both in 1783. There is reason to believe that these three investigators, working independently, arrived at the same conclusion about the same time, a not unusual occurrence in the realms of invention and discovery. Marsden had spent some years in India and become acquainted with several Indian languages. In 1783 he addressed a paper to Sir Joseph Banks, president of the Royal Society, entitled "Observations on the Language of the People commonly known as Gypsies," to be read before a meeting of the Society. It runs, in part, thus: "It has long been surmised that the vagrant tribes of people called in this country *Gypsies* . . . were of Eastern origin. The name has been supposed a corruption of *Egyptian*, and some learned persons have judged it not improbable that their language might be traced to the *Coptic*. . . . I was surprised to find

many of the words contained in the specimen familiar to my eye, and pointed out to Sir Joseph Banks (in the latter end of the year 1783) their evident correspondence with terms in the *Hindustanic*, or as it is vulgarly termed in India, the *Moors'* language. . . . Notwithstanding that the resemblance to the Hindostanic is the predominant feature in the Gypsy dialect, yet there are words interspersed which evidently coincide with other languages. Beside the *Mahratta* and *Bengalese*, which I have marked in the comparative specimen, it is not a little singular that the terms for the numerals *seven*, *eight*, and *nine*, are purely Greek, although the first *five*, and that for *ten*, are indisputably *Indian*. It is also a curious observation, that although the Indian term for *seven*, being *saath*, differs from the Gypsey, yet that for a *week*, or *seven* days, is the *Eftan* of the latter. One word only, among those which I have examined, bears a resemblance to the *Coptic*, which is *rom*, the same with *romi*, a man."—*Annual Register*, 1784-1785, pt. 2, pp. 81-83.—Franz Pott's "Die Zigeuner in Europa und Asien" made its first appearance in 1844. This was the first great and authoritative work on the gipsies and their language. "However, perhaps the most scientific contribution to our knowledge of the gipsy language was the learned work of Franz Miklosich, an Austrian philologist, who in 1873 published his 'Über die Mundarten und die Wanderungen der Zigeuner Europas.' On purely philological grounds Miklosich divided the gipsies of Europe into thirteen classes:—1. Greek (including those in the Balkans and Turkish territory); 2. Rumanian; 3. Hungarian; 4. Moravian-Bohemian; 5. German; 6. Polish-Lithuanian; 7. Russian; 8. Finnish; 9. Scandinavian; 10. Italian; 11. Basque; 12. English-Scottish, and 13. Spanish. He made a comparative study of the great geographical varieties of the gipsy dialect in Europe. In the vocabulary of the English-Scottish gipsies he found Greek, Slavonic, Rumanian, Magyar, French and German ingredients, specifying thirty Slavonic and a like number of Greek words which constituted the most important foreign elements in Anglo-Romany, concluding from this evidence that the gipsies entered England after they had sojourned among Greeks, Slavs, Magyars, Germans and the French."—*Notes and queries, Fourth series*, v. 2, p. 462.—See also GYPSIES.

27. **Malayo-Polynesian languages.**—"The Polynesian races, sometimes called Kanakas, inhabit the islands of the Pacific Ocean. Their relatives are found on the island of Madagascar in Eastern Continental Africa, in that region which may be considered as the Ophir of Solomon, and among the Navajoes living on the western frontier of the United States, between California and Arizona. . . . Between the American and Australian continents, from the Arctic to the Antarctic ice-mountains, more than 10,000 islands are situated, some high, beautiful, rich, of volcanic origin, but most of them small, barren reefs, only yielding cocoa-nut, bananas, bread-fruit, and abundant fish. . . . The immense extent of the water surface between the different island groups and their insulation account for the great variety of dialects in the Polynesian languages, of which there are fifty-nine. . . . Polynesian and Malayan are often grouped together, because they are nearest neighbours on the world's surface. It is true that Malayan words, filtered through Micronesian and Melanesian channels, have been received into Polynesian dialects; but they are foreign words, as are the many which we [the British] had to introduce in our Bible translations, very often for tribes that, with their dialects, are dying away into oblivion. As different as

the Kanaka is from the Malay in form, figure, and complexion, so much is his language different and original, more related to the Aryan family than to any other . . . As a curious incident of Aryan relationship, we may state that Normans and Kanakas call the Ursa Major by the same name, and give it the same signification, though on the low coral islands there never had been a waggon and it is impossible to find the slightest resemblance to a canoe in the constellation. . . . The migrating Polynesians, never having seen the original waggon, still brought, in the names of their stars, a remembrance of their old home to these distant islands, thus showing their relationship to their brethren far north."—E. Schneider, *Polynesian races and linguistics* (pamphlet).—"The island of Madagascar may be said to possess one language. Varieties of dialect exist, of course, but are not so numerous that people residing in different parts cannot understand each other, some practice enabling them to sustain a conversation. The principal varieties consist more in a different pronunciation than in an entire change in the words themselves, or in the structure of the sentences. The Malagasy chiefs use in their legislative discussions an ornamental language, consisting of rather high-sounding words that paraphrase the idea, and are easily understood by the context. The Malagasy belongs unquestionably to the stock of languages which have been denominated Malayo-Polynesian, and more particularly to the great Western Branch, which comprehends the languages of the lank-haired races of the Indian Archipelago and the Philippines."—H. N. Van der Tuuk, *Outlines of a grammar of the Malagasy language* (*Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, v. 1, p. 419).—See also MALAY, MALAYSIAN OR BROWN, RACE; PACIFIC OCEAN: People; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Language.

28. **American languages.** See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Linguistic characteristics; ANDESANS; ANTHROPOLOGY: Linguistics; ARCHEOLOGY: Importance of American field; MEXICO: Aboriginal peoples; PERU: Paternal despotism of the Incas; TUPI.

29. **Chinese language.** See CHINA: Languages and dialects; 1918 (November).

30. **Japanese language.** See JAPAN: Language. See also EUROPE: Language map.

ALSO IN: H. B. Alexander, *Foreign language study*.—H. A. Atkins and H. L. Hutton, *Teaching of modern foreign languages in school and university*.—L. Bloomfield, *Introduction to the study of language*.—H. Bradley, *On the relations between spoken and written language, with special reference to English*.—J. Clark, *Lexicological evolution and conceptual progress*.—A. T. Clay, *Miscellaneous inscriptions in the Yale Babylonian collection*.—B. Delbrück, *Introduction to the study of languages*.—F. Delitzsch and P. Haupt, *Contributions to Assyriology and Semitic philology*.—A. E. Drake, *Discoveries in Hebrew, Gaelic, Gothic, Anglo-Saxon, Latin, Basque, and other Caucasian languages*.—J. M. Edmonds, *Introduction to comparative philology for classical students*.—F. Farrar, *Language and languages*.—E. W. Fay, *Important defects in Indo-European phonology*.—Idem, *Indo-European verbal flexion was analytical*.—H. Gehman, *Interpreters of foreign languages among the ancients*.—P. Giles, *Short manual of comparative philology*.—G. E. Grierson, ed., *Linguistic survey of India*.—R. S. Guernsey, *Human facility and power to transmit and record language*.—R. J. Isard, *Hints on language*.—J. James, *Language of Palestine and adjacent regions*.—T. R. Lounsbury, *History of the English language*.—D. MacDonald, *Oceanic languages: Their grammatical structure, vocabulary*

and origin.—A. A. Macdonnell, *Vedic grammar for students*.—Modern Language Association of America Publications.—M. Müller, *Science of language*.—H. Oertel, *Lectures on the study of language*.—T. Papillon, *Manual of comparative philology*.—W. Patterson, *Language student's manual*.—A. Poebel, *Historical and grammatical [Assyro-Babylonian] texts*.—E. Sapir, *History and varieties of human speech*.—A. H. Sayce, *Principles of comparative philology*.—Idem, *Introduction to the science of language*.—Idem, *Archæology of cuneiform inscriptions*.—F. Von Schlegel, *Philosophy of language*.—W. W. Skeat, *Primer of classical and English philology*.—H. A. Strong, et al., *Introduction to the study of the history of language*.—H. Sweet, *History of English sounds*.—Idem, *History of language*.—Idem, *Practical study of languages*.—T. J. Tucker, *Introduction to the natural history of language*.—A. C. von Noé, *New classification of languages and literatures by the library of Congress*.—G. Waterhouse, ed., *Year book of Modern Languages, 1920*.—G. Willis, *Philosophy of speech*.—W. Wright, *Lectures on the comparative grammar of Semitic languages*.

Periodicals.—Numerous periodicals devoted to philology are issued in America and most European countries. Among the more prominent publications are: United States: *American Journal of Philology*; *American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literature*; *Classical Philology*; *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology*; *Journal of the American Oriental Society*; *Modern Language Association of America*; *Modern Language Notes*. Great Britain: *Classical Quarterly*; *Classical Review*; *Journal of Philology*; *Modern Language Review*; *Proceedings and Translations of the Philological Societies of London and Cambridge*. France: *Mémoires de la Société de Linguistique de Paris*. Germany: *Bensley's Orient und Occident*; *Glotta*; *Indogermanische Forschungen*; *Kuhn's Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung*; *Wörter und Sachen*.

PHILOPEMEN (252-183 B. C.), Greek general and statesman. See MESSENE: B. C. 184.

PHILOSOPHY. See AGNOSTICISM; ATHEISM; AVERROISM; ECLECTICISM; EPICUREANISM; ETHICS; GNOSTICS; NEOPLATONISM; PHYSIOCRATS; POSITIVISM; TAOISM; THEOSOPHY; also under names of philosophers, as BACON, FRANCIS; DESCARTES, RENÉ; KANT, IMMANUEL; etc.

Ancient Greece. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 7th-A. D. 3rd centuries: Greece: Socrates and the philosophical schools; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization: Philosophy; ATHENS: B. C. 461-431; also under names of philosophers, as ARISTOTLE; PLATO; PYTHAGORAS; etc.

Middle Ages. See EUROPE: Middle Ages: Roman civilization inherited, etc.; Middle Ages: 13th century, etc.; EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries: Scholasticism; CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Period of growth and struggle; 100-300: Church organization; 17th-20th centuries.

Relation to philology. See PHILOLOGY: 3.

PHILOSOPHY OF HISTORY. See HISTORY: 2; 15; 18; 27.

PHILOSTRATUS, Flavius (fl. 193-235), Greek sophist. See GREEK LITERATURE: Greco-Roman period: History.

PHILO-ZIONISTS. See JEWS: Zionism: 1897-1918.

PHIPPS, Henry (1839-), American financier and philosopher. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: India; GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

PHIPS, or Phipps, Sir William (1651-1695), first royal governor of Massachusetts, 1692-1695. See U. S. A.: 1690; CANADA: 1689-1690.

PHLIUS, Siege of (380 B.C.).—Phlius, the chief city of the small mountain state of Phliasia, in the northeastern corner of Peloponnesus, adjoining Argos and Arcadia, made an heroic effort, 380 B.C., to maintain its liberties against Sparta. Under a valiant leader, Delphion, it endured a siege which lasted more than an entire year. When forced to surrender, in the end, it was treated with terrible severity by the Spartan king, Agesilaus.—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 5, ch. 5.

PHLOGISTON PERIOD: In chemistry. See **CHEMISTRY:** General; Phlogiston period.

PHOCÆANS, or Phokæans.—"The citizens of Phocæa had been the last on the coast-line of Ionia [see **ASIA MINOR:** B.C. 1100] to settle down to a condition of tranquillity. They had no building-ground but a rocky peninsula, where they found so little space over which to spread at their ease that this very circumstance made them a thorough people of sailors. In accordance with their local situation they had turned to the waters of the Pontus, established settlements on the Dardanelles and the Black Sea, and taken part in the trade with Egypt. Here however they were unable to hold their own by the side of the Milesians, . . . and the Phocæans accordingly saw themselves obliged to look westward and to follow the direction of Chalcidian navigation. . . . It was thus that the Ionian Phocæans came into the western sea. Being forced from the first to accustom themselves to long and distant voyages, instead of the easy summer trips of the other maritime cities, they became notably bold and heroic sailors. They began where the rest left off; they made voyages of discovery into regions avoided by others; they remained at sea even when the skies already showed signs of approaching winter and the observation of the stars became difficult. They built their ships long and slim, in order to increase their agility; their merchant vessels were at the same time men-of-war. . . . They entered those parts of the Adriatic which most abound in rocks, and circumnavigated the islands of the Tyrrhenian sea in spite of the Carthaginian guard-ships; they sought out the bays of Campania and the mouths of the Tiber and Arnus; they proceeded farther, past the Alpine ranges, along the coast as far as the mouth of the Rhodanus, and finally reached Iberia, with whose rich treasures of precious metals they had first become acquainted on the coast of Italy. . . . During the period when Ionia began to be hard pressed by the Lydians, the Phocæans, who had hitherto contented themselves with small commercial settlements, in their turn proceeded to the foundation of cities in Gaul and Iberia. The mouth of the Rhodanus [the Rhone] was of especial importance to them for the purposes of land and sea trade. . . . Massalia [modern Marseilles], from the forty-fifth Olympiad [B.C. 600] became a fixed seat of Hellenic culture in the land of the Celts, despite the hostility of the piratical tribes of Liguria and the Punic fleet. Large fisheries were established on the shore; and the stony soil in the immediate vicinity of the city itself was converted into vine and olive plantations. The roads leading inland were made level, which brought the products of the country to the mouth of the Rhone; and in the Celtic towns were set up mercantile establishments, which collected at Massalia the loads of British tin, of inestimable value for the manufacture of copper, while wine and oil, as well as works of art, particularly copper utensils, were supplied to the interior. A totally new horizon opened for Hellenic inquiry."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 2, ch. 3.—See also **ASIA MINOR:** B.C. 724-539.

PHOCAS (d. 610), Roman emperor (Eastern), 602-610.

PHOCAS, Nicephorus. See **NICEPHORUS II.**

PHOCIANS.—"The Phokians [in ancient Greece] were bounded on the north by the little territories called Doris and Dryopis, which separated them from the Malians,—on the north-east, east and south-west by the different branches of Lokrians,—and on the south-east by the Bœotians. [See **GREECE:** Map of ancient Greece.] They touched the Eubæan sea . . . at Daphnus, the point where it approaches nearest to their chief town, Elateia; their territory also comprised most part of the lofty and bleak range of Parnassus, as far as its southerly termination, where a lower portion of it, called Kirphis, projects into the Corinthian Gulf, between the two bays of Antikyra and Krissa; the latter, with its once fertile plain, was in proximity to the sacred rock of the Delphian Apollo. Both Delphi and Krissa originally belonged to the Phokian race. But the sanctity of the temple, together with Lacedæmonian aid, enabled the Delphians to set up for themselves, disavowing their connexion with the Phokian brotherhood. Territorially speaking, the most valuable part of Phokis consisted in the valley of the river Kephissus. . . . It was on the projecting mountain ledges and rocks on each side of this river that the numerous little Phokian towns were situated. Twenty-two of them were destroyed and broken up into villages by the Amphiktyonic order after the second Sacred War."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 3.

B.C. 480.—At the battle of Thermopylæ. See **GREECE:** B.C. 480; Persian wars: Thermopylæ.

B.C. 458-456.—War with Athens. See **GREECE:** B.C. 458-456.

B.C. 449-445.—Quarrel with Delphians. See **GREECE:** B.C. 449-445; **SACRED WAR:** Second.

B.C. 357-336.—In the Sacred Wars.—Destruction by Philip of Macedon. See **GREECE:** B.C. 357-336; **MACEDONIA:** B.C. 345-336.

PHOCION (c. 402-317 B.C.), Athenian general and statesman. See **GREECE:** B.C. 321-312; **ATHENS:** B.C. 359-338.

PHŒNICIAN ALPHABET AND LANGUAGES. See **ALPHABET:** Theories of origin and development; **PHILOLOGY:** 15.

PHŒNICIANS: Origin and early history.—Commerce.—Colonies.—"The traditions of the Phœnicians collected at Tyre itself by Herodotus; . . . those of the inhabitants of Southern Arabia preserved by Strabo; and, finally, those still current in Babylonia during the first centuries of the Christian era, when the Syro-Chaldee original of the book of 'Nabathæan Agriculture' was revised—all agree in stating that the Canaanites at first lived near the Cushites, their brethren in race, on the banks of the Erythræan Sea, or Persian Gulf, on that portion of the coast of Bahrein designated El Katif on our modern maps of Arabia. Pliny speaks of a land of Canaan in this neighbourhood, in his time. . . . According to Trogus Pompeius, the Canaanites were driven from their first settlements by earthquakes, and then journeyed towards Southern Syria. The traditions preserved in 'Nabathæan Agriculture' state, on the contrary, that they were violently expelled, in consequence of a quarrel with the Cushite monarchs of Babylon of the dynasty of Nimrod; and this is also the account given by the Arabian historians. . . . The entry of the Canaanites into Palestine, and their settlement in the entire country situated between the sea and the valley of Jordan, must . . . be placed between the period when the twelfth dynasty governed Egypt and that when the Elamite

king, Chedorlaomer, reigned as suzerain over all the Tigro-Euphrates basin. This brings us approximately between 2400 and 2300 B.C. . . . The Sidonians formed the first settlement, and always remained at the head of the Phœnician nation, which, at all periods of its history, even when joined by other peoples of the same race, called itself both 'Canaanite' and 'Sidonian.' . . . The Greek name, Phœnicians, of unknown origin, must not be applied to the whole of the nations of the race of Canaan who settled in Southern Syria; it belongs to the Canaanites of the sea coast only, who were always widely separated from the others. Phœnicia, in both classical history and geography, is merely that very narrow tract of land, hemmed in by mountains and sea, extending from Aradus on the north to the town of Acco on the south."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history of the East*, bk. 6, ch. 1.—"Renan sums up the evidence when he says: 'The greater number of modern critics admit it as demonstrated, that the primitive abode of the Phœnicians must be placed on the Lower Euphrates, in the centre of the great commercial and maritime establishments of the Persian Gulf, conformably to the unanimous witness of antiquity.' The date, the causes, and the circumstances of the migration are involved in equal obscurity. The motive for it assigned by Justin is absurd, since no nation ever undertook a long and difficult migration on account of an earthquake. If we may resort to conjecture we should be inclined to suggest that the spirit of adventure gave the first impulse, and that afterwards the unexampled facilities for trade, which the Mediterranean coast was found to possess, attracted a continuous flow of immigrants from the sea of the Rising to that of the Setting Sun."—G. Rawlinson, *Story of Phœnicia*, ch. 2.—Idem, *History of Phœnicia*, ch. 3.—"The campaigns which the Pharaohs undertook against Syria and the land of the Euphrates after the expulsion of the Shepherds could not leave these cities [Sidon and others] unmoved. If the Zemar of the inscriptions of Tuthmosis III. is Zemar (Simyra) near Aradus, and Arathutu is Aradus itself, the territories of these cities were laid waste by this king in his sixth campaign (about the year 1580 B.C.) ; if Arkatu is Arka, south of Aradus, this place must have been destroyed in his fifteenth campaign (about the year 1570 B.C.). Sethos I. (1440-1400 B.C.) subdued the land of Limanon (i. e. the region of Lebanon), and caused cedars to be felled there. One of his inscriptions mentions Zor, i. e. Tyre, among the cities conquered by him. The son and successor of Sethos I., Ramses II., also forced his way in the first decades of the fourteenth century as far as the coasts of the Phœnicians. At the mouth of the Nahr el Kelb, between Sidon and Berytus, the rocks on the coast display the memorial which he caused to be set up in the second and third year of his reign in honour of the successes obtained in this region. In the fifth year of his reign Ramses, with the king of the Cheta, defeats the king of Arathu in the neighbourhood of Kadeshu on the Orontes, and Ramses III., about the year 1310 B.C., mentions beside the Cheta who attack Egypt the people of Arathu, by which name in the one case as in the other, may be meant the warriors of Aradus. If Arathu, like Arathutu, is Aradus, it follows, from the position which Ramses II. and III. give to the princes of Arathu, that beside the power to which the kingdom of the Hittites had risen about the middle of the fifteenth century B.C., and which it maintained to the end of the fourteenth, the Phœnician cities had assumed an independent position. The

successes of the Pharaohs in Syria come to an end in the first decades of the fourteenth century. Egypt makes peace and enters into a contract of marriage with the royal house of the Cheta. . . . The overthrow of the kingdom of the Hittites, which succumbed to the attack of the Amorites soon after the year 1300 B.C., must have had a reaction on the cities of the Phœnicians. Expelled Hittites must have been driven to the coast-land, or have fled thither, and in the middle of the thirteenth century the successes gained by the Hebrews who broke in from the East, over the Amorites, the settlement of the Hebrews on the mountains of the Amorites [see Jews: Conquest of Canaan; Early Semitic migrations], must again have thrown the vanquished, i. e. the fugitives of this nation, towards the coast. With this retirement of the older strata of the population of Canaan to the coast is connected the movement which from this period emanates from the coasts of the Phœnicians, and is directed towards the islands of the Mediterranean and the Ægean. It is true that on this subject only the most scanty statements and traces, only the most legendary traditions have come down to us, so that we can ascertain these advances only in the most wavering outlines. One hundred miles to the west off the coast of Phœnicia lies the island of Cyprus. . . . The western writers state that before the time of the Trojan war Belus had conquered and subjugated the island of Cyprus, and that Citium belonged to Belus. The victorious Belus is the Baal of the Phœnicians. The date of the Trojan war is of no importance for the settlement of the Phœnicians in Cyprus, for this statement is found in Virgil only. More important is the fact that the settlers brought the Babylonian cuneiform writing to Cyprus. . . . The settlement of the Sidonians in Cyprus must therefore have taken place before the time in which the alphabetic writing, i. e., the writing specially known as Phœnician, was in use in Syria, and hence at the latest before 1100 B.C. . . . In the beginning of the tenth century B.C. the cities of Cyprus stood under the supremacy of the king of Tyre. The island was of extraordinary fertility. The forests furnished wood for shipbuilding; the mountains concealed rich veins of the metal which has obtained the name of copper from this island. Hence it was a very valuable acquisition, an essential strengthening of the power of Sidon in the older, and Tyre in the later period. . . . As early as the fifteenth century B.C., we may regard the Phœnician cities as the central points of a trade branching east and west, which must have been augmented by the fact that they conveyed not only products of the Syrian land to the Euphrates and the Nile, but could also carry the goods which they obtained in exchange in Egypt to Babylonia, and what they obtained beyond the Euphrates to Egypt. At the same time the fabrics of Babylon and Egypt roused them to emulation, and called forth an industry among the Phœnicians which we see producing woven stuffs, vessels of clay and metal, ornaments and weapons, and becoming pre-eminent in the colouring of stuffs with the liquor of the purple-fish which are found on the Phœnician coasts. This industry required above all things metals, of which Babylonia and Egypt were no less in need, and when the purple-fish of their own coasts were no longer sufficient for their extensive dyeing, colouring-matter had to be obtained. Large quantities of these fish produced a proportionately small amount of the dye. Copper-ore was found in Cyprus, gold in the island of Thasos, and purple-fish on the coasts of Hellas. When the fall of the kingdom of the Hittites and the overthrow of the

Amorite princes in the south of Canaan augmented the numbers of the population on the coast, these cities were no longer content to obtain those possessions of the islands by merely landing and making exchanges with the inhabitants. Intercourse with semi-barbarous tribes must be protected by the sword. Good harbours were needed. . . . Thus arose protecting forts on the distant islands and coasts, which received the ships of the native land. . . . In order to obtain the raw material necessary for their industry no less than to carry off the surplus of population the Phœnicians were brought to colonise Cyprus, Rhodes, Crete [see CRETE: Government], Thera, Melos, OIarus, Samothrace, Imbros, Lemnos and Thasos. In the bays of Laconia and Argos, in the straits of Eubœa, purple-fish were found in extraordinary quantities. . . . We may conclude that the Phœnicians must have set foot on Cyprus about the year 1250 B.C., and on the islands and coasts of Hellas about the year 1200 B.C. Thucydides observes that in ancient times the Phœnicians had occupied the promontories of Sicily and the small islands lying around Sicily, in order to carry on trade with the Sicels. [See also SICILY: Phœnician and Greek colonies.] Diodorus Siculus tells us that when the Phœnicians extended their trade to the western ocean they settled in the island of Melite (Malta), owing to its situation in the middle of the sea, and excellent harbours, in order to have a refuge for their ships. [See MALTA, ISLAND OF: Importance of history.] . . . On Sardinia also, as Diodorus tells us, the Phœnicians planted many colonies. The mountains of Sardinia contained iron, silver, and lead. . . . The legend of the Greeks makes Heracles, i. e. Baal Melkarth, lord of the whole West. As a fact, the colonies of the Phœnicians went beyond Sardinia in this direction. Their first colonies on the north coast of Africa appear to have been planted where the shore runs out nearest Sicily; Hippo was apparently regarded as the oldest colony. In the legends of the coins mentioned above Hippo is named beside Tyre and Citium as a daughter of Sidon. . . . Ityke (atak, settlement, Utica), on the mouth of the Bagradas (Medsherdia), takes the next place after this Hippo, if indeed it was not founded before it. Aristotle tells us that the Phœnicians stated that Ityke was built 287 years before Carthage, and Pliny maintains that Ityke was founded 1,178 years before his time. As Carthage was founded in the year 846 B.C. [see CARTHAGE: Founding of] Ityke, according to Aristotle's statement, was built in the year 1133 B.C. With this the statement of Pliny agrees. He wrote in the years 52-77 A.D., and therefore he places the foundation of Ityke in the year 1126 or 1100 B.C. About the same time, i. e. about the year 1100 B.C., the Phœnicians had already reached much further to the west. . . . When their undertakings succeeded according to their desire and they had collected great treasures, they resolved to traverse the sea beyond the pillars of Heracles, which is called Oceanus. First of all, on their passage through these pillars, they founded upon a peninsula of Europe a city which they called Gadeira. . . . This foundation of Gades, which on the coins is called Gadir and Agadir, i. e. wall, fortification, the modern Cadiz, and without doubt the most ancient city in Europe which has preserved its name, is said to have taken place in the year 1100 B.C. [See also CADIZ: B.C. 1130.] If Ityke was founded before 1100 B.C. or about that time, we have no reason to doubt the founding of Gades soon after that date. Hence the ships of the Phœnicians would have reached the ocean about the time when Tiglath Pileser I. left the Tigris with his army, trod the north of Syria,

and looked on the Mediterranean."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, v. 3, bk. 3, ch. 3.—See also CANAAN; COMMERCE: Ancient: B.C. 1000.—"The typical Phœnician colony was only a trading station, inhabited by dealers, who had not ceased to be counted as citizens of the parent State. . . . In Phœnicia itself the chief object of public interest was the maintenance and extension of foreign trade. The wealth of the country depended on the profits of the merchants, and it was therefore the interest of the Government to encourage and protect the adventures of the citizens. Unlike the treasures or curiosities imported by the fleets of royal adventurers, Phœnician imports were not intended to be consumed within the country, but to be exchanged for the most part for other commodities. The products of all lands were brought to market there, and the market people, after supplying all their own wants in kind, still had commodities to sell at a profit to the rest of the world. The Government did not seek to retain a monopoly of this profit; on the contrary, private enterprise seems to have been more untrammelled than at any time before the



PHŒNICIAN SILVER PLATE

(Original in the Kircher Museum at Rome)

present century. But individuals and the State were agreed in desiring to retain a monopoly of foreign traffic as against the rest of the world, hence the invention of 'Phœnician lies' about the dangers of the sea, and the real dangers which 'Tyrian seas' came to possess for navigators of any other nation. . . . Phœnician traders were everywhere first in the field, and it was easy for them to persuade their barbarous customers that foreigners of any other stock were dangerous and should be treated as enemies. They themselves relied more on stratagem than on open warfare to keep the seas, which they considered their own, free from other navigators. . . . Silver and gold, wool and purple, couches inlaid with ivory, Babylonish garments and carpets, unguents of all sorts, female slaves and musicians, are indicated by the comic poets as forming part of the typical cargo of a Phœnician merchantman, the value of which in many cases would reach a far higher figure than a small ship-owner or captain could command. As a consequence, a good deal of banking or money-lending business was done by the wealthy members of the great Corporation of Merchants and Ship-owners. The Phœnicians had an evil reputation with the other nations of the Mediterranean for sharp practices, and the custom of lending money at interest was

considered, of course wrongly, a Phœnician invention, though it is possible that they led the way in the general substitution of loans at interest for the more primitive use of antichretic pledges. . . . To the Greeks the name Phœnician seems to have called up the same sort of association as those which still cling to the name of Jew in circles which make no boast of tolerance; and it is probable enough that the first, like the second, great race of wandering traders was less scrupulous in its dealings with aliens than compatriots. . . . So far as the Punic race may be supposed to have merited its evil reputation, one is tempted to account for the fact by the character of its principal staples. All the products of all the countries of the world circulated in Phœnician merchantmen, but the two most considerable, and most profitable articles of trade in which they dealt were human beings and the precious metals. The Phœnicians were the slave-dealers and the money-changers of the Old World. And it is evident that a branch of trade, which necessarily follows the methods of piracy, is less favourable to the growth of the social virtues than the cultivation of the ground, the domestication of animals, or the arts and manufactures by which the products of nature are applied to new and varied uses. Compared with the trade in slaves, that in metals—gold, silver, copper and tin—must seem innocent and meritorious; yet the experience of ages seems to show that, somehow or other, mining is not a moralizing industry. . . . Sidon was famous in Homer's time for copper or bronze, and Tyre in Solomon's for bronze (the 'brass' of the Authorized); and the Phœnicians retailed the work of all other metallurgists as well as their own, as they retailed the manufactures of Egypt and Babylonia, and the gums and spices of Arabia. [See ARABIA: Ancient succession, etc.] . . . Two things are certain with regard to the continental commerce of Europe before the written history of its northern countries begins. Tin and amber were conveyed by more than one route from Cornwall and the North Sea to Mediterranean ports. In the latter case the traders proceeded up the Rhine and the Aar, along the Jura to the Rhone, and thence down to Marseilles; and also across the Alps, by a track forking off, perhaps at Grenoble, into the valley of the Po, and so to the Adriatic. . . . Apart from the Phœnician sea trade, Cornish tin was conveyed partly by water to Armorica and to Marseilles through the west of France; but also to the east of England (partly overland by the route known later as the Pilgrims' Way), and from the east of Kent, possibly to the seat of the amber trade, as well as to a route through the east of France, starting from the short Dover crossing."—E. J. Simcox, *Primitive civilizations*, v. 1, pp. 397-402.—See also COMMERCE: Ancient: B. C. 1000-600; B. C. 1000-200.—"The epigraphic texts left us by the Phœnicians are too short and dry to give us any of those vivid glimpses into the past that the historian loves. When we wish to make the men of Tyre and Sidon live again, when we try to see them as they moved in those seven or eight centuries during which they were supreme in the Mediterranean, we have to turn to the Greeks, to Herodotus and Homer, for the details of our picture; it is in their pages that we are told how these eastern traders made themselves indispensable to the half-savage races of Europe. . . . The Phœnicians carried on their trade in a leisurely way. It consisted for the most part in exchanging their manufactured wares for the natural produce of the countries they visited; it was in conformity with the spirit of the time, and, although it inspired distrust, it was regular enough in its methods. Stories

told by both Homer and Herodotus show them to us as abductors of women and children, but in the then state of the world even deeds like those described would soon be forgotten, and after a time the faithless traders would be readmitted for the sake of the wares they brought. . . . Seeing how great their services were to the civilization of Greece and Rome, [see EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization] and how admirable were those virtues of industry, activity, and splendid courage that they brought to their work, how is it that the classic writers speak of the Phœnicians with so little sympathy? and why does the modern historian, in spite of his breadth and freedom from bias, find it difficult to treat them even with justice? It is because, in spite of their long relations with them, the peoples of Greece and Italy never learnt to really know the Phœnicians or to understand their language, and, to answer the second question, because our modern historians are hardly better informed. Between Greece and Rome on the one hand and Phœnicia and Carthage on the other, there was a barrier which was never beaten down. They traded and fought, but they never concluded a lasting and cordial peace; they made no effort to comprehend each other's nature, but retained their mutual, ignorant antipathy to the very end. . . . That full justice has never been done to the Phœnicians is partly their own fault. They were moved neither by the passion for truth nor by that for beauty; they cared only for gain, and thanks to the condition of the world at the time they entered upon the scene, they could satisfy that lust to the full. In the barter trade they carried on for so many centuries the advantage must always have been for the more civilized, and the Phœnicians used and abused that advantage. Tyre and Sidon acquired prodigious wealth; the minds of their people were exclusively occupied with the useful; they were thinking always of the immediate profit to themselves in every transaction; and to such a people the world readily denies justice, to say nothing of indulgence. . . . No doubt it may be said that it was quite without their goodwill that the Phœnicians helped other nations to shake off barbarism and to supply themselves with the material of civilized life. That, of course, is true, but it does not diminish the importance of the results obtained through their means. Phœnicia appropriated for herself all the inventions and recipes of the old eastern civilizations and by more than one happy discovery, and especially by the invention of the alphabet she added to the value of the treasure thus accumulated. Whether she meant it or not, she did, as a fact, devote her energies to the dissemination of all this precious knowledge from the very day on which she entered into relations with those tribes on the Grecian islands and on the continent of Europe which were as yet strangers to political life. . . . At the time of their greatest expansion, the true Phœnicians numbered, at the very most, a few hundreds of thousands. It was with such scanty numbers that they contrived to be present everywhere, to construct ports of refuge for their ships, factories for their merchants and warehouses for their goods. These 'English of antiquity,' as they have been so well called, upheld their power by means very similar to those employed by England, who has succeeded for two centuries in holding together her vast colonial empire by a handful of soldiers and a huge fleet of ships. The great difference lies in the fact that Tyre made no attempt to subjugate and govern the nations she traded with."—G. Perrot and C. Chipiez *History of art in Phœnicia*, v 2, ch. 6.—The ascendancy among Phœnician cities passed at some

early day from Sidon to Tyre, and the decline of the former has been ascribed to an attack from the Philistines of Ascalon, which occurred about 1250 or 1200 B.C.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *History of Phœnicia*, ch. 14.—See also COLONIZATION: Ancient Greek, Roman and Phœnician.

B.C. 850-538.—Subjection to Assyria and Babylonia.—About 850 B.C. "the military expeditions of the Assyrians began to reach Southern Syria, and Phœnician independence seems to have been lost. We cannot be sure that the submission was continuous; but from the middle of the ninth till past the middle of the eighth century there occur in the contemporary monuments of Assyria plain indications of Phœnician subjection, while there is no evidence of resistance or revolt. . . . About B.C. 743 the passive submission of Phœnicia to the Assyrian yoke began to be exchanged for an impatience of it, and frequent efforts were made, from this date till Nineveh fell, to re-establish Phœnician independence. These efforts for the most part failed; but it is not improbable that finally, amid the troubles under which the Assyrian empire succumbed, success crowned the nation's patriotic exertions, and autonomy was recovered. . . . Scarcely, however, had Assyria fallen when a new enemy appeared upon the scene. Nechoh of Egypt, about B.C. 608, conquered the whole tract between his own borders and the Euphrates. Phœnicia submitted or was reduced, and remained for three years an Egyptian dependency. Nebuchadnezzar, in B.C. 605, after his defeat of Nechoh at Carchemish, added Phœnicia to Babylon; and, though Tyre revolted from him eight years later, B.C. 598, and resisted for thirteen years all his attempts to reduce her, yet at length she was compelled to submit, and the Babylonian yoke was firmly fixed on the entire Phœnician people. It is not quite certain that they did not shake it off upon the death of the great Babylonian king; but, on the whole, probability is in favour of their having remained subject till the conquest of Babylon by Cyrus, B.C. 538."—G. Rawlinson, *Manuel of ancient history*, bk. 1, pt. 1, sect. 6.—"It appears to have been only a few years after Nebuchadnezzar's triumphant campaign against Neco that renewed troubles broke out in Syria. Phœnicia revolted under the leadership of Tyre; and about the same time Jehoiakim, the Jewish king, having obtained a promise of aid from the Egyptians, renounced his allegiance. Upon this, in his seventh year (B.C. 598), Nebuchadnezzar proceeded once more into Palestine at the head of a vast army, composed partly of his allies, the Medes, partly of his own subjects. He first invested Tyre; but finding that city too strong to be taken by assault, he left a portion of his army to continue the siege, while he himself pressed forward against Jerusalem. . . . The siege of Tyre was still being pressed at the date of the second investment of Jerusalem. . . . Tyre, if it fell at the end of its thirteen years' siege, must have been taken in the very year which followed the capture of Jerusalem, B.C. 585. . . . It has been questioned whether the real Tyre, the island city, actually fell on this occasion (Heeren, *As Nat.* vol. ii. p. 11, E. T.; Kenrick, *Phœnicia*, p. 390), chiefly because Ezekiel says, about B.C. 570, that Nebuchadnezzar had 'received no wages for the service that he served against it' (Ezek. xxix. 18.) But this passage may be understood to mean that he had had no sufficient wages. Berosus expressly stated that Nebuchadnezzar reduced all Phœnicia."—Idem, *Five great monarchies: Babylonia*, ch. 8, and footnote.

B.C. 604-500.—Later commerce.—"The commerce of Phœnicia appears to have reached its

greatest height about the time of the rise of the Chaldæan power at Babylon. Its monopoly may have been more complete in earlier times, but the range of its traffic was more confined. Nebuchadnezzar was impelled to attempt its conquest by a double motive—to possess himself of its riches and to become master of its harbours and its navy. The prophet Ezekiel (ch. 27), foretelling his siege of Tyre, has drawn a picture of its commerce, which is the most valuable document for its commercial history that has come down to us. . . . Directly or indirectly, the commerce of Tyre, in the beginning of the sixth century before Christ, thus embraced the whole known world. By means of the Arabian and the Persian gulfs it communicated with India and the coast of Africa towards the equator. On the north its vessels found their way along the Euxine to the frozen borders of Scythia. Beyond the Straits of Gibraltar, its ships, or those of its colony of Gades, visited the British isles for tin, if they did not penetrate into the Baltic to bring back amber. Ezekiel says nothing of the voyages of the Tyrians in the Atlantic ocean, which lay beyond the limits of Jewish geography; but it is probable that they had several centuries before passed the limits of the Desert on the western coast of Africa, and by the discovery of one of the Canaries had given rise to the Greek fable of the Islands of the Blessed."—J. Kenrick, *Phœnicia*, ch. 6.

B.C. 332 and after.—Later history. See TYRE.

See also ARCHITECTURE: Oriental; Phœnicia; SCULPTURE: Western Asia; TEMPLES: Stage of culture, etc.; MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient; Phœnicia; WARSHIPS: Earliest shipbuilders.

ALSO IN: A. H. L. Heeren, *Historical researches*, v. 1.—J. Yeats, *Growth and vicissitudes of commerce*, ch. 3.—G. Rawlinson, *History of Phœnicia*, ch. 9, 14, sect. 2.—R. Bosworth Smith, *Carthage and the Carthaginians*, ch. 1.—J. H. Breasted, *Ancient times*, ch. 10, pp. 263-273.

PHŒNIX CLUB, Ireland. See IRELAND: 1847-1860.

PHŒNIX INSURANCE COMPANY. See INSURANCE: Fire; Development in United States.

PHŒNIX PARK MURDERS. See IRELAND: 1882; DUBLIN: 1800-1908.

PHOKÆANS. See PHOCÆANS.

PHOKIANS. See PHOCIANS.

PHONAUTOGRAPH. See INVENTIONS: 19th century; Phonograph.

PHONETIC WRITING: Introduction into China. See CHINA: 1918 (November).

PHONOGRAPH. See INVENTIONS: 19th century; Phonograph.

PHORMIO, or Phormion (fl. 428 B.C.), Athenian admiral. See GREECE: B.C. 429-427: Peloponnesian War; Phormio's sea fights.

PHOSPHATES. See FERTILIZERS: Chemistry applied to soil cultivation.

Discovery of rich deposits in Florida. See FLORIDA: 1889.

PHOTIUS (c. 820-c. 891), patriarch of Constantinople, 858-867, 878-886. See CHRISTIANITY: 11th-13th centuries: Extent of Christendom; GREEK LITERATURE: Middle or Byzantine period.

PHOTOGRAPHY. See INVENTIONS: 18th century; Photography; 19th century; Photography.

Aerial. See CITY PLANNING: Aeroplane in city planning; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IV. Aviation: a, 1.

Astronomical. See ASTRONOMY: 1796-1921: Photographic.

Moving picture. See INVENTIONS: 19th century; Moving pictures; 20th century; Moving pictures.

PHRA PARAMENDR MAHA MONG-KUT (d. 1868), ruler of Siam, 1851-1868. See **SIAM**: 1800-1893.

PHRATRIÆ. See **PHYLÆ**.

PHRYGIAN CAP OF LIBERTY. See **LIBERTY CAP**.

PHRYGIAN SIBYL. See **SIBYLS**.

PHRYGIANS.—The land of Phrygia in Asia Minor had varying limits in ancient times. At first it was bounded by the river Halys on the east; probably by the Taurus and the Pisidian mountains on the south; the Hellespont and the Propontis on the north; and probably controlled the Troas and Mysia on the west. The country was divided into Little Phrygia and greater Phrygia by the invasion from Thrace, and further territorial changes took place as a result of the Gallic invasions during the third century B.C. Under Roman rule the northeastern part of Phrygia was attached to the province of Galatia while the western part was incorporated into the province of Asia. The principal cities were located in the most beautiful part of the country, namely, in the southwest. Phrygia was famous for its marble, and is known at present as it was in ancient times for sheep raising and the fine quality of wool which it produces. "When the Assyrians in the thirteenth century [B.C.] advanced past the springs of the Euphrates into the western peninsula [of Asia Minor], they found, on the central table-land, a mighty body of native population—the Phrygians. The remains of their language tend to show them to have been the central link between the Greeks and the elder Aryans. They called their Zeus Bagalus ('baga' in ancient Persian signifying God; 'bhaga,' in Sanscrit, fortune), or Sabazius, from a verb common to Indian and Greek, and signifying 'to adore.' They possessed the vowels of the Greeks, and in the terminations of words changed the 'm' into 'n.' Kept off from the sea, they, it is true, lagged behind the coast tribes in civilization, and were regarded by these as men slow of understanding and only suited for inferior duties in human society. Yet they too had a great and independent post of their own, which is mirrored in the native myths of their kings. The home of these myths is especially in the northern regions of Phrygia, on the banks of the springs which feed the Sangarius, flowing in mighty curves through Bithynia into Pontus. Here traditions survived of the ancient kings of the land, of Gordius and Midas."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3.—"As far as any positive opinion can be formed respecting nations of whom we know so little, it would appear that the Mysians and Phrygians are a sort of connecting link between Lydians and Karians on one side, and Thracians (European as well as Asiatic) on the other—a remote ethnical affinity pervading the whole. Ancient migrations are spoken of in both directions across the Hellespont and the Thracian Bosphorus. It was the opinion of some that Phrygians, Mysians and Thracians had immigrated into Asia from Europe. . . . On the other hand, Herodotus speaks of a vast body of Teukrians [see **TEUKRIANS**] and Mysians who, before the Trojan war, had crossed the strait from Asia into Europe. . . . The Phrygians also are supposed by some to have originally occupied an European soil on the borders of Macedonia, . . . while the Mysians are said to have come from the north-eastern portions of European Thrace south of the Danube, known under the Roman empire by the name of Mœsia. But with respect to the Mysians there was also another story, according to which they were described as colonists emanating from the Lydians. . . . And this last opinion was sup-

ported by the character of the Mysian language, half Lydian and half Phrygian."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 16.—The Mysians occupied the north-western corner of Asia Minor, including the region of the Troad. "In the works of the great Greek writers which have come down to us, notably, in the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides, the Phrygians figure but little. To the Greeks generally they were known but as the race whence most of their slaves were drawn, as a people branded with the qualities of slaves, idleness, cowardice, effeminacy. . . . From the Phrygians came those orgiastic forms of religious cult which were connected with the worship of Dionysius and of the Mother of the Gods, orgies which led alike to sensual excess and to hideous self-mutilations, to semi-religious frenzy and bestial immoralities, against which the strong good-sense of the better Greeks set itself at all periods, though it could not deprive them of their attractions for the lowest of the people. And yet it was to this race sunk in corruption, except when roused by frenzy, that the warlike Trojan stock belonged. Hector and Aeneas were Phrygians; and the most manly race of the ancient world, the Romans, were proud of their supposed descent from shepherds of Phrygia."—P. Gardner, *New chapters in Greek history*, ch. 2.—See also **GREECE**: Indo-European migrations; **CHRISTIANITY**: A. D. 35-60.

PHUT, ancient Hamitic race of northern Africa. See **LIBYANS**.

PHYLÆ, PHRATRIÆ, GENTES.—"In all Greek states, without exception, the people was divided into tribes or Phylæ, and those again into the smaller subdivisions of Phratræ and gentes, and the distribution so made was employed to a greater or less extent for the common organisation of the State."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The State*, pt. 2, ch. 4.—The four Attic tribes were called, during the later period of that division, the Geleontes, Hopletes, Ægikoreis, and Argadeis. "It is affirmed, and with some etymological plausibility, that the denominations of these four tribes must originally have had reference to the occupations of those who bore them,—the Hopletes being the warrior-class, the Ægikoreis goat-herds, the Argadeis artisans, and the Geleontes (Teleontes or Gedeontes) cultivators. Hence some authors have ascribed to the ancient inhabitants of Attica an actual primitive distribution into hereditary professions or castes, similar to that which prevailed in India and Egypt. If we should even grant that such a division into castes might originally have prevailed, it must have grown obsolete long before the time of Solon; but there seem no sufficient grounds for believing that it ever did prevail. . . . The four tribes, and the four names (allowing for some variations of reading), are therefore historically verified. But neither the time of their introduction, nor their primitive import, are ascertainable matters. . . . These four tribes may be looked at either as religious and social aggregates, in which capacity each of them comprised three Phratræ and ninety Gentes; or as political aggregates, in which point of view each included three Trittyes and twelve Naukraræ. Each Phratry contained thirty Gentes; each Tritty comprised four Naukraræ; the total numbers were thus 360 Gentes and 48 Naukraræ. Moreover, each gens is said to have contained thirty heads of families, of whom therefore there would be a total of 10,800. . . . That every Phratry contained an equal number of Gentes, and every Gens an equal number of families, is a supposition hardly admissible without better evidence than we possess. But apart from this questionable precision of numeri-

cal scale, the Phraties and Gentes themselves were real, ancient and durable associations among the Athenian people, highly important to be understood. The basis of the whole was the house, hearth or family,—a number of which, greater or less, composed the Gens, or Genos. This Gens was therefore a clan, sept, or enlarged, and partly factitious, brotherhood. . . . All these phratric and gentle associations, the larger as well as the smaller, were founded upon the same principles and tendencies of the Grecian mind—a coalescence of the idea of worship with that of ancestry, or of communion in certain special religious rites with communion of blood, real or supposed. The god, or hero, to whom the assembled members offered their sacrifices, was conceived as the primitive ancestor, to whom they owed their origin. . . . The revolution of Kleisthenes in 509 B.C. abolished the old tribes for civil purposes, and created ten new tribes,—leaving the Phraties and Gentiles unaltered, but introducing the local distribution according to demes or cantons, as the foundation of his new political tribes. A certain number of demes belonged to each of the ten Kleisthenean tribes (the demes in the same tribes were not usually contiguous, so that the tribe was not coincident with a definite circumscription), and the deme, in which every individual was then registered, continued to be that in which his descendants were also registered. . . . The different Gentes were very unequal in dignity, arising chiefly from the religious ceremonies of which each possessed the hereditary and exclusive administration, and which, being in some cases considered as of pre-eminent sanctity in reference to the whole city, were therefore nationalized. Thus the Eumolpidae and Kerykes, who supplied the Hierophant and superintended the mysteries of the Eleusinian Demeter—and the Butadæ, who furnished the priestess of the Athene Poliaus as well as the priest of Poseidon Erechtheus in acropolis—seem to have been revered above all the other Gentes. When the name Butadæ was selected in the Kleisthenean arrangement as the name of a deme, the holy Gens so called adopted the distinctive denomination of Eteobutadæ, or 'The true Butadæ.'—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: Fustel de Coulanges, *Ancient city*, bk. 3, ch. 1.

PHYLARCH. See TAXIARCH.

PHYLE, ancient fortress in Attica, Greece, on a pass leading from Athens to Thebes. It was occupied by the Athenian exiles during the reign of the Thirty Tyrants, 404 B.C. See ATHENS: B.C. 404-403.

PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY. See CHEMISTRY: Physical.

PHYSICIANS, First English college of. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval; 16th century: First English college, etc.

PHYSICS. See SCIENCE; ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY.

PHYSIOCRATS, group of French economists and philosophers of the eighteenth century. "Besides Rousseau and the philosophers, there were other men whose minds were of a more practical cast and whose opinions soon affected the policy of the government. They are sometimes grouped together as the Economists, and sometimes separated into two groups, one interested primarily in advocating freer trade, the other engaged in propagating the view that agriculture is the sole source of increase in a nation's wealth. This second group was occasionally referred to as the 'sect of the Physiocrats.' Its leader was Quesnay, physician in ordinary of the King. His principal work, the *Tableau économique*, was printed on the royal press at Versailles in 1758, and it is said that Louis

XV took a personal interest in the enterprise. Quesnay divided society into three classes: the productive, or farming population; the proprietary, or owners of the soil; and the sterile, or artisans, traders, and professional men. He argued that industry did not add to the real wealth of the country, because it simply changed the forms of things which already existed. As land was the sole origin of riches, the net product of agriculture was the the only thing properly taxable. Quesnay's chief disciple was the Marquis de Mirabeau. Another follower was a young man named Dupont de Nemours, who was to have a share in the reform movements of the next quarter century and of the Revolution. Quesnay said of him, 'We must take care of this young man, for he will still speak after we are dead.' The great service which this school of thinkers rendered was to call attention to the importance of agriculture as a source of national wealth."—H. E. Bourne, *Revolutionary period in Europe*, p. 43.—The contribution of the Physiocrats to economic thought may be summarized as follows: 1. Economics was placed on a scientific basis by separating it from other sciences, notably jurisprudence, and by applying scientific methods. 2. Important contributions to the theory of taxation were made as a result of the controversies excited by the publications of the Physiocrats. 3. A dim foreshadowing of the later concepts of capital and rent is to be found in their works.—See also ECONOMICS: 18th century: Physiocrats; TARIFF: 18th century; SINGLE TAX: History of the idea.

ALSO IN: L. H. Haney, *History of economic thought*, pp. 133-157.

PHYSIOLOGY. See MEDICAL SCIENCE.

PIACENZA, capital of a province of the same name in Italy, forty-two miles southeast of Milan, on the site of the old Roman colony, Placentia. The population of the city in 1921 was 40,362.

B.C. 200.—Capture by the Gauls. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 205-191.

B.C. 49.—Mutiny of Cæsar's legions. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 49.

A.D. 270.—Defeat of the Alemanni. See ALEMANNI: 270.

14th century.—Under tyranny of the Visconti. See MILAN: 1277-1447.

1513.—Conquest by Pope Julius II. See ITALY: 1510-1513; PAPACY: 1471-1515.

1515.—Restored to the duchy of Milan, and with it to the king of France. See FRANCE: 1515-1518.

1521.—Retaken by the pope. See FRANCE: 1520-1523.

1545-1592.—Union with Parma under House of Farnese. See PARMA: 1545-1592.

1725.—Reversion of the duchy pledged to the infantia of Spain. See SPAIN: 1713-1725.

1731.—Possession of the duchy taken by Spain. See SPAIN: 1726-1731.

1735.—Restored to Austria. See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

1745-1746.—Captured and given up by the Spaniards. See ITALY: 1745; 1746-1747.

1748.—Ceded to Spain by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2.

1805.—Duchy declared a dependency of France. See FRANCE: 1804-1805.

1814-1815.—Conferred on Marie Louise by the Treaty of Fontainebleau.—Possession of Marie Louise confirmed at Congress of Vienna. See FRANCE: 1814 (March-April); VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1815-1846.—Partial control by Austria.—Revolt. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1846.

PIAGNONI, meaning "howlers," the name by which the opponents of Savonarola called his followers. See FLORENCE: 1490-1498; 1498-1500.

PIANKISHAWS, tribe of North American Indians. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; SACS.

PIANO. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Stringed instruments; 19th century: Piano; 20th century: Player piano.

PIASTS, or **Piasses**, first dynasty of Poland. It ended with the death of Casimir III, 1370. See POLAND: Beginnings of national existence.

PIAVE, river in Italy, flowing into the northern end of the Adriatic.

452.—Settlement of emigrants from Altinum. See VENICE: 452.

1809.—Battle on the Piave. See GERMANY: 1809 (January-June).

1917-1918.—Scene of fighting during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: b; d, 5; e; 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: b, 3; c, 4.

PI-BESETH. See BUBASTIS.

PICARDS.—"The reforming movement of Bohemia [fifteenth century] had drawn thither persons from other countries whose opinions were obnoxious to the authorities of the church. Among these, the most remarkable were known by the name of Picards,—apparently a form of the word 'beghards' [see BEGUINES], which . . . was then widely applied to sectaries. These Picards appear to have come from the Low Countries."—J. C. Robertson, *History of the Christian church*, v. 8, p. 24.—See also PAULICIANS.

PICARDY, ancient government of northern France corresponding to the present department of Somme and parts of Pas-de-Calais, Oise and Aisne. The capital was Amiens.

Origin of name.—Whimsical enough is the origin of the name of Picards, and from thence of Picardie, which does not date earlier than 1200. It was an academical joke, an epithet first applied to the quarrelsome humour of those students in the university of Paris who came from the frontier of France and Flanders."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 58, foot-note 1.

1652.—Spanish invasion. See FRANCE: 1652.

1918.—Great German offensive in region during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: a, 1; b.

PICASSO, Pablo (1881-), Spanish painter of the Post-Impressionist school. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

PICCINI, or **Piccinni**, **Niccola** (1728-1800). Italian composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1730-1816: Italian, etc.

PICENIANS. See SABINES.

PICHEGRU, **Charles** (1761-1804), French general. Commanded the Army of the Rhine, 1793; the Army of the North, 1794; conquered the Netherlands and captured the Dutch fleet, 1795; became president of the Council of Five Hundred, 1797. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December): Progress of the War of Coalition; 1794 (March-July); 1794-1795 (October-May); 1795 (June-December); 1797 (September); 1804-1805.

PICHINCHA, Battle of (1822). See COLOMBIA: 1810-1830.

PICKENS, **Francis Wilkinson** (1805-1869), American statesman and diplomat. United States minister to Russia, 1857-1860; prominent advocate of states rights; became governor of South Carolina, 1860; signed the ordinance of secession and was a loyal supporter of the Confederacy. See U. S. A.: 1861 (February): Urgency of South Carolina, etc.

PICKENS, **Fort**, Defense of. See U. S. A.: 1860-1861 (December-February); 1861 (March-April).

PICKERING, **Edward Charles** (1846-1919), American astronomer. Became professor of astronomy and director of the observatory at Harvard university, 1877. See ASTRONOMY: Photographic; SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Astronomy.

PICO ISLAND, one of the central group of the Azores. See AZORES.

PICQUART, **Marie George** (1854-1914), French general. Influential in reopening the Dreyfus case, 1896; minister of war, 1906-1909. See FRANCE: 1894-1906; 1906-1909.

PICTAVI, early name for Poitiers. See POITIERS.

PICTOGRAPHS. See ALPHABET: Deciphering the hieroglyphs.

PICTONES.—The Pictones (of ancient Gaul), whose name is represented by Poitou, and the Santones (Saintonge) occupied the coast between the lower Loire and the Garonne. See GAUL: People.

PICTS AND SCOTS. See ANNALS: Irish; SCOTLAND: Picts and Scots; 7th century; BRITAIN: 367-370; EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map showing barbaric migrations; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 5th-6th centuries.

PICTURE BRIDES, California. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1913-1921.

PICTURE-WRITING. See ALPHABET: Earliest stages; Deciphering the hieroglyphs; AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE-WRITING; CUNEIFORM INSCRIPTION; HIEROGLYPHICS; PHILOLOGY: 12.

PICUL, commercial weight, varying in different countries. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1900-1906.

PIDGIN-ENGLISH. See PHILOLOGY: 2; INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE: Development of artificial languages.

PIECE WAGE. See LABOR REMUNERATION: Methods, etc.

PIECES OF EIGHT. See SPANISH COINS.

PIEDMONT, department in northwestern Italy. See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT.

PIEDMONT, Virginia, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May-June: Virginia): Campaigning in the Shenandoah.

PIEGANS, tribe of North American Indians. See BLACKFEET; U. S. A.: 1866-1876.

PIE-POWDER COURT.—"There was one special court [in London, during the Middle Ages], which met to decide disputes arising on market-days, or among travellers and men of business, and which reminds us of the old English tendency to decide quickly and definitely, without entering into any long written or verbal consideration of the question at issue; and this was known as the Pie-powder Court, a corruption of the old French words, 'pieds poudres,' the Latin 'pedes pulverizati,' in which the complainant and the accused were supposed not to have shaken the dust from off their feet."—R. Pauli, *Pictures of old England*, ch. 12.

PIERCE, **Franklin** (1804-1869), fourteenth president of the United States. Member of the New Hampshire legislature, 1829-1833; member of the national House of Representatives, 1833-1837; United States senator, 1837-1842; served in the Mexican War; president of the New Hampshire constitutional convention, 1850; president of the United States, 1853-1857. See U. S. A.: 1852: Seventeenth presidential election; 1853-1854; 1854-1855; 1856: Eighteenth presidential election.

PIERCE PATENT. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1621.

PIERCE VS. UNITED STATES. See SUPREME COURT: 1917-1921.

PIEROLA, Nicolas de (1839-), president of Peru, 1895-1899. See PERU: 1884-1908.

PIERPONT, Francis Harrison (1814-1899), American political leader and abolitionist. Elected governor of the "Restored Government of Virginia," 1861; continued as governor of the state of West Virginia until 1868. See WEST VIRGINIA: 1860-1861; 1861-1862; VIRGINIA: 1861 (June-November); ALEXANDRIA, VIRGINIA: 1861 (July).

PIERREPONT, town in northern France, about thirty miles northwest of Metz. It was taken by the Allies in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: j, 1.

PIERSON, Abraham (c. 1645-1707), American educator. President of Yale college, 1701-1707. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1701-1717.

PIETIST MOVEMENT. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: 17th-19th centuries; India; EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: France: Jansenist schools; 17th century: Germany: Francke, etc.; BAPTISTS: European beginnings.

PIETRO CANDIANO III (d. 959), doge of Venice. See VENICE: 870-961.

PIGNEROL. See PINEROLO.

PIKE, Albert (1809-1891), American lawyer and author. Indian commissioner under the Confederate government during the Civil War. See OKLAHOMA: 1860-1865.

PIKE, Zebulon Montgomery (1779-1813), American soldier and explorer. Explored sources of the Mississippi river, 1805-1806; explored central and southwestern United States, 1806-1807; discovered Pike's Peak, 1806; adjutant and inspector-general in the field during the War of 1812; killed in the attack on York, now Toronto, Canada. See COLORADO: 1776-1858; IOWA: 1673-1834; MINNESOTA: 1805-1867; OKLAHOMA: 1806-1824.

PIKE, Fort, Seizure of. See U.S.A.: 1860-1861 (December-February).

PIKE, implement of war. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 16; 17.

PILATE, Pontius, Roman procurator of Judea, Idumea and Samaria, 26-36 A.D. He is famous in history as the judge at the trial of Christ. See JEWS: B.C. 40-A.D. 44; A.D. 26; JESUS CHRIST: Antagonism roused against Jesus.

PILCHER, Percy S., English aviator. See AVIATION: Development of air-planes and air service: 1889-1900.

PILE DWELLINGS. See LAKE DWELLINGS.

PILGRIM TRICENTENARY CELEBRATION. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1921.

PILGRIMS, PILGRIM FATHERS.—The familiar designation of the little company of English colonists who sailed for the New World in the Mayflower. See INDEPENDENTS AND SEPARATISTS: 1604-1617; 1617-1620; PURITANS: 1620-1660; MASSACHUSETTS: 1620; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

ALSO IN: R. Harris, *Last of the Mayflower.*—Idem, *Finding of Mayflower.*

PILL BOXES, concrete huts introduced in 1917 by the Germans in the World War. Their walls were three feet deep. They were sunk in the ground, and were full of machine guns. It was difficult to subdue them either by artillery or by tanks. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: a, 1; 1917: I. Summary: b, 2.

PILLAGER INDIAN OUTBREAK. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1898.

PILLAR OF FIRE. See EVANGELISTIC ASSOCIATIONS.

PILLARS OF HERCULES, ancient name for the two promontories, Calpi or Gibraltar in Europe, and Abyla in Africa, at the eastern end of

the Strait of Gibraltar. See ATLANTIC OCEAN: Ancient geography of the Atlantic.

PILLAU, Capture of (1626). See SWEDEN: 1611-1629.

PILLERSTORF CONSTITUTION. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Austria.

PILLNITZ, Declaration of.—In August, 1791, a conference of European monarchs was held in Pillnitz to determine upon plans for aiding the French monarchy against the revolution. "At this conference the King's brothers, Monsieur, the Comte de Provence, afterwards Louis XVIII, who had escaped from France at the time of the flight to Varennes, and the Comte d'Artois, afterwards Charles X, who had fled in July 1789, at the epoch of the capture of the Bastille, were present. They had their own aims to serve. They were disgusted at the weak conduct, as they termed it, of Louis XVI in yielding so far as he had done to the popular wishes; they desired to undo the whole effect of the Revolution and to restore the Bourbon monarchy in its ancient authority by the arms of the monarchs of Europe. But Leopold did not care about the French princes or the Bourbon monarchy. He cared rather for the safety of his sister, Marie Antoinette, and the maintenance through her of the Franco-Austrian alliance. In the Declaration of Pillnitz, which was signed by the Emperor and the King of Prussia on 27th August 1791, the two sovereigns declared that the situation of the King of France was an object of interest common to all European monarchs, and that they hoped other monarchs would use with them the most efficacious means to put the King of France in a position to lay in perfect liberty the bases of a monarchical government, suited alike to the rights of sovereigns and the happiness of the French nation. Provided that other powers would co-operate with them they were willing to act promptly, and had therefore placed their armies on foot. These threats exasperated but did not terrify the French people. Leopold had no intention of entering upon hostilities, and found a loophole by which to escape from declaring war in the acceptance by Louis XVI of the completed Constitution on 21st September 1791. He then solemnly withdrew his pretensions to interfere in the internal affairs of France."—H. M. Stephens, *Revolutionary Europe*, p. 103.—See also AUSTRIA: 1790-1797; FRANCE: 1791 (July-September).

PILLOW, Fort, on the Mississippi river, about forty miles north of Memphis, Tennessee. It was a scene of fighting during the Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1862 (June: On the Mississippi); 1864 (April: Tennessee).

PILOT KNOB, hill in Missouri, about seventy-five miles southwest of St. Louis. It was a scene of fighting during the Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1864 (March-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

PILSEN, Battles of (1618, 1621). See GERMANY: 1618-1620; 1621-1623.

PILSUDSKI, Jozef (1867-), Polish general and statesman. First president of the new republic of Poland, 1918-1922. See POLAND: 1905-1914; 1914-1917; 1915-1918; 1918; 1919; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1917-1918.

PILTDOWN MAN. See ANTHROPOLOGY: Physical; EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Piltown man.

PILUM.—The Roman spear was called the pilum. "It was, according to [Polybius], a spear having a very large iron head or blade, and this was carried by a socket to receive the shaft. . . . By the soldiers of the legions, to whom the use of the pilum was restricted, this weapon was both

hurled from the hand as a javelin, and grasped firmly, as well for the charge as to resist and beat down hostile attacks."—P. Lacombe, *Arms and armour*, ch. 4.

PIMAN FAMILY, North American Indians. "Only a small portion of the territory occupied by this family is included within the United States, the greater portion being in Mexico, where it extends to the Gulf of California. The family is represented in the United States by three tribes, Pima alta, Sobaipuri, and Papago. The former have lived for at least two centuries with the Maricopa on the Gila River about 160 miles from the mouth. The Sobaipuri occupied the Santa Cruz and San Pedro Rivers, tributaries of the Gila, but are no longer known. The Papago territory is much more extensive and extends to the south across the border."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report, Bureau of Ethnology*, pp. 98-99.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southwest area; PUEBLOS.

PIMENTEIRAS, tribe of Brazilian aborigines. See GUCK, or COCO, GROUP.

PINAKOTHEK MUSEUM, Munich. See OLD PINAKOTHEK.

PINALEÑOS, North American Indian tribe. See APACHE GROUP.

PINCHON, Stephen (1857-), French minister of foreign affairs and representative at the Paris peace conference, 1919. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

PINCHOT, Gifford (1865-), American forester and governor. Head of the Bureau of Forestry, 1901-1910; member of the National Conservation Association, 1910; governor of Pennsylvania since 1923. See ALASKA: 1904-1911; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1907-1910; TRUSTS: United States: 1909; Threatened combination, etc.

PINCKNEY, Charles (1758-1824), American statesman. First president of the South Carolina provincial congress, 1775; member of the national constitutional convention, 1787; governor of South Carolina, 1789-1792, 1796-1798, 1806-1808; United States senator, 1798-1801; minister to Spain, 1802-1805; member of the House of Representatives, 1819-1821. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April-June); SOUTH CAROLINA: 1775.

PINCKNEY, Charles Cotesworth (1746-1825), American statesman and soldier. Member of the South Carolina provincial congress, 1775; served in the American Revolution; member of the national constitutional convention, 1787; minister to France, 1796-1797; one of the negotiators in the "XYZ" mission. See U.S.A.: 1787; 1797-1799.

PINCKNEY, Thomas (1750-1828), American statesman and soldier. Served in the American Revolution; governor of South Carolina, 1787-1789; minister to England, 1792-1794; to Spain, 1794-1796; member of the House of Representatives, 1797-1801; served in the War of 1812. See U.S.A.: 1795.

PINDAR (c. 522-443 B.C.), Greek lyric poet. See GREEK LITERATURE: Rise and decline of lyric poetry.

PINDARIS, or Pindharies, Suppression of (1817). See INDIA: 1816-1819.

PINDEMONTE, Ippolito (1754-1825), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1750-1873.

PINE BLUFF, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1863 (August-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

PINE TREE MONEY.—Between 1652 and 1684 the colony of Massachusetts coined silver shillings and smaller coins, which bore on their faces the rude figure of a pine tree, and were called "pine tree money." See MONEY AND BANK-

ING: Modern: 17th century: Colonial coinage in America.

PINERO, Sir Arthur Wing (1855-), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1888-1921.

PINEROLO, or Pignerol, town and commune in northwestern Italy, southwest of Turin. The population of the town in 1920 was 12,830, and of the commune, 19,325.

1630-1631.—Siege, capture and purchase by the French. See ITALY: 1627-1631.

1648.—Ceded to France at Peace of Westphalia. See GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia.

1655.—Treaty of. See WALDENSES: 1655.

1659.—Retained by France under the Treaty of the Pyrennees. See FRANCE: 1659-1661.

1697.—Ceded to the duke of Savoy. See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT: 1580-1713.

PINES, Isle of, in the West Indies, about forty miles south of Cuba. See CUBA: 1907 (April).

PING-YANG, or Pieng-an, city and port of entry of Korea, on the Daido or Tatong river, about thirty-six miles from its mouth. It was occupied by the Japanese in 1904. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

PINKIE, Battle of (1547). See SCOTLAND: 1544-1548.

PINKNEY, William (1764-1822), American diplomat and statesman. Minister to Great Britain, 1806-1811; United States attorney-general, 1811-1814; member of the House of Representatives, 1815-1816; minister to Naples, 1816; to Russia, 1816-1818; United States senator, 1820-1822. See U.S.A.: 1804-1809.

PINSK, city of Poland, at the confluence of the Pripet and Pina. In 1915 it was taken from the Russians by the German general Mackensen. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 6.

PINZANO, town in Italy, about fifty miles northeast of Treviso. It was a scene of fighting between the Italians and Austrians during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: c, 14.

PINZÓN, Vicente Yañez (c. 1460- c. 1524), Spanish navigator. Commander of the Niña on the first voyage of Columbus, 1492; led an exploring expedition to Brazil and discovered the mouth of the Amazon, 1500. See AMERICA: 1499-1500; AMAZON RIVER: Discovery and naming.

PIOMBINO, former principality, now a part of the province of Pisa, Italy. It became a part of France in 1801, and was united with the duchy of Tuscany in 1815. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (June-February).

PIPE ROLLS. See EXCHEQUER.

PIPPIN. See PEPIN.

PIQUAS, tribe of North American Indians. See SHAWANESE.

PIQUETS AND ZINGLINS, negro revolutionists of Haiti. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1804-1880.

PIRACY. See BUCCANEERS; COMMERCE: Medieval: 15th century; AMERICA: 1639-1700; BARBARY STATES; CHINA: 1899; CILICIA, PIRATES OF; NORMANS: Name and origin; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1600-1663; 1700-1800; SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-9th centuries; VIRGINIA: 1684-1699.

PIRÆUS, or Peiræus, commercial city and port of Athens. The harbor was constructed and fortified during and after the Persian wars, a work which the Athenians owed to the genius of Themistocles. The name was sometimes applied to the whole peninsula in which the Piræus is situated, which contained two other harbors—Munychia and Zea. (See ATHENS: Map of ancient Athens.) Phalerum, which had previously been the harbor of Athens, lies to the east. The walls built by Themis-

toles "were carried round the whole of the peninsula in a circumference of seven miles, following the bend of its rocky rim, and including the three harbour-bays. At the mouths of each of the harbours a pair of towers rose opposite to one another at so short a distance that it was possible to connect them by means of chains: these were the locks of the Piræus. The walls, about 16 feet thick, were built without mortar, of rectangular blocks throughout, and were raised to a height of 30 feet by Themistocles, who is said to have originally intended to give them double that height."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 3, ch. 2.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 479-476; B. C. 87-86.

ALSO IN: W. M. Leake, *Topography of Athens*, sect. 10.

PIRNA, town in the republic of Saxony, Germany, on the Elbe, about eleven miles southeast of Dresden. During the Seven Years' War it was captured by the Prussians. See GERMANY: 1756.

1634.—Treaty of. See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

PIROT, Battle of (1877). See SERBIA: 1875-1885.

PIRU, tribe of South American Indians. See ANDESIANS.

PISA, province of Tuscany, Italy, and a city of the same name, on the Arno, seven miles from the Mediterranean. The city is the center of flourishing cotton manufactures, and oil and alabaster trade. It is the seat of the University of Pisa, founded in 1338, and endowed by Grand Duke Leopold in 1808. In 1915 the population of the province was 351,841, and of the city, 67,285.

Origin of the city.—Early growth of its commerce and naval power.—Conquest of Sardinia.—Strabo and others have given Pisa a Grecian origin. "Situated near the sea upon the triangle formed in past ages, by the confluence of the two rivers, the Arno and the Serchio; she was highly adapted to commerce and navigation; particularly in times when these were carried on with small vessels. We consequently find that she was rich and mercantile in early times, and frequented by all the barbarous nations. . . . Down to the end of the fifteenth century, almost all the navigation of the nations of Europe, as well as those of Asia and Africa, which kept a correspondence and commerce with the former, was limited to the Mediterranean, Adriatic, Archipelago, and Euxine seas; and the first three Italian republics, Pisa, Genoa, and Venice, were for a long time mistresses of it. Pisa, as far back as the year 925, was the principal city of Tuscany, according to Luitprand. In the beginning of the eleventh century, that is, in the year 1004, we find in the Pisan annals, that the latter waged war with the Lucchese and beat them; this is the first enterprise of one Italian city against another, which proves that she already acted for herself, and was in great part, if not wholly, liberated from the dominion of the Duke of Tuscany. In the Pisan annals, and in other authors, we meet with a series of enterprises, many of them which are obscurely related, or perhaps exaggerated. Thus we find that in the year 1005, in an expedition of the Pisans against the maritime city of Reggio, Pisa being left unprovided with defenders, Musetto, king, or head, of the Saracens, who occupied Sardinia, seized the opportunity of making an invasion; and having sacked the city, departed, or was driven out of it. . . . It was very natural for the Pisans and Genoese, who must have been in continual fear of the piracies and invasions of the barbarians as long as they occupied Sardinia, to think seriously of exterminating them from that country: the pope himself sent the Bishop of Ostia in haste to the Pisans as legate, to encour-

age them to the enterprise: who, joining with the Genoese, conquered Sardinia [1017] by driving out the Saracens; and the pope, by the right he thought he possessed over all the kingdoms of the earth, invested the Pisans with the dominion; not however without exciting the jealousy of the Genoese, who, as they were less powerful in those times, were obliged to yield to force. The mutual necessity of defence from the common enemy kept them united; the barbarians having disembarked in the year 1020 in Sardinia under the same leader, they were again repulsed, and all their treasure which remained a booty of the conquerors, was conceded to the Genoese as an indemnity for the expense."—L. Pignotti, *History of Tuscany*, v. 1, ch. 7.

1063-1293.—Architectural development.—Disastrous war with Genoa.—Great defeat at Meloria.—Count Ugolino and his fate.—War with Florence and Lucca.—"The republic of Pisa was one of the first to make known to the world the riches and power which a small state might acquire by the aid of commerce and liberty. Pisa had astonished the shores of the Mediterranean by the number of vessels and galleys that sailed under her flag, by the succor she had given the crusaders, by the fear she had inspired at Constantinople, and by the conquest of Sardinia and the Balearic Isles. Pisa was the first to introduce into Tuscany the arts that ennoble wealth; her dome, her baptistery, her leaning tower, and her Campo Santo, which the traveller's eye embraces at one glance, but does not weary of beholding, had been successively built from the year 1063 to the end of the 12th century. These chefs-d'œuvre had animated the genius of the Pisans; the great architects of the 13th century were, for the most part, pupils of Nicolas di Pisa. But the moment was come in which the ruin of this glorious republic was at hand; a deep-rooted jealousy, to be dated from the conquest of Sardinia, had frequently, during the last two centuries, armed against each other the republics of Genoa and Pisa: a new war between them broke out in 1282. It is difficult to comprehend how two simple cities could put to sea such prodigious fleets as those of Pisa and Genoa. In 1282, Ginicel Sismondi commanded 30 Pisan galleys, of which he lost the half in a tempest, on the 9th of September; the following year, Rosso Sismondi commanded 64; in 1284, Guido Jacia commanded 24, and was vanquished. The Pisans had recourse the same year to a Venetian admiral, Alberto Morosini, to whom they intrusted 103 galleys: but whatever efforts they made, the Genoese constantly opposed a superior fleet. This year [1284], however, all the male population of the two republics seemed assembled on their vessels; they met on the 6th of August, 1284, once more before the Isle of Meloria, rendered famous 43 years before by the victory of the Pisans over the same enemies [when the Ghibelline friendship of Pisa for the Emperor Frederick II induced her to intercept and attack, on the 3d of May, 1241, a Genoese fleet which conveyed many prelates to a great council called by Pope Gregory IX with hostile intentions towards the Emperor, and which the latter desired to prevent]. Valor was still the same, but fortune had changed sides; and a terrible disaster effaced the memory of an ancient victory. While the two fleets, almost equal in number, were engaged, a reinforcement of 30 Genoese galleys, driven impetuously by the wind, struck the Pisan fleet in flank: 7 of their vessels were instantly sunk, 28 taken. 5,000 citizens perished in the battle, and 11,000 who were taken prisoners

to Genoa preferred death in captivity rather than their republic should ransom them, by giving up Sardinia to the Genoese. This prodigious loss ruined the maritime power of Pisa; the same nautical knowledge, the same spirit of enterprise, were not transmitted to the next generation. All the fishermen of the coast quitted the Pisan galleys for those of Genoa. The vessels diminished in number, with the means of manning them; and Pisa could no longer pretend to be more than the third maritime power in Italy. While the republic was thus exhausted by this great reverse of fortune, it was attacked by the league of the Tuscan Guelphs; and a powerful citizen, to whom it had intrusted itself, betrayed his country to enslave it. Ugolino was count of the Gherardesca, a mountainous country situated along the coast, between Leghorn and Piombino: he was of Ghibeline origin, but had married his sister to Giovan di Gallura, chief of the Guelphs of Pisa and of Sardinia. From that time he artfully opposed the Guelphs to the Ghibelines." The Pisans, thinking him to be the person best able to reconcile Pisa with the Guelph league "named Ugolino captain-general for ten years; and the new commander did, indeed, obtain peace with the Guelph league; but not till he had caused all the fortresses of the Pisan territory to be opened by his creatures to the Lucchese and Florentines. . . . From that time he sought only to strengthen his own despotism." In July, 1288, there was a rising of the Pisans against him; his palace was stormed and burned; and he, his two sons and two grandsons, were dragged out of the flames, to be locked in a tower and starved to death—as told in the verse of Dante. "The victory over count Ugolino, achieved by the most ardent of the Ghibelines, redoubled the enthusiasm and audacity of that party; and soon determined them to renew the war with the Guelphs of Tuscany. . . . Guido de Montefeltro was named captain. He had acquired a high reputation in defending Forli against the French forces of Charles of Anjou; and the republic had not to repent of its choice. He recovered by force of arms all the fortresses which Ugolino had given up to the Lucchese and Florentines. The Pisan militia, whom Montefeltro armed with cross-bows, which he had trained them to use with precision, became the terror of Tuscany. The Guelphs of Florence and Lucca were glad to make peace in 1293."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics*, ch. 5.—In 1290, when Pisa was in her greatest distress, Genoa suddenly joined again in the attack on her ancient rival. She sent an expedition under Conrad d'Oria which entered the harbor of Pisa, pulled down its towers, its bridge and its forts, and carried away the chain which locked the harbor entrance. The latter trophy was only restored to Pisa in recent years.—J. T. Bent, *Genoa*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: H. E. Napier, *Florentine history*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 12.

1100-1111.—Participation in First Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1104-1111.

1135-1137.—Destruction of Amalfi. See AMALFI.

13th century.—Commercial rivalry with Venice and Genoa at Constantinople. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1261-1453.

1311-1313.—Welcome to Emperor Henry VII.—Aid to his war against Florence. See ITALY: 1310-1313: Visitation of emperor.

1313-1328.—Military successes under Ugucione della Faggiuola.—His tyranny and its overthrow.—Subjection to Castruccio Castracani and the deliverance. See ITALY: 1313-1330.

1341.—Defeat of the Florentines before Lucca.

—Acquisition of that city. See FLORENCE: 1341-1343.

1353-1364.—Dealings with the Free Companies.—War with Florence. See ITALY: 1343-1393.

1399-1406.—Betrayal to Visconti of Milan.—Sale to the Florentines.—Conquest by them and subsequent decline. See MILAN: 1277-1447; ITALY: 1402-1406.

1409.—General Council of the Church. See PAPACY: 1377-1417.

1494-1509.—Delivered by the French.—Faithlessness of Charles VIII.—Thirteen years of struggle against Florence.—Final surrender.—"The Florentine conquest was the beginning of 90 years of slavery for Pisa—a terrible slavery, heavy with exaggerated imports, bitter with the tolerated plunder of private Florentines, humiliating with continual espionage. . . . Pisa was the Ireland of Florence, captive and yet unvanquished. . . . At last a favourable chance was offered to the Pisans. . . . In the autumn of 1494, the armies of Charles VIII poured into Italy [see ITALY: 1494-1496]. It had been the custom of the Florentines, in times of war and danger, to call the heads of every Pisan household into Florence, as hostages for the good behaviour of their families and fellow citizens. But in the autumn of 1494, Piero de' Medici who forgot everything, who had forgotten to garrison his frontier, forgot to call the Pisan hostages to Florence, although the French were steadily advancing on Tuscany, and the Pisans eager to rebel. . . . The French army and the hope of liberty entered the unhappy city hand in hand [November 8, 1494]. . . . That night the Florentines in Pisa—men in office, judges, merchants, and soldiers of the garrison—were driven at the sword's point out of the rebellious city. . . . Twenty-four hours after the entry of the French, Pisa was a free republic, governed by a Gonfalonier, six Priors, and a Balia of Ten, with a new militia of its own, and, for the first time in eight and eighty years, a Pisan garrison in the ancient citadel." All this was done with the assent of the King of France and the promise of his protection. But when he passed on to Florence, and was faced there by the resolute Capponi, he signed a treaty in which he promised to give back Pisa to Florence when he returned from Naples. He returned from Naples the next summer (1495), hard pressed and retreating from his recent triumphs, and halted with his army at Pisa. There the tears and distress of the friendly Pisans moved even his soldiers to cry out in protestation against the surrender of the city to its former bondage. Charles compromised by a new treaty with the Florentines, again agreeing to deliver Pisa to them, but stipulating that they should place their old rivals on equal terms with themselves, in commerce and in civil rights. But Entragues, the French governor whom Charles had left in command at Pisa, with a small garrison, refused to carry out the treaty. He assisted the Pisans in expelling a force with which the Duke of Milan attempted to secure the city, and then, on the 1st of January, 1496, he delivered the citadel which he held into the hands of the Pisan signory "During thirteen years from this date the shifting fortunes, the greeds and jealousies of the great Italian cities, fostered an artificial liberty in Pisa. Thrown like a ball from Milan to Venice, Venice to Maximilian, back again to Venice, and thence to Caesar Borgia, the unhappy Republic described the whole circle of desperate hope, agonized courage, misery, poverty, cunning, and betrayal."—A. M. F. Robinson, *End of the Middle Ages: French at Pisa*.—In 1509 the Pisans

reduced to the last extremity by the obstinate siege which the Florentines had maintained, and sold by the French and Spaniards who took pay from Florence (see *VENICE*: 1508-1509) for abandoning their cause, opened their gates to the Florentine army.—Based on H. E. Napier, *Florentine history*, v. 4, bk. 2, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence*, bk. 8, ch. 6; bk. 9, ch. 1-10.

1509-1551.—History merged with that of Florence.—From 1509 the history of Pisa became merged in the history of Florence, and through Florence in that of the duchy of Tuscany. After the disastrous events of 1509 the population, which is said to have once been 150,000, steadily declined until it reached 8,500 in 1551. Thence forward the prosperity of the city and with it the growth of population slowly revived. See *FLORENCE*: 1502-1569, and after.

1512.—Attempted convocation of a council by Louis XII of France. See *ITALY*: 1510-1513.

PISA, town of ancient Greece in the country of Elis, in the western part of the Peloponnesus. See *ELIS*; *OLYMPIC GAMES*.

PISA, Council of (1409). See *PAPACY*: 1377-1417.

PISAGUA, seaport of Chile, formerly of Peru, about forty-five miles north of Iquique. It was bombarded by the Chileans in 1879, and was taken by the congressional army in 1891. See *CHILE*: 1885-1891.

PISANDER (fl. 415 B.C.), Athenian political leader. See *ATHENS*: B.C. 413-411.

PISANI, Nicolo (fl. 1350), Venetian admiral. See *CONSTANTINOPLE*: 1348-1355.

PISANI, Vettor (d. 1380), Venetian admiral. Commanded the Venetian fleet in the war with Genoa, 1378. See *VENICE*: 1378-1379.

PISEMSKI, Alexei Feofilaktovitch (1820-1881), Russian novelist. See *RUSSIAN LITERATURE*: 1855-1889.

PISISTRATIDÆ, Hippias and Hipparchus, the two sons and successors of Pisistratus in Athens. See *ATHENS*: B.C. 560-510.

PISISTRATUS (c. 605-527 B.C.), Athenian tyrant. See *ATHENS*: B.C. 560-510; *ARGOS*; *GREECE*: B.C. 8th-5th centuries.

PISTICS. See *GNOSTICS*.

PIT RIVER INDIANS. See *MODOCS*.

PITCAIRN ISLAND, one of the Polynesian group in the South Pacific. It was discovered in 1767 and settled in 1790. The colony removed to Norfolk island in 1856, but since that time many have returned to the original settlement. See *NEW SOUTH WALES*: 1806.

PITHECANTHROPUS ERECTUS. See *ANTHROPOLOGY*: Physical; *EUROPE*: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Heidelberg man.

PITHECUSA, ancient name of the island of Ischia.

PITHOM, one of the "treasure cities" said to have been built by the Israelites during the Oppression. The site is that of the present town, Tell el Maskhuta. See *JEWS*: Children of Israel in Egypt.

PITMAN, Sir Isaac (1813-1897), English phonographer. Originator of the Pitman system of shorthand and author of several treatises on that subject and on simplified spelling. See *ABBREVIATIONS*: Modern development.

PITRES, Edict of (866). See *FEUDALISM*: Continental growth.

PITT, William. See *AMHERST*, WILLIAM PITT, EARL.

PITT, William. See *CHATHAM*, WILLIAM PITT, 1ST EARL OF.

PITT, William, the Younger (1759-1806), English statesman. Chancellor of the exchequer and leader of the House of Commons, 1782-1783; premier, 1783-1801; 1804-1806. See *ENGLAND*: 1782-1783, to 1793-1796; 1801-1806; 1830: Reform movement; *CONSERVATIVE PARTY*: England: 1790-1900; *INDIA*: 1784; *TARIFF*: 1784-1786.

PITT, Fort: 1763.—Besieged by the Indians during Pontiac's War. See *PONTIAC'S WAR*.

PITTI, Lucas (fl. 15th century), gonfalonier of Florence. See *FLORENCE*: 1458-1460.

PITTI PALACE, Building of. See *FLORENCE*: 1458-1469.

PITTMAN ACT, United States (1918). See *INDIA*: 1917-1919.

PITTSBURG LANDING, or SHILOH, Battle of. See *U.S.A.*: 1862 (February-April: Tennessee).

PITTSBURGH, situated at the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers, which form the Ohio. It is the second city in Pennsylvania, one of the most important cities of the United States, and the largest steel manufacturing center in the world. Its population in 1920, was 588,343. The city occupies an important place in the history of iron and steel. Its strategic position in the midst of the Pennsylvania coal fields, and oil and gas districts, has given it an unrivalled opportunity as a manufacturing city. It is now the greatest iron and steel producing center in the world, and uses up the larger part of the iron brought from Lake Superior. Pig iron, wrought iron, Bessemer, open hearth, crucible steel and the various high speed steels are all produced in the city and its environs, and are manufactured into steel rails, structural steel, armor plate, machinery, wire, nails. But though iron and steel form the chief output of the Pittsburgh mills, the city has many other industries of the first importance. What are said to be the largest tin plate works in the world are at McKeesport. Coke for the furnaces and producer gas are manufactured in immense quantities. The largest cork manufacturing plant in the world is in Pittsburgh; the Westinghouse air brake plant is located here, and rolled brass, copper, glass, and pickles are produced. The city is a great railroad center, while fleets of boats and barges bring coal from the mines into the city down the Allegheny and the Monongahela, and carry manufactured products from the city by way of the Ohio river.

1754.—Fort Duquesne built by the French. See *OHIO*: 1754.

1755.—Braddock's defeat. See *OHIO*: 1755.

1758.—Fort Duquesne abandoned by the French, occupied by the English, and named in honor of Pitt. See *CANADA*: 1758.

1763.—Siege of Fort Pitt by the Indians.—Bouquet's relieving expedition. See *PONTIAC'S WAR*.

1794.—Whiskey Rebellion. See *PENNSYLVANIA*: 1794.

1804-1816.—Steel industry founded.—Incorporation of city.—The first bank was established in Pittsburgh in 1804. By 1806, the manufacture of iron was well under way; and the next few years saw rapid development in all lines. In 1811, the first steamboat for western rivers was launched at Pittsburgh; and in 1816 the city was chartered.

1877.—Railway riots.—A passionate and widespread strike of railway employees, in July, 1877, led to fierce riots in several parts of the country, but nowhere else so seriously as at Pittsburgh. There some two thousand freight cars, besides ware-houses, machine shops, and other property, to the estimated value of \$10,000,000, were pillaged

or burnt, with heavy loss of life in the conflicts that occurred.

1892-1907.—Homestead strike.—Carnegie library opened.—Greater Pittsburgh.—The next serious riot in the history of this region took place many years later, in 1892, at Homestead, eight miles southeast of Pittsburgh and the site of large steel works. A labor strike, lasting 143 days, was marked by a battle in which ten men were killed. In 1895, the Carnegie library was opened, the first of a now large and notable group of educational buildings in Pittsburgh, bearing the same name. (See **LIBRARIES: Modern: Carnegie library gifts; United States: University libraries; Administration: Administration of some great libraries.**) In 1901, the city charter was changed to abolish the office of mayor, and invest the executive powers in the recorder. But in 1903, the title of recorder was changed back to mayor. In 1906, the cities of Pittsburgh and Allegheny voted to combine in Greater Pittsburgh. In spite of an appeal to the courts made by Allegheny, the consolidation was effected Dec. 9, 1907.

1906.—Election of Mayor Guthrie.—Municipal reforms.—The first mayor of the consolidated city was George W. Guthrie who assumed charge in 1906. "When Mayor Guthrie went into office there was no merit system in Pittsburgh; but he soon established an effective one of his own, and at the 1907 session of the Pennsylvania Legislature effectively cooperated with the Pennsylvania Civil Service Reform Association and similar bodies, with Mayor Dimmick, of Scranton, and the business bodies of second-class cities, to secure a law which would permanently establish the merit system in them. He and his colleagues succeeded."—C. R. Woodruff, *Mayor with an ideal* (*Outlook*, April 25, 1908).—During his administration Mayor Guthrie effected great economies.

1908.—University renamed.—Filtration plant installed.—In 1908, the University of Western Pennsylvania was renamed University of Pittsburgh. The university developed from the old Pittsburgh Academy, founded in 1787, and can make good claim to be the oldest educational institution west of the Alleghenies. In 1908 a new filtration plant, which had been installed at a cost of \$7,675,000, was put into operation. The first year of its use resulted in cutting down deaths from typhoid one-third; and the disease has since been practically eliminated.

1909.—Defeat of Mayor Guthrie.—Discovery of political corruption.—Although nominated for reelection in 1909, he was defeated by the nominee of a corrupt party "machine"; but this put no check on the efforts of the voters' league behind him to hunt down the corrupting influences and agencies which had mastered the city once more. A fortunate accident gave the league a single clue to the hidden labyrinth of rascality, resulting in the conviction and sentencing to the penitentiary of many prominent men, including bank officials and ex-councilmen. The group that received and divided the bribe money was known as the "Big Six."

1909-1917.—Civic commission initiates reforms.—The Pittsburgh Civic Commission, established in 1909, is a splendid example of what can be accomplished by public-spirited citizens through organization for the betterment of conditions. Its purpose, as stated in its first publication (1917) is "to plan and promote improvements in civic and industrial conditions which affect the health, convenience, education, and general welfare of the Pittsburgh industrial district; to create public opinion in favor of such improvements; and thus to

establish such living and working conditions as may set a standard for other American industrial centers."

"One of the great thoroughfares which now carries the principal vehicle traffic to the East End of our city with a new, beautiful and artistic bridge will be found suggested and outlined by the commission. The art commission, which is adding so much to the artistic beauty of public work in Pittsburgh was created by a bill drawn in the offices of the civic commission in every particular through the legislature until the governor's signature made it a law. The ordinance making it possible for our present excellent traffic regulations was drawn up in conjunction with the officers and engineers of the commission. The initiative for a commission form of government was initiated through a meeting of prominent business men called by the civic commission, which in turn called a mass meeting. . . . The proposed wall for keeping out floods and the filling in of many of the principal streets was suggested by the civic commission. The wall has received the endorsement of the flood commission, and a large number of streets were filled in by the last administration. The great work, however, was for comprehensive city planning by an outside commission. B. J. Arnold, John R. Freeman and Frederick Law Olmsted, three of the leading experts in the country, were retained [by the civic commission] to outline constructive investigation into 'the needs and limitations of the Pittsburgh industrial district in so far as its physical development can be effectively controlled by the action of the community.'"—H. D. W. English, *Pittsburgh Civic Commission* (*National Municipal Review*, Jan., 1915).

1911.—Council of Nine.—Non-partisan ballot effects improvement.—May 31, 1911, an important change was made in the city charter, abolishing ward representation and two council bodies, and substituting one Council of Nine, elected at large for four years on a non-partisan basis. The members of the council have legislative power, and are salaried. Additional members will be added to the council as the population increases. "When Lincoln Steffens wrote his 'Shame of the Cities' and described the government of the various municipalities of this union, he said Pittsburgh was not controlled by the bosses, but the boss was the city, and that was a correct statement of the situation at that time [1904]. Absolutely uncontrolled, they did what they liked. That was but a few years ago. What is the condition to-day? We have an administration elected upon a non-partisan ballot—a non-partisan ballot framed under an act, in which the election of municipal officers cannot take place even the same year with the election of either state or national officials. It must be a separate and distinct election, the ballots having no party designation. It has been on trial a few years. The result has been that the candidates of the respective offices are not such because they are Republicans or Democrats. The greatest contests so far have been between those of the same political faith, even between candidates who had been prominent in the same party for many years. Each was supported by his particular friends, or by factions or by organizations of various character, but none of them by the national political party. . . . Since the introduction of this system now after several years' trial, there is not even a suspicion on the part of the people of Pittsburgh that we have not an honest administration. The man who have been elected for the respective positions are, as a rule, far superior in every way to those who prior to that time occupied those same offices."

—A. L. Weil, *Non-partisan ballot in Pittsburgh* (*National Municipal Review*, Mar., 1917).

1911.—Convention of legal aid societies. See **LEGAL AID**: United States: Conferences and conventions.

1919.—Recent improvements.—In 1919 the city authorized a bond issue of \$20,000 to build a sub-way, create a connecting boulevard, to be known as the Boulevard of the Allies, and to make other improvements.

1921.—Partisan elections.—Separate assessments.—The Pennsylvania legislature, in 1921, abolished non-partisan elections for cities of the second class, that is, Pittsburgh and Scranton. In the same year the legislature passed a law authorizing these two cities to adopt a system of separate assessments on land and improvements respectively, in order that the heavier burden of taxation might be placed on land.

PITTSBURGH PROCLAMATION. See **INTERNATIONAL**: 1872-1886.

PIUS I, pope, c. 141-154.

Pius II (1405-1464), pope, 1458-1464. Celebrated in literature as *Aeneas Silvius*, particularly for his "Commentaries," a history of his life and times.

Pius III (1439-1503), pope, September-October, 1503.

Pius IV (1499-1565), pope, 1559-1565. Reconvened the Council of Trent, 1562, and issued a bull confirming its decisions, 1564.

Pius V (1504-1572), pope, 1556-1572. Had been grand inquisitor; allied himself with the king of Spain against the Turks and Protestants. See **TURKEY**: 1566-1571.

Pius VI (1717-1799), pope, 1775-1799. Lost part of his dominions to the French, 1791-1796; and the remainder, 1798; imprisoned in France, 1798, where he died. See **ROME**: Modern city: 1773; **FRANCE**: 1797-1798 (December-May).

Pius VII (1740-1823), pope, 1800-1823. Concluded the "Concordat" with France, 1801; crowned Napoleon Bonaparte emperor, 1804; imprisoned in Italy and in France, 1809-1814; returned to Rome, 1814. See **PAPACY**: 1808-1814; **FRANCE**: 1804-1805; 1805-1806 (December-September); **Jesuits**: 1769-1871; **ROME**: Modern city: 1808-1814; **VATICAN**: 1800-1850.

Pius VIII (1761-1830), pope, 1820-1830.

Pius IX (1792-1878), pope, 1846-1878. Held convocation of Vatican Council which declared dogma of infallibility; fled on the proclamation of the republic, 1848; returned by France, 1850; lost part of his dominions to Victor Emmanuel, 1860; deprived of his temporal power, 1870. See **PAPACY**: 1854; 1869-1870; **ITALY**: 1848-1849; **ROME**: Modern city: 1815-1849.

Pius X (1835-1914), pope, 1903-1914. See **PAPACY**: 1903 (July-August); 1903-1910; 1906 (February); 1907 (September); 1907-1909; 1908; 1911-1914; 1914; **ITALY**: 1914: Death of pope; **ECCLESIASTICAL LAW**: 1545-1904.

Pius XI (1857-), became pope, 1922. See **PAPACY**: 1922.

PIUTES, North American Indian tribe. See **SHOSHONEAN FAMILY**.

PIZARRO, Francisco (c. 1471-1541), Spanish soldier, conqueror of Peru. With Balboa at discovery of the Pacific, 1513; explored south of Panama, 1524-1527; received concession from Spain to conquer Peru, 1529; conquered and governed Peru, 1535-1541. See **PERU**: 1528-1541; 1531-1533; 1533-1548; **AMERICA**: 1509-1511; 1524-1528; **ECUADOR**: Aboriginal kingdom of Quito; **LATIN AMERICA**: 1504-1524.

PIZARRO, Gonzalo (c. 1505-1548), Spanish soldier. Accompanied his half-brother, Francisco,

during the conquest of Peru. See **PERU**: 1533-1548; **AMAZON RIVER**: Discovery and naming.

PIZZIGHITONE CASTLE, Italy, scene of the incarceration of Francis I of France after the defeat of the French by the armies of the Emperor Charles V, 1525. See **FRANCE**: 1525-1526.

PLACE, Francis (1771-1854), English political economist and reformer. Though a tailor and self-educated, he was the associate of Bentham, Mill and Godwin, and took a leading part in the organization and management of trade unions in London; was a factor in procuring the passage of the Reform Bill of 1832, and in the repeal of the law forbidding workmen's combinations.

PLACE MAKER'S BIBLE. See **BIBLE**, **ENGLISH**: Curious misprints in old Bibles.

PLACENTIA. See **PIACENZA**.

PLACENTIA, seaport of Newfoundland, about sixty three miles southwest of St. John's. It was relinquished to the English by the French under the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. See **NEWFOUNDLAND**: 1660-1688; 1694-1697; 1713.

PLACIDIA, Galla (c. 388-c. 450), Roman empress. Mother of Valentinian III. See **ROME**: Empire: 423-450.

PLACILLA, Battle of (1891). See **CHILE**: 1885-1891.

PLACITUM. See **PARLEMENT OF PARIS**.

PLAGUE, PESTILENCE, EPIDEMICS: **B. C.** 466-463.—At Rome. See **ROME**: Republic: **B. C.** 466-463.

B. C. 431-429.—At Athens. See **ATHENS**: **B. C.** 431-429.

B. C. 405-375.—Repeated ravages among the Carthaginians.—"Within the space of less than thirty years [from 405 B. C.] we read of four distinct epidemic distempers, each of frightful severity, as having afflicted Carthage and her armies in Sicily, without touching either Syracuse or the Sicilian Greeks. Such epidemics were the most irresistible of all enemies to the Carthaginians."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 83.

A. D. 78-266.—Plague after the destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii.—Plagues of Orosius, Antoninus, and Cyprian.—"On the cessation of the eruption of Vesuvius, which began on the 23d of August, 78, and which buried Herculaneum, Stabiae and Pompeii in ashes, there arose . . . a destructive plague, which for many days in succession slew 10,000 men daily." The plague of Orosius (so called because Orosius, who wrote in the 5th century, described it most fully) began in the year 125. It was attributed to immense masses of grasshoppers which were swept by the winds, that year from Africa into the Mediterranean Sea, and which were cast back by the waves to putrefy in heaps on the shore. "In Numidia, where at that time Micipsa was king, 800,000 men perished, while in the region which lies most contiguous to the seashore of Carthage and Utica, more than 200,000 are said to have been cut down. In the city of Utica itself, 30,000 soldiers, who had been ordered here for the defence of all Africa, were destroyed.' . . . The plague of Antoninus (164-180) visited the whole Roman Empire, from its most eastern to its extreme western boundaries, beginning at the former, and spreading thence by means of the troops who returned from putting down a rebellion in Syria. In the year 166 it broke out for the first time in Rome, and returned again in the year 168. . . . The plague depopulated entire cities and districts, so that forests sprung up in places before inhabited. . . . With regard to the character of this plague, it has been considered sometimes small-pox, sometimes petechial typhus, and again the bubo-plague. The third so-called plague, that

of Cyprian, raged about 251-266. . . . For a long time 500 died a day in Rome. . . . After its disappearance Italy was almost deserted. . . . It has been assumed that this plague should be considered either a true bubo-plague, or small-pox."—J. H. Baas, *Outlines of the history of medicine*, pp. 189-190.—"Niebuhr has expressed the opinion that 'the ancient world never recovered from the blow inflicted upon it by the plague which visited it in the reign of M. Aurelius.'"—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 68, footnote.

ALSO IN: P. B. Watson, *Marcus Aurelius Antoninus*, ch. 4.

542-594.—During the reign of Justinian.—"The fatal disease which depopulated the earth in the time of Justinian and his successors first appeared in the neighbourhood of Pelusium, between the Serbonian bog and the eastern channel of the Nile. From thence, tracing as it were a double path, it spread to the east, over Syria, Persia, and the Indies, and penetrated to the west, along the coast of Africa, and over the continent of Europe. In the spring of the second year, Constantinople, during three or four months, was visited by the pestilence. . . . It was not till the end of a calamitous period of fifty-two years [542-594] that mankind recovered their health, or the air resumed its pure and salubrious quality."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 43.

ALSO IN: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 5, ch. 17.—J. B. Bury, *History of the later Roman empire*, v. 1, bk. 4, ch. 6.

6th-13th centuries.—Spread of small-pox.—"Nothing is known of the origin of small-pox; but it appears to have come originally from the East, and to have been known in China and Hindostan from time immemorial. . . . 'It seems to have reached Constantinople by way of Egypt about the year 569.' From Constantinople it spread gradually over the whole of Europe, reaching England about the middle of the 13th century."—R. Rollo, *Epidemics, plagues, and fevers*, p. 271.

744-748.—World-wide pestilence.—"One great calamity in the age of Constantine [the Byzantine emperor Constantine V, called Copronymus], appears to have travelled over the whole habitable world; this was the great pestilence, which made its appearance in the Byzantine empire as early as 745. It had previously carried off a considerable portion of the population of Syria, and the caliph Yezid III perished of the disease in 744. From Syria it visited Egypt and Africa, from whence it passed into Sicily. After making great ravages in Sicily and Calabria, it spread to Greece; and at last, in the year 747, it broke out with terrible violence in Constantinople, then probably the most populous city in the universe. It was supposed to have been introduced, and dispersed through Christian countries, by the Venetian and Greek ships employed in carrying on a contraband trade in slaves with the Mohammedan nations, and it spread wherever commerce extended."—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine empire, from 716 to 1057*, bk. 1, ch. 1, sec. 3.

1321.—Persecution of lepers. See JEWS: 1321.

1348-1351.—Black Death. See BLACK DEATH; also BRISTOL: 1349; ENGLAND: 1348-1349; FLORANCE: 1348; FRANCE: 1347-1348; JEWS: 1348-1349.

1360-1363.—Children's plague.—"The peace of Brétigni [England and France, 1360], like the capture of Calais, was followed by a pestilence that turned the national rejoicings into mourning. But the 'Children's Plague,' as it was called, from the fact that it was most deadly to the young, was fortunately not a return of the Black Death, and

did not approach it in its effects."—C. H. Pearson, *English history in the 14th century*, ch. 7.

1485-1593.—Sweating sickness in England.—Plague, small-pox and grippe in Europe.—"For centuries no infection had visited England, which in fearful rapidity and malignancy could be compared with the 'sudar Anglicus,' as it was first called, from the notion that its attacks were confined to Englishmen. People sitting at dinner, in the full enjoyment of health and spirits were seized with it and died before the next morning. An open window, accidental contact in the streets, children playing before the door, a beggar knocking at the rich man's gate, might disseminate the infection, and a whole family would be decimated in a few hours without hope or remedy. Houses and villages were deserted. . . . [It appeared in 1485, 1506, 1517, and again in 1528.] It never entered Scotland. In Calais, Antwerp and Brabant it generally singled out English residents and visitors."—J. S. Brewer, *Reign of Henry VIII*, v. 1, ch. 8.—See also SWEATING SICKNESS.—"In the middle of the 16th century the English sweating sickness disappeared from the list of epidemic diseases. On the other hand, the plague, during the whole 16th century, prevailed more generally, and in places more fatally, than ever before. . . . In 1500-1507 it raged in Germany, Italy, and Holland, in 1528 in Upper Italy, 1534 in Southern France, 1562-1568 pretty generally throughout Europe. . . . Small-pox (first observed or described in Germany in 1493) and measles, whose specific nature was still unknown to the physicians of the West, likewise appeared in the 16th century. . . . The Grippe (influenza), for the first time recognizable with certainty as such, showed itself in the year 1510, and spread over all Europe. A second epidemic, beginning in 1557, was less widely extended. On the other hand, in 1580 and 1593 it became again pandemic, while in 1591 Germany alone was visited."—J. H. Baas, *Outlines of the history of medicine*, pp. 438-439.

ALSO IN: J. F. Hecker, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages*.

1665.—Great Plague in London. See LONDON: 1665.

18th century.—More serious epidemics.—"The bubo-plague, 'the disease of barbarism,' and especially of declining nations, in the 18th century still often reached the north of Europe, though it maintained its chief focus and headquarters in the south-west [south-east?]. Thus from 1703 forward, as the result of the Russo-Swedish war, it spread from Turkey to Sweden, Denmark, Poland and Prussia, so that in 1709, the coldest year of the 18th century, more than 300,000 human beings died in East Prussia in spite of the intense cold, and in Dantzic alone more than 30,000. Obliquing to the west, the plague reached Styria and Bohemia, and was carried by a ship to Regensburg in 1714, but by means of strict quarantine regulations was prevented from spreading to the rest of Germany. A hurricane swept the disease, as it were, out of all Europe. Yet six years later it appeared anew with devastating force in southern France" and was recurrent at intervals, in different parts of the continent, throughout the century. "Epidemics of typhus fever . . . showed themselves at the beginning of the century in small numbers, but disappeared before the plague. . . . La Grippe (influenza) appeared as a pandemic throughout almost all Europe in the years 1709, 1720, 1732, 1742, and 1788; in almost all America in 1732, 1737, 1751, 1772, 1781, and 1798; throughout the eastern hemisphere in 1781, and in the entire western hemisphere in 1761 and 1789; throughout Europe and America in 1767. It prevailed as an epidemic

in France in the years 1737, 1775, and 1779; in England in 1758 and 1775, and in Germany in 1800. . . . Diphtheria, which in the 17th century had showed itself almost exclusively in Spain and Italy, was observed during the 18th in all parts of the world. . . . Small-pox had attained general diffusion. . . . Scarlet fever, first observed in the 17th century, had already gained wide diffusion. . . . Yellow fever, first recognized in the 16th century, and mentioned occasionally in the 17th, appeared with great frequency in the 18th century, but was mostly confined, as at a later period, to America."—J. H. Baas, *Outlines of the history of medicine*, pp. 727-730.

19th century.—Visitations of Asiatic cholera.—Cholera "has its origin in Asia, where its ravages are as great as those of yellow fever in America. It is epidemic or permanent in the Ganges delta, whence it generally spreads every year over India. It was not known in Europe until the beginning of the [19th] century; but since that time we have had six successive visitations. . . . In 1817 there was a violent outbreak of cholera at Jessore, India. Thence it spread to the Malay Islands, and to Bourbon (1819); to China and Persia (1821); to Russia in Europe, and especially to St. Petersburg and Moscow (1830). In the following year it overran Poland, Germany, and England [thence in 1832 to Ireland and America], and first appeared in Paris on January 6, 1832. . . . In 1849, the cholera pursued the same route. Coming overland from India through Russia, it appeared in Paris on March 17, and lasted until October. In 1853, cholera, again coming by this route, was less fatal in Paris, although it lasted for a longer time—from November, 1853, to December, 1854. The three last epidemics, 1865, 1873, and 1884, . . . came by the Mediterranean Sea."—E. L. Trouessart, *Microbes, ferments and moulds*, ch. 5, sec. 8.—A seventh visitation of cholera in Europe occurred in 1892. Its route on this occasion was from Punjab, through Afghanistan and Persia into Russia and across the Mediterranean to Southern France. Late in the summer the epidemic appeared in various parts of Austria and Germany and was frightfully virulent in the city of Hamburg. In England it was confined by excellent regulations to narrow limits. Crossing the Atlantic late in August, it was arrested at the harbor of New York, by half-barbarous but effectual measures of quarantine, and gained no footing in America.—Based on *Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia*, 1892.

ALSO IN: C. Macnamara, *History of Asiatic cholera*.—A. Stillé, *Cholera*, pp. 15-31.

19th century.—Bubonic epidemic.—For years the plague has "continued to breed in various inner parts of Asia, and in 1894, coming from the Chinese province of Yunnan, it invaded Canton, taking there 60,000 victims in a few weeks. Thence it spread to Hong Kong, reached next year the island of Haïnan and Macao, invaded Formosa in 1896, and in the autumn of the same year appeared at Bombay. In the big city of India it found all necessary conditions for breeding, unchecked, for several months in succession: famine, overcrowding, and the absence of all preventive measures; and from Bombay it was carried by rail and road, to different parts of India."—P. Kropatkin, *Recent science* (*Nineteenth Century*, July, 1897).—This outbreak furnished the incentive and the opportunity for scientists to search for the cause of this plague. In 1894 Kitasato, a Japanese bacteriologist, and Yersin, a Frenchman, "isolated a small bacillus in a large number of cases and proved it to be the cause. It enters the body by means of wounds of the skin, and through bites of fleas

from infected rats, which are said to be one of the chief factors in spreading this dread malady. . . . Prophylactic inoculations have been made on a large scale in India, with a certain measure of success."—*Progress of the century*, pp. 187, 197.—Also the antitoxin, or serum, first prepared by professor Haffkine, and called Haffkine's prophylactic has been used with good results. "In the present epidemic [1900], plague-spots are scattered over the whole face of the globe from Sydney to Santos and Hongkong, and recently from San Francisco suspicious cases have been reported. The annual pilgrimage of Moslems to worship at the shrines of Mecca and Medina is now, as in the past, of all human agencies, the most active in spreading the pest. . . . Since Egypt is nearest, plague first appears there in the seaport towns, particularly Alexandria. Sanitary conditions have improved vastly, like economics, under British control; and, last year, what in other times might have been a devastating epidemic was limited to relatively a few scattered cases."—*American Review of Reviews*, May, 1900.—See also FORMOSA: 1874-1910.

20th century.—Slight bubonic outbreaks.—Modern control.—"The presence of bubonic plague at New Orleans two years ago [1915] and the recent outbreaks of cholera which have followed upon the progress of the war in Austria are striking reminders of two of the most terrible pestilences which have ever scourged the human race. They are of special interest to the student of history and geography because in the past these two diseases furnished admirable examples of the manner in which infection travels along trade routes in the wake of commerce and migration. The security which civilized countries may enjoy against their attacks is a brilliant demonstration of the triumphs of modern sanitary science. Bubonic plague, the Black Death of the Middle Ages, with which our National Health Service has successfully grappled at New Orleans, is one of the most virulent diseases known to sanitarians; and, if not immediately recognized and attacked, would claim victims without number. . . . The plague very recently discovered at New Orleans would have brought consternation a decade ago, but to-day with the efficient protection of our ports no fear is entertained. Our knowledge of the rat as the carrier of the germ of plague has made it possible to keep this disease from spreading, to any considerable extent, anywhere outside of Asia. By enforcing quarantine laws, by disinfecting all ships suspected of harboring infected rats, by preventing the rat from landing, and by the comparative freedom of civilized cities from vermin, we have been able to keep plague from extending beyond the ports at which it has sporadically appeared. It is due to a thorough knowledge of these facts and to the careful sanitary precautions based on this knowledge, that we are not at present suffering from a Black Death similar to the one that ravaged and devastated Europe and Asia in the fourteenth century."—D. Greenberg, *Two historic world-pestilences robbed of their terrors by modern sanitation* (*Scientific Monthly*, June, 1917).—"A most encouraging sign of our enlightenment on the subject of pestilential diseases became visible in the past year [1920] when bubonic plague appeared at several of our seaports on the Gulf of Mexico. There was no great alarm felt; no quarantine was imposed and no ill-judged methods of eradication such as the burning of infested quarters of cities, which once was regarded as a desirable method of fighting plague, were employed. Doubtless the confidence which the public has in its sanitary officers to control epidemics accounted for the rela-

tive indifference with which the announcement of the presence of plague was received."—E. G. Spaulding, *Notes on science in America (Scientific American Monthly, Jan., 1921)*.—See also PUBLIC HEALTH: China; MANCHURIA: 1910-1911.

20th century.—Influenza.—Previously identified.—War-time ravages.—"Although the term influenza was not formally adopted by the Royal College of Physicians of London till 1782, the disease was known to Hippocrates and other ancient physicians, and a formidable list of epidemics in various parts of the world between the years 1173 and 1875 is given by Hirsch in his 'Handbook of Geographical and Historical Pathology.' . . . Towards the end of the eighteenth century influenza swept over nearly the whole world."—*Science, Feb. 28, 1919, p. 216*.—See also above: 18th century.—From 1890-1892, there was an epidemic of influenza in the United States, attaining its height in 1891, but this was inconsiderable compared with the outbreak of the disease which took place during the World War and which traveled literally around the world. August 28, 1918, is given by Lieut. Keegan as the beginning of the influenza in the First Naval District where the disease was first recognized in the United States naval hospital at Chelsea, Massachusetts. "According to the annual mortality statistics of the Census Bureau the death rate in the United States was higher in 1918 than in any other recorded year. This was wholly the result of the influenza epidemic which cause more than 244,000 deaths. Influenza and pneumonia together caused nearly one-third of all deaths reported in the United States. A study of the figures of the epidemic recently published by the Bureau of Vital Statistics of the Department of Commerce places the death rate traceable to the influenza epidemic at 4.2 per thousand. If the whole world has suffered in the same degree as the United States this would mean about 7,000,000 deaths; a number approximately equal to all the deaths in battle during the whole of the world war. The actual number is probably greater yet, since some populous countries suffered more heavily than the United States. India, for example, lost some 5,000,000 inhabitants and the death rate in India from influenza and pneumonia alone was greater than the American death rate from all causes combined. The most remarkable fact about the great influenza epidemic was its extent. No important American city escaped, and no country in Europe was unaffected. Altho the epidemic took the name of 'Spanish' influenza, Germany had almost as high a death rate as Spain, and Canada, England, Japan, Mexico and the islands of the Pacific also numbered victims by the hundred thousand. The present outbreak [1920] also has spread from one part of the continent to the other with alarming speed, but very fortunately the death rate is much below that of last winter."—*Great plague (Independent, Feb. 21, 1920)*.

PLAIDS DE LA PORTE, audiences granted by Saint Louis of France to subjects who desired the settlement of a dispute. See FRANCE: 1226-1270.

PLAIN, Party of the, moderate group in the legislative assembly during the French Revolution, opposed to the Mountain.

PLAINS INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area.

PLAINS OF ABRAHAM. See ABRAHAM, PLAINS OF.

PLAN OF AYOTLA. See MEXICO: 1848-1861.

PLAN INDUSTRY. See TRUSTS: Germany: 1920.

PLAN OF IGUALA. See MEXICO: 1820-1826.

PLAN OF SAN LUIS POTOSI. See MEXICO: 1910-1913.

PLAN OF TUXTEPEC. See MEXICO: 1867-1892.

PLAN OF UNION OF COLONIES. See U.S.A.: 1754.

PLAN OF UNION OF PRESBYTERIANS AND CONGREGATIONALISTS. See CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH: 1800-1916.

PLANCK, Max (1858-), German physicist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1918.

PLANETESIMAL THEORY. See ASTRONOMY: 1706-1921.

PLANETS. See ASTRONOMY: 1781-1846.

PLANT INDUSTRY, United States, Bureau of. See AGRICULTURE, DEPARTMENT OF.

PLANTAGANET, House of. See ENGLAND: 1154-1189; LONDON: 1154-1399; ANJOU: Creation of the county.

PLANTATION OF ULSTER. See ULSTER: 1609-1611.

PLANTATION SCHEME. See IRELAND: 1541-1555.

PLANTATION TRADE. See NAVIGATION LAWS: Effects.

PLANTÉ, Gaston (1834-1889), French inventor. Noted for his work on the storage cell. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1803-1905.

PLANTERS' BANK. See MISSISSIPPI: 1818-1890.

PLASSEY, Battle of. See INDIA: 1757.

PLATA, Rio de la, province. See RIO DE LA PLATA.

PLATA, Rio de la, or Plate river, estuary in South America, between Uruguay and Argentina, extending inward about 170 miles from the sea. The cities Buenos Aires and Montevideo stand upon it. The length is about 150 miles. See ARGENTINA: Geographical description; PARAGUAY: 1515-1557; URUGUAY: 1515-1624.

PLATÆA.—Platæa, one of the cities of the Bœotian federation in ancient Greece, under the headship of Thebes, was ill-used by the latter and claimed and received the protection of Athens. This provoked the deep-seated and enduring enmity of Thebes and Boeotia in general towards Athens, while the alliance of the Athenians and Platæans was lasting and faithful.—Based on G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt. 2, ch. 31*.

B. C. 490.—Help to Athens at Marathon. See GREECE: B. C. 490.

B. C. 479.—Decisive overthrow of the Persians. See GREECE: B. C. 479: Persian wars: Platæa; Mycale.

B. C. 431.—Surprise of.—The first act in the Peloponnesian War (B. C. 431) was the surprising of the city of Platæa, the one ally of Athens in Bœotia, by a small force from her near neighbor and deadly enemy, Thebes. The Thebans were admitted by treachery at night and thought themselves in possession of the town. But the Platæans rallied before daybreak and turned the tables upon the foe. Not one of the Thebans escaped. See GREECE: B. C. 432-431.

B. C. 429-427.—Siege, capture, and destruction by Peloponnesians. See GREECE: B. C. 429-427.

B. C. 335.—Restoration by Alexander. See GREECE: B. C. 336-335.

PLATANA, Battle of (827). See SICILY: 827-878.

PLATBEEN, town in southwest Africa. It was taken by the British in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

PLATE RIVER. See PLATA, RIO DE LA.

PLATEAU INDIANS. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN:** Cultural areas in North America: Plateau area.

PLATERESQUE STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE. See **ARCHITECTURE:** Renaissance: Spain.

PLATFORMS, Party, United States. See U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms, etc.; 1900 (May-November); 1904 (May-November); 1908 (April-November); 1911-1912 (June); 1912: Election of 1912; Formation of Progressive party; Woodrow Wilson, etc.; 1916 (February-November); 1920 (May-November).

PLATINA, Bartholomew de' Sacchi (1421-1481), Italian historian. Became librarian of the Vatican library, 1475; author of the "History of the Popes." See **LIBRARIES:** Modern: Administration: Early methods.

PLATO (427-347 B.C.), Athenian philosopher. The founder of the first great philosophical school in the groves of Academus, the Academy. (See **ACADEMY.**) Among his pupils was Aristotle. (See **ARISTOTLE.**) "The problem of the meaning of human life, human knowledge, human conduct, and human institutions depended, for its complete answer, on the answer to the problem of the meaning of reality at large. It was the greatest pupil of Socrates, Plato, who undertook the task at hand; he offered not only a theory of knowledge, a theory of conduct, and a theory of the State but crowned his work with a theory of the universe. . . . He speculates on the method and meaning of truth, and outlines a theory of method, or dialectics, or logic, in which he discusses the art of forming and combining concepts, or the logical operations by means of which truth is reached. We have here the beginnings of a theory of knowledge and formal logic. Plato is not content, however, with telling how true concepts and judgments may be obtained; his chief object is to obtain them, to know reality in all its phases,—physical, mental, and moral,—to comprehend it in its unity and completeness. Indeed, it is plain to him that the knowledge problem itself cannot be solved without an understanding of the nature of the world. To this end he develops a universal system, in the spirit of the teachings of the great thinker who became his ideal. Although Plato did not explicitly divide philosophy into logic, metaphysics (physics), and ethics (practical philosophy including politics), he makes use of such a division in his works."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy*, pp. 58, 60.—Notable among his writings are: the "Dialogues," "Apology," "Phædrus," "Symposium," "Phædo," "Sophist," "Statesman," "Laws," and the "Republic."—See also **NEOPLATONISM;** **DEMOCRACY:** During the classical period; **ECONOMICS:** Greek theory; **EDUCATION:** Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece; **ETHICS:** Greece, Ancient: B.C. 4th century; **EUROPE:** Ancient: Greek civilization: Philosophy; **GREEK LITERATURE:** Development of philosophical literature; **SOCIALISM:** Utopias.

PLATOON PLAN OF EDUCATION. See **DETROIT:** 1920: Adoption of platoon plan.

PLATT, Orville Hitchcock (1827-1905), United States senator. Member of the Connecticut legislature, 1861-1862, 1864-1865, 1869-1870; member of the United States Senate, 1879-1905; author of the Platt Amendment embodied in the constitution of Cuba, 1901. See U.S.A.: 1899 (January-February); **CUBA:** 1901 (February-March); 1901-1902.

PLATT, Thomas Collier (1833-1910), United States senator. Member of the House of Representatives, 1873-1877; member of the Senate from New York, 1881, 1897-1909.

PLATT AMENDMENT. See **CUBA:** 1901-1902.

PLATTE PURCHASE. See **MISSOURI:** 1812-1836.

PLATTSBURG, town in northern New York on Lake Champlain near the Canadian border. Here in 1814 the British fleet was completely defeated by the American fleet under Macdonough. (See U.S.A.: 1814 [September.]) In 1915 a government military training camp was established at Plattsburg. See **WORLD WAR:** 1917: VIII. United States and the war: i, 3.

PLAUTIO-PAPIRIAN LAW (89 B.C.). See **ROME:** Republic: B.C. 90-88.

PLAUTIUS, Aulus (fl. 47 A.D.), Roman military governor of Britain. See **BRITAIN:** 43-53.

PLAUTUS, Titus Maccius (c. 254-184 B.C.), Roman dramatist. See **LATIN LITERATURE:** B.C. 234-103.

PLAVA, town in Italy, formerly in Austria, about ten miles northwest of Gorizia. It was captured by the Italians in 1915. See **WORLD WAR:** 1915: IV. Italy: d; 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: a, 3.

PLAYER PIANO. See **INVENTIONS:** 20th century: Player pianos.

PLAYGROUND MOVEMENT. See **RECREATION:** 1906-1914.

PLAZA, Leonidas (c. 1868-), president of Ecuador, 1901-1905, 1912-1916. See **ECUADOR:** 1901-1906, 1916.

PLEADINGS, Written. See **COMMON LAW:** 1730.

PLEAS, Dilatory. See **COMMON LAW:** 1706.

PLEASANT HILL, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1864 (March-May: Louisiana).

PLEBEIANS, or Plebs, Roman.—"We are now prepared to understand the origin of a distinct body of people which grew up alongside of the patricians of the Roman state during the latter part of the regal period and after its close. These were the plebeians (plebs, 'the crowd,' cf. 'pleo,' to fill) who dwelt in the Roman territory both within and without the walls of the city. They did not belong to the old clans which formed the three original tribes, nor did they have any real or pretended kinship with them, nor, for that matter, with one another, except within the ordinary limits of nature. They were, at the outset, simply an ill-assorted mass of residents, entirely outside of the orderly arrangement which we have described. There were three sources of this multitude: I. When the city grew strong enough, it began to extend its boundaries, and first at the expense of the cantons nearest it, between the Tiber and the Anio. When Rome conquered a canton, she destroyed the walls of its citadel. Its inhabitants were sometimes permitted to occupy their villages as before, and sometimes were removed to Rome. In either case, Rome was henceforth to be their place of meeting and refuge, and they themselves, instead of being reduced to the condition of slaves, were attached to the state as non-citizens. II. The relation of guest-friendship so called, in ancient times, could be entered into between individuals with their families and descendants, and also between individuals and a state, or between two states. Provision for such guest-friendship was undoubtedly made in the treaties which bound together Rome on the one side and the various independent cities of its neighborhood on the other. . . . The commercial advantages of Rome's situation attracted to it, in the course of time, a great many men from the Latin cities in the vicinity, who remained permanently settled there without acquiring Roman citizenship. III. A third con-

stituent element of the 'plebs' was formed by the clients ('the listeners,' 'clueri') [see CLIENTES]. . . . In the beginning of the long struggle between the patricians and plebeians, the clients are represented as having sided with the former. . . . Afterward, when the lapse of time had weakened their sense of dependence on their patrons, they became, as a body, identified with the plebeians."—A. Tighe, *Development of the Roman constitution*, ch. 3.—Originally having no political rights, the Roman plebeians were forced to content themselves with the privilege they enjoyed of engaging in trade at Rome and acquiring property of their own. But as in time they grew to outnumber the patricians, while they rivalled the latter in wealth, they struggled with success for a share in the government and for other rights of citizenship. In the end, political power passed over to them entirely, and the Roman constitution became almost purely democratic, before it perished in anarchy and revolution, giving way to imperialism.—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, ch. 7, 8, 10, 35.—See also **ROME**: Ancient kingdom: Early character and civilization; Republic: B. C. 494-492; 456; 445-400; CIVIL LAW: B. C. 471.

Secessions of plebs. See **SECESSIONS OF THE ROMAN PLEBS**; **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 287.

Also in: B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on history of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 2.

PLEBISCITA, resolutions passed by the Roman plebeians in their Comitia Tributa, or Assembly of the Tribes. See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 472-471; CIVIL LAW: B. C. 450-100.

PLEBISCITES. See **REFERENDUM**.

France. See **FRANCE**: 1851-1852.

Jugo-Slavia. See **BALKAN STATES**: 1921: Jugo-Slavia.

Luxemburg. See **LUXEMBURG**: 1919-1921.

Poland. See **POLAND**: 1919 (June).

Prussia. See **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF**: Part III: Section X.

Schleswig-Holstein. See **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF**: Part III: Section XII.

Silesia. See **POLAND**: 1921: Upper Silesian complications; **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF**: Part III: Section VIII.

PLEBS, Roman. See **PLEBEIANS**.

PLEDGE, Frank. See **FRANKPLEDGE**.

PLEHVE, Viatcheslav Konstantinovich (1846-1904), Russian statesman. Minister of the interior, 1902-1904. See **RUSSIA**: 1899-1903; 1902-1904; 1905 (January); **FINLAND**: 1899-1903.

PLEIADE, name taken by group of French poets in the sixteenth century. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1549-1580.

PLEISTOCENE PERIOD. See **EUROPE**: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Piltdown man; Neanderthal skeleton; **ART**: Distribution; **HISTORY**: 9.

PLEISWITZ, Pleisswitz, or Pleswitz, Peace of (1813). See **GERMANY**: 1813 (May-August); **AUSTRIA**: 1809-1814.

PLENARY COURT, established in France by Brienne, 1788. See **FRANCE**: 1774-1788.

PLEONA, Battle of (1877). See **RUMANIA**: 1875-1881.

PLESSIS-LES-TOURS, Treaty of (1580). See **NETHERLANDS**: 1581-1584.

PLESWITZ. See **PLEISWITZ**.

PLEVNA, city of northern Bulgaria. In the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-1878, it was held by Osman Pasha and a Turkish garrison against a much larger Russian and Rumanian force, but finally compelled to surrender to Russia. The population in 1920 was 27,779. See **TURKEY**: 1877-1878.

PLINY (Gaius Plinius Secundus, the elder) (c. 23-79 A. D.), Roman historian. See **LATIN LITERATURE**: A. D. 14-117; **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Ancient: A. D. 1st century; **SCIENCE**: Ancient: Roman.

PLINY (Gaius Plinius Caecilius Secundus, the younger) (c. 62-c. 113), Roman author. See **LATIN LITERATURE**: A. D. 14-117; **ROME**: Empire: 96-138.

PLOEGSTEERT WOOD, small wooded position about seven miles south of Ypres, Belgium, and near the French border. In 1918 the Germans captured it but lost it later in the year. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: II. Western front: e, 3; 1918: II. Western front: d, 6.

PLONGEUR, early French submarine constructed by Charles Brun. See **SUBMARINES**: 1858.

PLOTINUS (c. 204-270), Roman philosopher of the Neoplatonic school. See **NEOPLATONISM**; **ETHICS**: Greece, Ancient: B. C. 2nd century-A. D. 4th century; **EUROPE**: Ancient: Roman civilization: Intellectual bankruptcy; **GREEK LITERATURE**: Greco-Roman period: Lucian, etc.

PLOW PATENT, name given to a colonial grant in Maine. See **MAINE**: 1629-1631; 1643-1677.

PLOWDEN, Edmund (d. 1659), English lawyer. Given grant of Long Island and parts of the adjoining continent by Charles I. See **NEW ALBION**.

PLOWDEN, Walter Chichele (1820-1860), British statesman and explorer. See **ABYSSINIA**: 1854-1880.

PLUMB, Glenn Edward (1866-), American lawyer. Originator of the "Plumb Plan" for control of railways. See **RAILROADS**: 1919: Plumb Plan; **U. S. A.**: 1919 (August-November).

PLUMER, Herbert Charles Onslow, 1st Baron (1857-), British genl. Served in the Sudan, 1884; in the Boer War, 1899-1902; in the World War, commanded the 5th Army Corps, 1915; commanded the British 2nd Army, 1915-1917; commanded the Italian Expeditionary Force, November 1917-March, 1918; returned to the command of the 2nd Army, 1918; commanded the Army of the Rhine at Cologne, 1918-1919. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: II. Western front: c, 7; c, 8; 1917: II. Western front: d, 2; d, 13; IV. Austro-Italian front: b; 1918: II. Western front: m; r, 2.

PLUMER, William (1759-1850), governor of New Hampshire, 1812-1813, 1816-1819. See **NEW HAMPSHIRE**: 1783-1816.

PLUNKET, Oliver (1629-1681), archbishop of Armagh, beatified in 1920. See **PAPACY**: 1917-1918.

PLUNKETT, Sir Horace Curzon (1854-), Irish statesman. Promoted agricultural coöperation; founded Irish Agricultural Organization Society, 1894; vice-president of department of agriculture and technical instruction for Ireland, 1899-1907; commissioner of Congested Districts Board, Ireland, 1891-1918; chairman of the Irish convention, 1917-1918. See **IRELAND**: 1899-1900; 1917.

PLURAL VOTING. See **BELGIUM**: 1892-1919; 1894-1895; 1902; **SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD**: Belgium: 1830-1921; **British empire**: 1910-1918.

PLUTARCH (c. 46-c. 120), Greek biographer and writer on miscellaneous subjects. See **GREEK LITERATURE**: Greco-Roman period: History.

PLUVIOSE, fifth month of the French revolutionary calendar. See **CHRONOLOGY**: French revolutionary era and calendar.

PLYMOUTH, Massachusetts, town in the southeastern part of Massachusetts on Plymouth bay, founded by the Pilgrims in 1620. It became the first permanent colony north of Virginia. See **AMERICA**: Map of early colonial grants.

1605.—Visited by Champlain and the harbor named Port St. Louis. See CANADA: 1603-1605. 1620-1621.—Founding of colony.—Named. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620; 1621.

1623-1629.—Growth of colony.—Dorchester company. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1623-1629.

1636.—Roger Williams welcomed. See RHODE ISLAND: 1631-1636.

1642.—Growth of charities.—Alms-houses become institutions of correction. See CHARITIES: United States: 1642-1779.

1643.—Becomes one of the United Colonies of New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1643.

1665.—Origin of selectmen. See SELECTMEN.

1674-1678.—King Philip's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675; 1676-1678.

1692.—Absorbed in Massachusetts. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1689-1692.

1897.—Return of manuscript of Bradford's history of Massachusetts called "Log of the Mayflower." See MASSACHUSETTS: 1897.

1921.—Tercentenary celebration of Pilgrim's landing. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1921.

PLYMOUTH, North Carolina, town in North Carolina, about 150 miles east of Raleigh. The Confederate ram *Albatraz* was destroyed in the harbor in 1864. See U.S.A.: 1864 (April-May: North Carolina); (October: North Carolina).

PLYMOUTH BRETHERN. See BRETHERN, PLYMOUTH.

PLYMOUTH COMPANY, northern branch of British joint land stock colonizing company in North America. See AMERICA: Map of King James' grants.

Formation. See VIRGINIA: 1606-1607; MAINE: 1607-1608; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

1615.—Unsuccessful undertakings by Captain John Smith. See AMERICA: 1614-1615.

1620.—Merged in the Council for New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1620-1623.

PLYMOUTH ROCK, Massachusetts, the alleged landing place of the pilgrims. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620.

PNEUMATIC CHEMISTRY. See CHEMISTRY: General: Phlogiston period.

PNEUMONIA. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Experimental method.

PNYX.—"The place of meeting [of the general assemblies of the people in ancient Athens] in earlier times is stated to have been in the market; in the historical period the people met there only to vote on proposals of ostracism, at other times assembling in the so-called Pnyx. As regards the position of this latter . . . the indications given by the ancient authorities appear to settle this much at any rate with certainty, that it was in the neighbourhood of the market, and that of the streets running out of the market one led only into the Pnyx."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The State*, pt. 3, ch. 3.—"The Pnyx was an artificial platform on the north-eastern side of one of the rocky heights which encircled Athens on the west, and along the crest of which is still traced the ancient enclosure of the Asty." At one angle rose the celebrated bema, or pulpit, a quadrangular projection of the rock, eleven feet broad. "The area of the platform was capable of containing between 7,000 and 8,000 persons, allowing a square yard to each."—W. M. Leake, *Topography of Athens*, app. II. See AGORA; ATHENS: B.C. 461-431: General aspect, etc.

POALE ZION. See JEWS: Zionism: 1897-1918.

POBEDONOSTSEV, Konstantin Petrovich (1827-1907), Russian statesman. See RUSSIA: 1881-1894; 1902-1904; 1904.

POCAHONTAS (c. 1595-1617), Indian princess, daughter of Powhatan. See VIRGINIA: 1607-1610; 1609-1616.

POCKET VETO.—When a bill is submitted to the president, he may either sign it, veto it, or take no action whatsoever. If he assumes the last course, the bill becomes law within ten days, unless Congress adjourns before the end of that period. This situation is sometimes taken advantage of by the president, who, disapproving a bill submitted to him in the last days of the session, takes no action, whereupon the bill is automatically killed by the adjournment of Congress. This is called a pocket veto. It was first used by President Madison in 1812 to kill a naturalization act.

PODEBRAD, or **Podiebrad**, George (1420-1471), king of Bohemia, 1458-1471. See AUSTRIA: 1437-1516; 1438-1493; BOHEMIA: 1434-1457; 1458-1471; HUNGARY: 1442-1458.

PODESTAS.—"About the end of the 12th century a new and singular species of magistracy was introduced into the Lombard cities. During the tyranny of Frederic I. [Frederick Barbarossa] he had appointed officers of his own, called podestas, instead of the elective consuls. . . . From experience, as we must presume, of the partiality which their domestic factions carried into the administration of justice, it became a general practice to elect, by the name of podesta, a citizen of some neighbouring state as their general, their criminal judge, and preserver of the peace. . . . The podesta was sometimes chosen in a general assembly, sometimes by a select number of citizens. His office was annual, though prolonged in peculiar emergencies. . . . The authority of these foreign magistrates was not by any means alike in all cities. In some he seems to have superseded the consuls, and commanded the armies in war. In others, as Milan and Florence, his authority was merely judicial."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, v. 1, ch. 3, pt. 1—See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1000-1300.

PODIEBRAD, George. See PODEBRAD, GEORGE.

POE, Edgar Allan (1809-1849), American poet and prose writer. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1790-1860.

POELCAPELLE, village in Belgium, about six miles northeast of Ypres. In 1917 it was taken from the Germans by the Allies, and was occupied by Belgians in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: q.

POETRY. See under literature articles, as AMERICAN LITERATURE; ENGLISH LITERATURE; FRENCH LITERATURE; GERMAN LITERATURE; GREEK LITERATURE, etc.; also BALLAD; KALEVALA.

POGROMS, anti-Jewish riots and massacres. See JEWS: Poland: 1914-1920; Russia: Ukraine; 1921; RUSSIA: 1903 (April).

POHL, Hugo (1855-1916), German naval officer. See ENGLAND: 1915: German blockade of Great Britain.

POILU (bearded one), term applied by the French to their soldiers in the World War.

POINCARE, Raymond (1860-), French statesman. Premier and minister of foreign affairs, 1912 and since 1922; president, 1913-1920. See FRANCE: 1913-1914; 1922 (January); GERMANY: 1922 (July-August); (December); NEAR EAST CONFERENCE; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 41.

POINDEXTER, Miles (1868-), American statesman. Member of the House of Representatives, 1908-1911; United States senator from Washington, 1911-1917; 1917-1923; minister to Peru, 1923.

POINT PLEASANT, Battle of. See OHIO: 1774.

POINTIS, Jean Bernard, Baron (1645-1707), French naval officer. See CARTAGENA, SOUTH AMERICA.

POISON GAS: First use in war.—**Condemnation by the Hague conferences.**—"The first recorded use of suffocating gases in warfare was about 431 B.C., sulphur fumes having been used in besieging the cities of Plataea and Belium in the war between the Athenians and the Spartans. Similar uses of toxic substances are recorded during the Middle Ages. In August, 1855, the English Admiral Lord Dundonald, having observed the deadly character of the fumes of sulphur in Sicily, proposed to reduce Sebastopol by sulphur fumes, and worked out the details of the proposition. The English Government disapproved of the proposition on the ground that 'the effects were so horrible that no honorable combatant could use the means required to produce them.' That the probable use of poison gases was still in the minds of military men is evidenced by the fact that at The Hague conference in 1899 several of the more prominent nations of Europe and Asia pledged themselves not to use any projectiles whose only object was to give out suffocating or poisonous gases. [See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Convention with respect to laws, etc.] Many of the Powers did not sign this declaration until later. Germany signed and ratified it on September 4, 1900, but the United States never signed it. Further, this declaration was not to be binding in case of a war in which a non-signatory was or became a belligerent. Admiral Mahan, a United States delegate, stated his position in regard to the use of gas in shell, at that time an untried theory, as follows: 'The reproach of cruelty and perfidy addressed against these supposed shells was equally uttered previously against firearms and torpedoes, although both are now employed without scruple. It is illogical and not demonstrably humane to be tender about asphyxiating men with gas, when all are prepared to admit that it is allowable to blow the bottom out of an ironclad at midnight, throwing four or five hundred men into the sea to be choked by the water, with scarcely the remotest chance to escape.' The Second Hague Peace Congress in 1907 adopted rules for land warfare, and among them was article 23 which read as follows: 'It is expressly forbidden to employ poisons or poisonous weapons.'—B. Crowell, *America's munitions*, p. 395.

First employment at Ypres.—Different varieties of gas.—**First defensive measures.**—It was in April, 1915, that the Germans launched their first gas attack. Large cylinders filled with compressed chlorine were installed in the trenches, from which bent tubes extended over the parapets. A light wind was blowing toward the Allies, the valves were opened, and the cloud of stifling gas rolled on. In spite of having learned a week before from a deserter, of the preparations the Germans were making, to the English the whole scheme was so unbelievable that no protection had been thought of. The Germans claimed in this attack 6,000 dead and as many more prisoners. Possibly the numbers are not overestimated. Thus began gas warfare. (See also WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: c, 1; c, 2; c, 13, iii.) The Allies at once began devising protection against gas, which took the form first of simple pads saturated with a solution of soda and thio-sulphate, commonly known as "hypo." Then came phosgene gas, a compound of chlorine and carbonic oxide, and sodium carbolate to combat it. Between the end of May and December, 1915, there were no gas attacks, and in this period the gas mask de-

veloped in its earlier forms. Chlorine and phosgene appear to be the only gases which lend themselves to successful gas cloud effects; but a new device was at hand, that of shells loaded with poisonous gases and liquids, which are liberated when the shell explodes. The whole range of the chemical laboratory was scrutinized in search of suitable materials. Poison gases, corrosive liquids, tear gases, sneeze gases, altogether twenty different gases and liquids, have been used by the Germans. The amount of material in a single shell averages six pounds. "The first types of smoke helmet were made of flannel and had a window for seeing through which was made of mica or celluloid. The helmets were soaked in the same kind of solution—hypo, carbonate of soda and glycerine—that had been employed for the respirators. Helmets of this kind were capable of standing up against really considerable concentrations of chlorine, and they were quickly recognized both by the troops and by experts as being a very big improvement on the old respirator."—S. J. M. Auld, *Gas and flame in modern warfare*, p. 35.

T-shells and K-shells.—"It does not appear certain whether the use of lachrymatory liquids for putting men out of action by making their eyes water is in itself contrary to The Hague Convention, as the vapours need not actually be poisonous. This was the case with the first German gas shell, as it was found that the liquid contained consisted only of a material known chemically as 'xylyl bromide.' The vapour of this liquid and of many similar substances has a most powerful effect on the eyes, like that of onions but much stronger. Except in very high concentrations it cannot be regarded as poisonous—at any rate not in the sense that chlorine is poisonous. . . . The lachrymatory shell was known by the Germans as 'T-Shell,' and the xylyl bromide as 'T-Stoff,' and instructions were laid down for the use of this material. Another kind of shell was known as 'K-Shell,' which up to that time had not been used against us, or at any rate had not been recognised. . . . The T-Shell was particularly to be used against positions which it was not intended to occupy immediately, the reason for this being that T-Stoff hangs about for a long time. . . . The K-Shell, on the other hand, was intended to be used against infantry positions and strong points which it was hoped to assault and capture within an hour or two of the bombardment."—S. J. M. Auld, *Gas and flame in modern warfare*, pp. 78, 80-81.

Description of a gas shell.—**Colored cross shells.**—**Mustard gas.**—"The fact of the matter is that the gas shell is not really a gas shell at all. It is nearly always a 'liquid' shell and sometimes even a 'solid' shell. The term 'gas shell' is used because the liquid or solid contents are atomised by the explosion of the bursting charge or are distributed round in the form of such tiny particles or droplets, as the case may be, that they act almost as a gas. In the latter case they form what might be described as a mist or smoke, but with this difference from ordinary smoke—that the gas mist or smoke is generally, though not always, invisible. . . . [In 1917 the Germans began sending over a new series of shell, all distinctly marked with colored crosses and named accordingly. The first to arrive was the Green Cross Shell.] Chemical analysis of the blind Green Cross Shell showed the contents to be a colourless liquid known to chemists by the extensive name of 'trichloromethylchloroformate.' Its effects are just as ferocious as the name implies, and experience showed it to be very poisonous. . . . There was no separate lead container and the 'gas' was filled straight into the body of the shell, as the

new material was unacted on by iron or steel. . . . As very little explosive was needed to open them up and spread the contents round the noise made by the burst of the Green Cross Shell was little more than a pop—at any rate when compared with the high-explosive shell or the old tear shell. The result was that at first men were apt to regard them as duds and to delay the putting on of respirators until it was too late. . . . The chief effects of the mustard gas are on the eyes and lungs. The first thing you notice is the smell—which is slightly of garlic or mustard—and irritation of the nose and throat. Neither effect is enough to make you feel gassed, and the chief symptoms develop later on. . . . With the Green Cross and similar gases a man either protects himself or dies. But with the mustard gas, though the smell and irritation may be perfectly apparent, the effect is not such as to force a man to don his mask. Yet if he does not do so and continues to live in the vapour unprotected he will certainly become a casualty. The mustard gas is known officially by the Germans as Yellow Cross gas, and the shells are marked on the sides with bright yellow crosses and bands. The paint used for these bands changes colour in contact with the mustard-gas liquid, so that if a shell should leak it at once becomes apparent and can be taken away and buried. . . . The other new material that was introduced by the Germans in the summer of 1917 and which, like mustard gas, has been in use ever since is the German 'sneezing gas.' . . . This sneezing material, or sternutator, to give it its scientific name, in this case was a solid which is atomised into tiny particles when the shell bursts. Chemically speaking, it is called diphenylchlorarsine. . . . Such shells are called Blue Cross Shells, and are marked accordingly. This is the third of the trilogy of the German coloured-cross gas shell."—S. J. M. Auld, *Gas and flame in modern warfare*, pp. 128, 132, 138, 171-173, 180-181.

Protected shelters.—Gas masks.—The allies resorted to various means to protect themselves against the shells. Chief among their devices were shelters and respirators. In the former, a damp blanket was depended on to keep out the gas. "The principle of the respirator is to have a box filled with chemicals and attached by a flexible tube to a face piece or mask, which fits closely to the face. All air breathed by a man must therefore pass through the chemicals, and these are so chosen that they will absorb any and every poison that may be present in the atmosphere at the time. . . . The box respirator is contained in a haversack and is carried slung on the shoulder until such time as the soldier comes into the forward areas, where it must be carried tied up on the chest ready for instant adjustment in case of need. . . . It can be put on in six seconds from the word 'go,' and once a man is practiced in wearing it he can walk, run, shoot, dig, speak or do anything but eat and smoke in it; and this for long stretches at a time."—S. J. M. Auld, *Gas and flame in modern warfare*, p. 154.

New means of throwing gas.—Livens projector.—With the development of gas warfare, the Allies were obliged to develop new means of throwing toxic gases. The gas was sent over to the enemy in shell shot from the big guns, in hand grenades, and, most successfully, by a British invention called the "Livens projector." "The Livens projector was deadly in its effect, since it could throw suddenly and in great quantity gas bombs, or drums, into the enemy's ranks. It is notable that although the British used this device with great success throughout much of the latter period of the war, and

though the French and Americans also adopted it and used it freely, the Germans were never able to discover what the device was that threw such havoc into their ranks, nor were they ever able to produce anything that was similar to it. . . . Without going into details of the construction of the Livens projector it may be said that it was usually fired by electricity in sets of 25 or multiples thereof. . . . At the throwing of an electric switch a veritable rain of these large shells, as many as 2,500 of them sometimes, with their lethal contents, would come hurtling down upon the enemy. The Livens projectors could throw their gas drums nearly a mile."—E. S. Farrow, *American guns in the war with Germany*, pp. 82-83.

America's part in gas warfare.—Shipments of poison gas.—"Because of the nature of toxic gas it is impossible to store it up in any large quantities. Early in the summer of 1918 large amounts were shipped in bulk overseas and there loaded into shell. Later we received instructions to stop all shipments in bulk except a limited amount of chlorine, and thereafter our production was limited to the number of shell and boosters available. . . . We therefore shipped to Europe in bulk 3,662 tons of gas or its equivalent, which was largely loaded in shell and used by the United States troops or those of the allies. This quantity was sufficient to load 1,600,000 shell, two-thirds of them being of the 75-millimeter caliber and the other one-third 155-millimeter, the total number being thought to be at least equal to the total number of gas shell fired by American troops in action. Thus while American gas was not actually fired in American shell against the Germans, American gas was used against the enemy and America furnished at least as much gas as she fired. In addition to this we shipped 18,600 Livens drums loaded with phosgene. These contained 279 tons of gas, and some of them were fired at the enemy. We began producing loaded gas shell in the summer of 1918 and by August 9 had shipped 75,000 loaded 75-millimeter shell."—B. Crowell, *America's munitions*, pp. 407-408.

Recent developments.—Coast defense demonstrated.—Use of poison gas prohibited by the Washington conference.—Experiment stations.—"From the time of the first gas attack upon the Canadians until the close of the war, chemical warfare had progressed so rapidly that in the American Army alone 4,066 commissioned officers and 44,615 enlisted men were assigned to this branch of the service. Military experts state to-day that when the armistice was signed the war was 55 per cent. chemical. Twenty-eight different chemicals were being used by the belligerents and sixteen combinations of poisons, making a total of forty-four varieties of poisonous and suffocating gases. Of this number the Germans used seventeen, the French thirteen, the British six and our own army five different kinds of gases, not to mention TNT and 'common smoke' used in smoke screens. When it is recalled that in one night alone, late in the war, 50,000 gas shells were fired into Nieuport, some containing as much as three gallons of mustard gas, it is possible to realize the extent to which poisonous gases will be used in a future war."—C. W. Ackerman, *Introduction to A. A. Fries, Future of poison gas*, (*New York Times Current History*, Dec., 1921).—"War is to-day at the beginning of a complete change in armament. New forces discovered in coal-tar products and the application of these to military and naval strategy have produced new agencies of warfare which are causing a revolution in armaments. Greater progress has been made since the

close of the war in perfecting and developing poison gas bombs than any nation foresaw three years ago. Poison gas, in this very brief period of time, has become the biggest potential military and naval problem of the world, and some of its future possibilities were indicated by the recent bombing tests off the Atlantic coast. These tests demonstrated that our coasts are almost impregnable against a foreign enemy who has to cross the ocean. If bombs containing poison gases can be dropped from airplanes upon or around enemy warships, if submarines can lay mines containing gases, and if gases in solid form, which will burn on water as well as on land, can be utilized to protect our coasts, chemical warfare is bound to have a great influence upon our methods of defense."—A. A. Fries, *Future of poison gas* (*New York Times Current History*, Dec., 1921).—The conference on the limitation of armament, at its last session, in Washington, Feb. 6, 1922, adopted resolutions against the use of submarines as commerce destroyers and poison gas in warfare. These resolutions were embodied in a treaty signed by the following powers: United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan. The section referring to poison gas reads as follows: "Article 5.—The use in war of asphyxiating, poisonous or other gases, and all analogous liquids, materials and devices having been justly condemned by the general opinion of the civilized world, and a prohibition of such use having been declared in treaties to which a majority of the civilized powers are parties, the signatory powers, to the end that this prohibition shall be universally accepted as a part of international law, binding alike the conscience and practice of nations, declare their assent to such prohibition, agree to be bound thereby as between themselves and invite all other civilized nations to adhere thereto." (See also WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.) Nevertheless the United States continues to maintain an elaborate experimental plant in war gases at Edgewood, Maryland. "It is apparent that any future conflicts will be won as much with poison gas as with bullets and bayonets, or with airplanes and battle-ships. And yet these same poison gases which are so effective in war have a peace-time value even more significant. . . . Chlorine [the first poison gas used in battle by the Germans] has come into almost universal use for purifying the water supply of cities."—H. A. Mount, *Peace-time jobs for poison gas* (*Scientific American*, May, 1922).

POISSY, town in France, ten miles northwest of Paris. It was the scene of the famous colloquy, or conference, of 1561, between Catholics and Protestants. See FRANCE: 1560-1563.

POITIERS, town of western France, in the department of Vienne. In 1911 its population was 41,242. It was originally Limonum, a town of the Gauls, and acquired later the name of Pictavi, which has become in modern times Poitiers.

732.—Successful battle of Charlemagne against the Saracens. See GERMANY: 687-800.

1356.—Battle during Hundred Years' War.—A battle was fought Sept. 19, 1356, near the city of Poitiers, in France, by the English, under the "Black Prince," the famous son of Edward III, with the French commanded personally by their king, John II. The advantage in numbers was on the side of the French, but the position of the English was in their favor, inasmuch as it gave little opportunity to the cavalry of the French, which was their strongest arm. The English archers won the day, as in so many other battles of that age. The French were sorely beaten and their king was taken prisoner.—*Froissart, Chronicles* (Johnes tr.), bk. 1, ch. 157-166.—See also FRANCE: 1337-1360.

1569.—Siege by Huguenots. See FRANCE: 1563-1570.

1577.—Edict. See FRANCE: 1577-1578.

POITOU, former province of western France, now included within the departments of Vienne, Deux-Sèvres, and Vendée. See FRANCE: Geographic description.

Origin of name. See PICTONES.

Rise of the counts. See TOULOUSE: 10th-11th centuries.

928.—Wars with Toulouse for control of Aquitaine. See AQUITAINE: 884-1151.

1205.—Control by Philip Augustus.—Becomes French province. See ENGLAND: 1205.

1360.—Ceded to England. See FRANCE: 1337-1360.

POKANOKETS, or Wampanoags, North American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675; 1676-1678; RHODE ISLAND: 1636.

POLA, seaport in Istria on the Adriatic, Italy. It was formerly the chief naval station of Austria-Hungary, but has belonged to Italy since 1919. In the twelfth century it was captured by the Venetians, and destroyed by the Genoese in 1379. See VENICE: 1378-1379.

1915.—Bombarded by Italians. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IX. Naval operations: b, 2.

1916.—Harbor entered by Italians. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: b, 2.

1917.—Becomes Austrian naval base. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: b.

1918.—Italian attack. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: b.

Polabish Language. See PHILOLOGY: 21.

POLAND

Geographical description.—**Population.**—**Area.**—**Education.**—**Industries.**—"The New Poland is the fifth largest country in Europe, containing a total area of about 200,000 square miles [see RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states], and a population of a little over 27,000,000 inhabitants, of whom apparently more than 10 per cent. are Jews. About half of the country is arable and about 25 per cent. of it is wooded. In this great area and population, however, there are only four cities with inhabitants exceeding 200,000; the most important of these are Warsaw, with nearly a million, and Lodz, the great textile center, with 420,000. The Peace Confer-

ence, while it re-united the Poles in Russia, German and Austrian territory, inevitably included a proportion of other nationalities. Out of the population of 27,000,000 it is stated that 18,500,000 are genuine Poles, two or three million are Jews, and the balance Germans, Lithuanians and Ruthenians. However, the vast majority of the inhabitants of modern Poland are Polish by tradition, for even the Jews, the most conspicuous non-Polish element, have been there for centuries, and in the time of Poland's former greatness enjoyed exceptional privileges. . . . The Polish language and the Catholic religion are predominant; the Polish farmer and workman are hard working

and intelligent, and the country is rich. The difficulties of the new republic—aside from the problems bequeathed to it by the Treaty of Versailles—have been practical. The Poles have not managed their own affairs for over a hundred years. . . . When released to their own resources, they have been hampered not only by inexperience, but by difference in training. . . . Poland is now [1923] producing a surplus of foodstuffs, and her general foreign trade situation is one of the favourable items which should operate in stabilizing the general economic and financial conditions of the country. The figures themselves are sufficiently striking. In 1920 Poland's exports were a little less than one-sixth of her visible imports. In the first half of 1922, the exports were four-fifths of the imports, and by the end of the year had drawn level. It is equally interesting that nearly half of these growing exports are manufactured articles."—B. Miles, *Report on the present situation in Poland, Apr., 1923 (Poland, July, 1923)*.—"The territories of Poland are bounded by the frontiers of seven nations: Latvia and Lithuania on the north; Germany on the north and west; Czecho-Slovakia and Rumania on the south; the Ukraine and Soviet Russia on the East. The boundaries between Poland on the one hand and Germany, Czecho-Slovakia and Rumania on the other, are fixed by the Treaties of Versailles and St. Germain and the . . . decision on Upper Silesia by the Council of the League of Nations. The present eastern boundary was set by an agreement between Marshal Pilsudski for Poland and Ataman Petlura for the Ukraine (April, 1920), and the Treaty of Riga (March, 1921) with the Soviet Government. . . . Geographically Poland is a plain serving as a transition from the smaller German plain on the west to the larger Russian plain on the east. The Polish plain is practically unbroken except by rivers, which are the main geographical feature of the country. [See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: a, 4, to a, 7.] . . . Poland was long celebrated for its forests, its wealth of pines, oaks and larches. . . . Twenty-five per cent of Polish territory is covered by forests. . . . The biggest and finest . . . [of which] are in the eastern part of Poland. . . . The government itself owns there several million acres, to the value of half a billion dollars. . . . One-half of the total area of Poland is located in the drainage basin of the Vistula River, one of the most important waterways in Europe. . . . It is because of its location at the mouth of Poland's greatest river that Danzig is of such importance to the nation's commercial life. Being navigable for fair sized craft as far as Cracow, the Vistula is an important transportation route for the mineral and agricultural products of Poland as well as for all imports from overseas. . . . There are at present six universities and two national polytechnical institutes in Poland. The University of Vilna, established by King Stefan Batory, in 1578, is second only to Krakow in age. The University at Lwow (Lemberg), founded in 1661 by King John Casimir, is third in point of years. The University of Warsaw, which . . . has the largest enrollment, dates from 1816. The remaining two universities, located at Poznan and Lubin, . . . [have been] established only . . . since the restoration of Poland. The Polytechnic Institutes are located at Lwow and Warsaw, and were established in 1844 and 1896, respectively. . . . At present Poland has about 10,000 public schools. . . . Fifty-eight per cent. of the population of Poland is engaged in agriculture; eighteen per cent.

in mining and industry; nine per cent. in commerce and traffic, and the remaining fifteen per cent. in other professions. . . . Sugar beet is grown extensively [and other important crops of industrial importance are flax, hops, hemp, and chicory]. . . . There are also grown in Poland clover, alfalfa, vetch, poppy, and a small amount of tobacco. . . . One of the most important of the Polish agricultural industries is the manufacture of beet sugar. There are in Poland 90 sugar factories producing annually about 575,000 tons of raw sugar. . . . In 1921 eighty to ninety thousand tons of sugar . . . [were] available for export. . . . Coal is found in the Dabrowa-Cracow-Silesian Basin, an area of 2,107 square miles lying across the Polish-Czech Silesian border; . . . 1,216 square miles of the rich coal district lie in the province of Upper Silesia. . . . This area is one of the most important coal basins in the entire world. . . . Iron is found in Poland over large areas and in connection with various geological formations. The main deposits are in the province of Radom. . . . Poland is one of the two countries in Europe which possesses rich deposits of rock oil. The oil-bearing land is a strip in Galicia 375 miles long and 31 miles wide. The reserve of the Polish oil fields is estimated at one and a half billion barrels. . . . The Polish cotton mills are among the largest, best equipped and most thoroughly organized on the Continent. . . . The iron industry is the second industry in size and importance. . . . Poland has three distinct railway systems, Russian, German and Austrian. . . . In 1921 about 7,000 miles of railroad were being operated by the Polish Government. These tracks, affected by the wear and tear of the war and a great deficiency in locomotives and cars, made the transportation problem acute. . . . Poland has received, since June 1, 1921, through the Reparations Commission, a number of cars and 350 locomotives from the former German stock. . . . Soviet Russia has also delivered 155 locomotives, 435 passenger cars and 8,859 freight cars in accordance with the Treaty of Riga."—*Handbook of Poland*, pp. 6-7, 9-12, 14-15, 18, 21, 23, 24.—"The allocation to Poland in virtue of the decision of the League of Nations of the southeastern part of Upper Silesia, with its exceptionally rich mineral deposits and highly developed industries, has very considerably increased the economic wealth of the Polish State. The more important industries in Polish Upper Silesia are the coal, the iron and steel and zinc industries. Of the 62 coal mines in this district 49 became Polish, 11 mines remained in Germany while two mines will be partly German and partly Polish. The proportion of the production in 1920 was 24,101,907 and 7,508,439 tons, respectively. Moreover, it is estimated that 90 per cent. of the undeveloped coal fields is in Polish territory. Poland has received all the Upper Silesian zinc works, 24 in number, and 11 out of 14 zinc mines with a production of 81.10 per cent of the total output of zinc ore. The iron and steel industries are highly developed."—*Economic notes (Poland, Sept., 1923)*.

Name.—"The word Pole is not older than the tenth century, and seems to have been originally applied, not so much to the people as to the region they inhabited; 'polska' in the Slavonic tongue signifying a level field or plain."—S. A. Dunham, *History of Poland, introduction*.

Ancestors of the race. See LYGIANS.

Beginnings of national existence.—"The Poles were a nation whose name does not occur in history before the middle of the tenth century; and

we owe to Christianity the first intimations that we have regarding this people. Miecziſlaus I., the first duke or prince of the Poles of whom we possess any authentic accounts, embraced Christianity (966) at the solicitation of his spouse, Dambrowka, sister of Boleslaus II., duke of Bohemia. Shortly after the first bishopric in Poland, that of Posen was . . . founded by Otho the Great. Christianity did not, however, tame the ferocious habits of the Poles, who remained for a long time without . . . progress in mental cultivation. Their government, as wretched as that of Bohemia, subjected the great body of the nation to a debasing servitude. The ancient sovereigns of Poland were hereditary. They ruled most despotically, and with a rod of iron; and, although they acknowledged themselves vassals and tributaries of the German emperors, they repeatedly broke out into open rebellion, asserted their absolute independence, and waged a successful war against their masters. Boleslaus, son of Miecziſlaus I., took advantage of the troubles which rose in Germany on the death of Otho III., to possess himself of the Marches of Lusatia and Budissin, or Bautzen, which the Emperor Henry II. afterwards granted him as fiefs. This same prince, in despite of the Germans, on the death of Henry II. (1025) assumed the royal dignity. Miecziſlaus II., son of Boleslaus, after having cruelly ravaged the country situate between the Oder, the Elbe, and the Saal, was compelled to abdicate the throne, and also to restore those provinces which his father had wrested from the Empire. The male descendants of Miecziſlaus I. reigned in Poland until the death of Casimir the Great (1370). This dynasty of kings is known by the name of the Piasts, or Piasses, so called from one Piast, alleged to have been its founder."—C. G. Koch, *History of revolutions in Europe*, p. 96.—"Boleslav [III] the Wrymouthed (1102-1138) . . . succeeded . . . in conquering Pomerania and extending the Polish possession on the Baltic Seaboard, far across the Oder up to and including the island of Rugia. . . . [He] divided the country [for his five sons] into five principalities—Silesia, Great Poland, Mazovia, Sandomir, and Cracow. . . . [By] the treaty of Trenczyn in Hungary, the new Polish King Kazimir, 1333-1370, acknowledged the right of Bohemia to suzerainty over Silesia and Mazovia. Kazimir, however, succeeded in retaining Polish spiritual influence over the Silesia, and Mazovia soon reverted [1355] into the fold of the Polish state as a feudatory of the Crown."—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 27, 30, 53.—Pomerania, after a brief period of independence became a fief of the German empire.

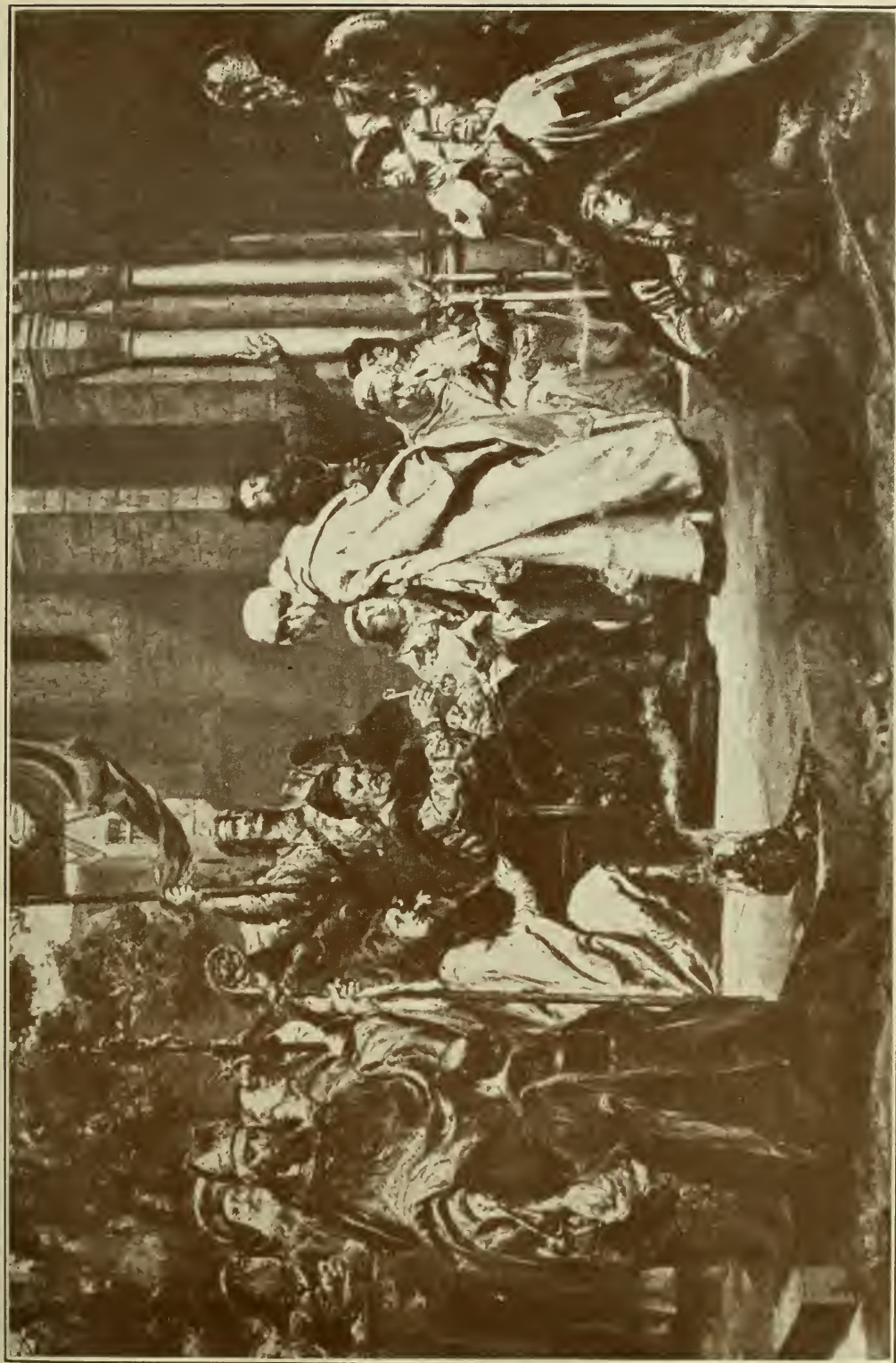
ALSO IN: S. A. Dunham, *History of Poland*, ch. 1-2.

11th-17th centuries.—Treatment of Jews. See Jews: Poland: 11th-13th centuries; 14th-17th centuries.

1241.—Mongol invasion.—Battle of Liegnitz.—"It will . . . not be amiss to explain very briefly the plan and execution of the Mongol campaign. The nominal commander-in-chief was Batu, but there is no doubt that the management of the expedition was in the hands of Subutai. . . . Strategically the invasion of Poland was subsidiary to the invasion of Hungary, and the northern army, when its work was done, was to meet the southern or main army on the Danube. . . . The northern army advanced in three divisions. The main force under Baidar marched through the dominions of Boleslaw the Chaste, and took Cracow; then

bearing north-westward it reached Oppeln on the Oder, where it defeated prince Miecziſlaw; and descended the Oder to Breslau. At the same time Kaidu advanced by a more northerly route through the land of Conrad, prince of Mosovia and Cujavia; while on the extreme right a force under Ordu terrified the Lithuanians and Prussians and crossed the Lower Vistula. The three divisions reunited punctually at Breslau, the capital of Henry II. of Lower Silesia; and all took part in the battle of Liegnitz (April 9), for which King Wenzel of Bohemia arrived . . . just one day too late. The Mongol generals had skilfully managed to force . . . Henry to fight before his arrival. Wenzel discreetly withdrew beyond the mountains into Bohemia; all he could hope to do was to defend his own kingdom. Saxony now lived in dread that its turn had come. But it was no part of the plan of Subutai to launch his troops into Northern Germany. They had annihilated the forces of Poland; it was now time for them to approach the main army in Hungary."—J. B. Bury, *Note* (E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, p. 331).—Here "a great battle was fought, in which the Tartars were not indeed defeated, but were obliged to pay so dearly for victory that they retired from Poland as well as from Hungary. They left behind them a devastated country, ruined towns and a population so diminished that colonists were necessary if the life of the country was to go on."—J. S. Orvis, *Brief history of Poland*, p. 20.—See also MONGOLIA: 1220-1294; LIEGNITZ.

14th century.—Peaceful penetration by German colonists.—Growth of commercial relations and of cities.—Medieval commerce.—Introduction of the Inquisition.—During the fourteenth century Poland encouraged the peaceful penetration of German immigrants—craftsmen and tradesmen—men who were capable of building and defending strong cities and who were accustomed to law and order. As inducements to settle, the cities they established were given "Magdeburg rights," that is, administrative independence and freedom from taxation. These new citizens established many important industries and for a time their influence counterbalanced the disintegrating tendencies of the Polish gentry. "The cities and towns of early Poland served chiefly as stations for transitory foreign commerce. Such was the original character of Kruszwica, Cracow, Lemberg, Posen and Breslau. In a later period when the German settlers changed the mode of Polish urban life and made them the foci of various crafts and industries, the cities became more closely fused with the entire social and economic fabric of the state. . . . The Polish cities had merchants who engaged in foreign commerce. They acted as intermediaries between the north and south, and the east and the west. . . . Cities like Lemberg were important commercial centres for foreign trade. . . . The earliest exports of grain went to Holland, England and France. At the initiative of Emperor Emanuel Paleolog, regular exports of Polish grain to Constantinople began in the fourteenth century. . . . The difficulties put in the way of the Polish merchants by the Order of the Cross controlling the Baltic seacoast, were relieved after the Jagiellon victory at Grünwald, in 1410, as considerable concessions were then obtained. In 1466 Prussia, with its seaports, became a part of Poland, and the whole course of the Vistula came back under the control of Poland. It afforded a great boon to commerce and agriculture. . . . All navigable rivers were declared the



PETER VLAST DUNIN INTRODUCING THE CISTERCIAN ORDER INTO POLAND

(After painting by Jan Matejko)

property of the Crown and therefore public property, free for general use. . . . The acquisition of Danzig and such other ports as Klaypeda (Memel) and Krolewiec (Königsberg) resulting in an enormous increase in exports, caused a revolution in the economic and political life of the country."—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 108-109, 111-112.—"Owing to the tolerations of all religions, previous to the 14th century the Waldensians and Hussites found refuge in Poland in spite of the opposition of the papacy. . . . The inquisition did not make its appearance in [Poland] . . . until late, the first inquisitors being appointed in 1318. There is hardly any record of what they did. . . . [In] 1335 Benedict XII made fresh efforts, and between 1350 and 1380 there was considerable activity against heretics."—A. S. Tuberville, *Mediæval heresy and the Inquisition*, pp. 174-175.

1333-1572.—Union with Lithuania and reign of Jagellon dynasty.—Conquest of Prussia and its grant to Grandmaster Albert.—Casimir III, or Casimir the Great, the last Polish king of the Piast line, ascended the throne in 1333. "Polish historians celebrated the good deeds of this king for the internal prosperity of Poland—his introduction of a legal code, his just administration, his encouragement of learning, and his munificence in founding churches, schools, and hospitals. The great external question of his reign was that of the relations of Poland to the two contiguous powers of Lithuania and the Teutonic Knights of Prussia and the Baltic provinces. [See LITHUANIA: 1240-1377.] On the one hand, Poland, as a Christian country, had stronger ties of connexion with the Teutonic Knights than with Lithuania. On the other hand, ties of race and tradition connected Poland with Lithuania; and the ambitious policy of the Teutonic Knights, who aimed at the extension of their rule at the expense of Poland and Lithuania, and also jealously shut out both countries from the Baltic coast, and so from the advantages of commerce, tended to increase the sympathy between the Poles and the Lithuanians. A happy solution was at length given to this question. Casimir, dying in 1370, left no [male heirs] . . . and the Crown of Poland passed to his nephew Louis of Anjou, at that time also King of Hungary. [See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.] Louis, occupied with the affairs of Hungary, neglected those of Poland, and left it exposed to the attacks of the Lithuanians. He became . . . unpopular among the Poles; and, after his death in 1384, they proclaimed Hedvige [a grand daughter of Casimir] Queen of Poland. In 1386, a marriage was arranged between this princess and Jagellon, Duke of Lithuania—Jagellon agreeing to be baptized, and to establish Christianity among his hitherto heathen subjects. Thus Poland and Lithuania were united [see also RUSSIA: 1350-1480], and a new dynasty of Polish kings was founded, called the dynasty of the Jagellons. The rule of this dynasty, under seven successive kings (1386-1572) constitutes the flourishing epoch of Polish history. . . . Poland and Lithuania were two distinct states under one crown, each retaining its own rights and its own constitutions. . . . The effect of the union of Poland and Lithuania was at once felt in Europe. The first Jagellon, who on his baptism took the name of Uladislav II. . . . spent his whole reign (1386-1434) in consolidating the union and turning it to account. He defended Lithuania against the Tartar hordes then moving westward before the impulse of the conquering Tamerlane. But his chief activity was

against the Teutonic Knights. . . . He engaged in a series of wars against the knights, which ended in a great victory gained over them at Tannenburg [Grünwald] in 1410. By this victory the power of the knights was broken for the time, and their territories placed at the mercy of the Poles. During the reign of Uladislav III., the second of the Jagellons (1434-1444), the knights remained submissive, and that monarch was able to turn his arms, in conjunction with the Hungarians, against a more formidable enemy—the Turks—then beginning their invasions of Europe. Uladislav III. having been slain in battle against the Turks at Varna, the Teutonic Knights availed themselves of the confusion which followed, to try to recover their power. By this time, however, their Prussian subjects were tired of their rule; Dantzic, Elbing, Thorn, and other towns, as well as the landed proprietors and the clergy of various districts, formed a league against them, and, on



CASIMIR THE GREAT

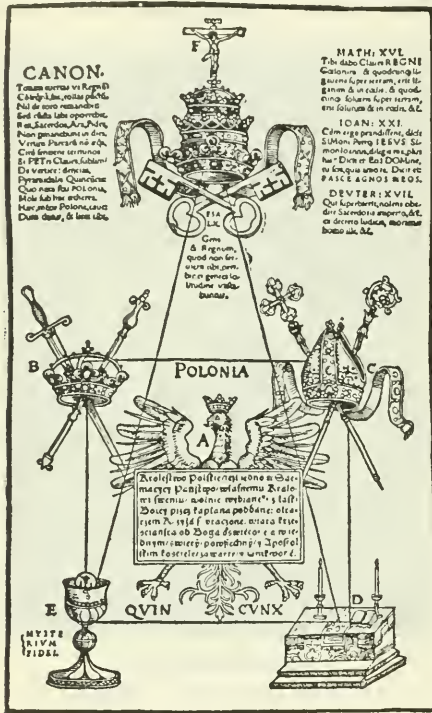
(After the painting by Jan Matejko)

the accession of Casimir IV., . . . to the Polish throne (1447), all Western Prussia revolted from the knights and placed itself under his protection. A terrific war ensued, which was brought to a close in 1466 by the peace of Thorn. By this notable treaty, the independent sovereignty of the Teutonic order in the countries they had held for two centuries was extinguished—the whole of Western Prussia, with the city of Marienburg, and other districts, being annexed to the Polish crown, with guarantees for the preservation of their own forms of administration; and the knights being allowed to retain certain districts of Eastern Prussia, only as vassals of Poland. . . . Thus Poland was once more in possession of . . . a seaboard on the Baltic. . . . Casimir IV. died in 1492; and, though during the reigns of his successors—John Albertus (1492-1501), and Alexander (1501-1506)—the Polish territories suffered some diminution in the direction of Russia, the fruits of the treaty of Thorn were enjoyed in peace."—*Poland: Her history and prospects* (West-

minster Review, v. 63).—"During the reign of John Olbracht . . . (the son of Casimir IV) the nobles secured extraordinary privileges and economic advantages. . . . John Olbracht organized a campaign against Turkey to reconquer the coast of the Black Sea and to overawe the vacillating Hospodars of Moldavia. The campaign resulted in a complete collapse of the plans of the king and the annihilation of an army. . . . At the time of the king's death Lithuania was in . . . a war of her own with Moscovy. . . . Nine years of independence had convinced the Lithuanians of their error in striving to sever the bonds uniting them to Poland, hence the election of Alexander, Grand Duke of Lithuania, to the throne of Poland, was received with great joy. . . . The elec-

nik privilege. By the provisions of this act the Senate could, in the name of the people, refuse obedience to the king in instances of 'tyrannical behavior,' on his part. The nobility, disorganized through great losses in their ranks suffered in the war with Turkey, was unable to resist the return to power of the magnates. . . . These circumstances led to . . . almost complete disorganization . . . of internal administration. . . . The Order of the Cross ceased to pay homage to the king, the Tartars and Wallachians were ravaging the southern provinces of the country. . . . The king convoked the Diet which met regularly every year until order was restored and conditions regulated. In order to offset the extraordinary powers of the Senate the nobility forced through, at the Diet held at Piotrkow in 1504, a law called the 'Incompatibilia,' which defined the powers and duties of the various crown offices and specified which of these were 'incompatible,' i.e., which of them could not be held by the same person at the same time. The next year at the Diet which met at Radom, a statute was passed known by its two initial words as 'Nihil novi.' This statute provided that nothing new could be undertaken without the unanimous consent of the three estates: the King, the Senate and the representatives of the land assemblies of the nobility. This statute also provided that no nobleman should engage in trade or commerce, under the penalty of forfeiting his right to nobility. The nobility opposed the establishment of a regular army, fearing that it might become a powerful weapon in the hands of the king, but solemnly declared their duty and readiness, as land owners, to defend the country from foreign enemies. . . . Soon after the signing of the new statute Alexander died, and his brother Zygmunt I [Sigismund I], the youngest son of Kazimir Jagiellonczyk, was elected King of Poland and Lithuania. . . . It was in his reign that the nobility finally established itself as the dominant factor in Polish life to the detriment of the cities and peasantry. . . . In the first part of his reign the king distinguished himself by his ability and character. Many intricate problems were satisfactorily solved, the exchequer was replenished, jurisdiction regulated, a state mint established, and a large number of the mortgaged crown estates redeemed. In the second part of his reign . . . corruption crept into public life; high offices were given to incompetent favorites and state revenues used to swell private fortunes. . . . The complete fusion of Mazovia with Poland in 1529 took place after the extinction of the Piast Mazurian dynasty. Previously Mazovia had been a vassal principality with an autonomous government, completely independent of the Polish government. The entrance into Polish political life of the Mazurs, who at that time were much inferior in education and economic and political development to the rest of Poland, made itself felt immediately because of their steadfast adherence to the Church and ancient custom and their aversion to progressive tendencies."—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 123-124, 126-127, 129, 131.—"In the reign of the sixth of the Jagellonidæ, however—Sigismund I. (1506-1548)—the Teutonic Knights made an attempt to throw off their allegiance to Poland. . . . The grand-master of the Teutonic order at this time was Albert of Brandenburg. . . . Albert . . . refused homage for the Prussian territories of his order to the Polish king Sigismund, and even prepared to win back what the order had lost by the treaty of Thorn. Sigismund, who was uncle to Albert,

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tions of the king were to be held in common, all alliances and privileges were to be made binding for the two countries, the money was to be the same, and Polish kings were to become automatically, upon their election, Grand Dukes of Lithuania. The separatist tendencies among the Lithuanians came to an end with the death of John Olbracht and the ascent of Alexander. The new king . . . was favorably inclined toward the oligarchy. Upon his becoming Grand Duke of Lithuania in 1492, he had granted a privilege to the Lithuanian potentates by which all the activities of the Grand Duke came under the control of the Council of Magnates. Upon his coronation as King of Poland, in 1501, the Polish magnates obtained from him a similar privilege. By this act the . . . powers of the king were in a large measure obliterated, and his role was reduced to that of the President of the Senate. This important grant is known as the Miel-

defeated his schemes . . . [and] Albert found it the best policy to submit. . . . The Reformation was then in the first flush of its progress over the Continent, and the Teutonic Order of Knights, long a practical anachronism in Europe, was losing even the slight support it still had in surrounding public opinion, as the new doctrines changed men's ideas. What was more, the grand-master himself imbibed Protestant opinions and was a disciple of Luther and Melancthon. He resolved to construct for himself a secular principality out of its ruins. Many of the knights shared or were gained over to his views . . . all becoming Protestants together, with the exception of a few tough old knights who transferred their chapter to Mergentheim in Würtemberg, where it remained . . . till the time of Napoleon. The secularization was formally completed at Cracow in April, 1525. There, in a square before the royal palace, on a throne emblazoned with the arms of Poland and Lithuania—a white eagle for the one, and a mounted knight for the other—the Polish king Sigismund received . . . the banner of the order, the knights standing by and agreeing to the surrender. In return, Sigismund embraced the late grand-master as Duke of Prussia, granting to him and the knights the former possessions of the order, as secular vassals of the Polish crown. The remainder of Sigismund's reign was worthy of this beginning; and at no time was Poland more flourishing than when his son, Sigismund II., the seventh of the Jagellonidæ, succeeded him on the throne. During the wise reign of this prince (1548-1572), whose tolerant policy in the matter of the great religious controversy then agitating Europe is not his least title to credit, Poland lost nothing of her prosperity or her greatness; and one of its last transactions was the consummation of the union between the two nations of Poland and Lithuania by their formal incorporation into one kingdom at the Diet of Lublin (July 1, 1569). . . . This seventh of the Jagellonidæ was also the last, and, on his death in 1572, Poland entered on . . . [a] career of misery and decline."—*Poland: Her history and prospects* (*Westminster Review*, v. 63).—"The union of Lithuania and Poland was . . . manifestly to the advantage of both countries, but in one important respect it had a specifically beneficial effect on Poland. Lithuania and Poland differed constitutionally in regard to the sovereign. In the former the Grand Duke was hereditary, while in the latter the King was elected. Obviously if the union of the crowns was to be maintained the Grand Duke who succeeded must be elected King. . . . Previous to the union of Lublin both countries enjoyed complete autonomy under their own Diets, which usually . . . met at Cracow and Vilna. It was now resolved that both Diets should be united, and form an imperial Diet which should legislate for the whole Commonwealth. It was composed of the King, the members of the Senate, and the Nuncios [representing the *szlachta*, or gentry]. The Senators were nominated by the King and held office for life. . . . The Nuncios, who numbered about four hundred, were elected by provincial Diets, or Dietines as they were termed. . . . The Diet met for a few weeks every two years, but it might be summoned at any time when urgent need arose. The Diet elected a Council of State composed of fifteen Senators, four of whom were in constant attendance on the King . . . and Warsaw was chosen as the new capital."—N. Hill, *Poland and the Polish question*, pp. 29-30.

ALSO IN: H. Tuttle, *History of Prussia, to Frederick the Great*, ch. 4.—S. A. Dunham, *History of Poland*, bk. 1, ch. 3.—H. G. Plum, *Teutonic order and its secularization*, ch. 4-6.

1340-1654.—Control of Ukraine. See UKRAINE: 1340-1654.

1382.—Galicia becomes part of Poland. See GALICIA: 900-1382.

1409.—Represented at Council of Pisa. See PAPACY: 1377-1417.

1439.—Proposed union of Poland and kingdom of Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

1442-1458.—Union with Hungary under Polish kings. See HUNGARY: 1442-1458.

1471-1479.—War with Matthias of Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1471-1487.

1471-1526.—Bohemia under Polish rulers. See AUSTRIA: 1437-1516.

1490-1526.—Control of Hungary. See AUSTRIA: 1437-1516.

1492-1548.—Economic and commercial conditions.—Reduction of peasantry to serfdom.—Representation of cities eliminated.—During the reign of John (I) Albert the laws were amplified so that "the nobility were exempted from tariff duties and other fiscal burdens, the peasants were restricted in their right to leave their villages, and the landlords were given the power to represent their peasants in the courts. Thereafter no peasant could appear in court unaccompanied by his landlord. This last provision, amplified by further statutes, finally threw the whole peasantry into complete dependence upon the private jurisdiction of the landowners. The peasants lost their right to leave their settlements without the permission of the landowners, and the family could send but one of their boys to study in a city. By a further regulation they were not permitted to leave the country for seasonal work in neighboring states, where higher wages prevailed. . . . This movement to restrict the peasants coincides with the opening of the Baltic and the accession of the large Hanseatic port of Gdansk (Danzig), through which a great opportunity presented itself for selling Polish grain and other agricultural products in Europe. To be able to produce grain for export the landowners needed a reliable and cheap labor force. Even prior to this time, as a result of the enormous depreciation of currency that took place in Poland, . . . a tendency had arisen among the landlords to demand rent in the form of services and produce rather than in specie, as had been the custom since the days of the first German settlements. Payment in services and other restrictions formed the foundation of serfdom. The year 1496 is regarded as the beginning of legal serfdom in Poland, leading to a patrimonial form of agrarian life, with the manor as the centre of every economic unit, and the landlord the source of supreme law and power. The same year ushered in the era of gradual decline of Polish cities. . . . The causes of the decline of the Polish cities were numerous. The fall of Constantinople and the discovery of sea routes to the Orient [were important factors]. . . . The heterogeneous character of the population, which, in addition to economic differences, created class and racial struggles within the municipalities . . . was another important factor. This disintegration of municipal harmony was taken advantage of by the powerful magnates and by the officers of the Crown, who had jurisdiction over the Jews and over those parts of the community which were not within the corporate limits, to extend their powers and prerogatives. With the disruption of

the patriarchal relations between the masters of the guilds and the journeymen and apprentices, the cities witnessed many strikes and riots. The municipal government became demoralized and its competence gradually curtailed. The artisans were too much concerned with their trades and class struggles, and the merchants too much absorbed in their commercial transactions, to pay much attention to the political events that were taking place in the country and to the concentration of power in the hands of the nobles. [All through the reigns of Alexander (1501-1506) and Sigismund I (1506-1548) added burdens were put upon the peasants, and henceforth serfdom became more strongly entrenched.]—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 107-108, 117-118.—See also SERFDOM: 16th-19th centuries: Poland.

16th century.—Army organization.—Mercenaries. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 36.

1569.—Effect of Union of Lublin.—Polish nobility.—Position of knights.—Aristocratic Parliament.—“By the union of Lublin in 1569, Lithuania was incorporated into Poland and certain parts of her territory came under direct rule of the Polish Crown, among others being Ukraina which comprised the ancient principalities of Kiev, Poltava, and part of Tchernigoo. From this time on, Polish influence became paramount, and Polishness in manners and customs was introduced, [as well as a common basis of law and government].”—S. E. Howe, *Thousand years of Russian history*, p. 332.—Throughout “Poland, the scientific, literary, and religious movement of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries . . . influenced political ideas. . . . Only men of a certain class were accounted full-citizens—namely, the nobility. This principle, however, was applied very differently in Poland as compared with other European countries. Feudalism was unknown. At the outset there was an attempt on the part of the more influential aristocracy to take the government of the country into its hands through the agency of the Crown, but this venture met with stout resistance from the knighthood. The conflict was short. Owing to the stronger position of the knights as defenders of the country, the aristocracy had even to abandon its special rights and influence and merge into the knighthood. From the coalescence of these two classes the Polish nobility arose. Within it all were equal. There were no titles. The only distinction in rank depended on executive offices, to which any noble could aspire. But, . . . both burgesses and villeins were looked upon as citizens without full rights. . . . The dominant class was also able to secure for itself rights and privileges which practically placed the government of the country in its hands. By the end of the fifteenth century the Polish Parliament, called in Polish ‘Sejm,’ was organized, and, by securing the power of voting supplies and controlling the military service of the Knights, became virtually the Government. Parliament consisted of two Chambers: the Upper Chamber or the Senate, composed of higher officials of the State, and the Lower Chamber, consisting of members elected by constituencies. The powers of the King were subject to constitutional limitations. . . . The State was called a Republic, and the King’s position became that of *Primus inter pares*.”—A. Zaleski, *Poland’s case for independence*, pp. 26-27.

1573.—Election of Henry of Valois.—“Pacta Conventa.”—“Three years after the establishment of the union, Zygmunt II August died, and the distinguished royal family of the Jagiellons came

to an end . . . [in] 1572. . . . In the span of that reign, Poland grew from a relatively unimportant principality into one of the greatest powers of Europe. . . . [In the interregnum pending the election of the new king, the archbishop of Gniezno was elected primate.] The election was held in April 1573 at Warsaw. . . . Over forty thousand voters assembled. There were many candidates . . . [but] the French candidate carried the election . . . and Henri of Valois was made king.”—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 164, 166.—On the election of Henry of Valois, duke of Anjou, to the Polish throne (see FRANCE: 1573-1576), he was required to subscribe to a series of articles, known as the Pacta Conventa (and sometimes called the Articles of Henry), which were intended to be the basis of all future covenants between the Poles and their elective sovereigns. The chief articles of the Pacta Conventa were the following: “1. That the king should not in the remotest degree attempt to influence the senate in the choice of a successor; but should leave inviolable to the Polish nobles the right of electing one at his decease. 2. That he should not assume the title of ‘master’ and ‘heir’ of the monarchy, as borne by all preceding kings. 3. That he should observe the treaty of peace made with the dissidents. 4. That he should not declare war, or dispatch the nobles on any expedition, without the previous sanction of the diet. 5. That he should not impose taxes or contributions of any description. 6. That he should not have any authority to appoint ambassadors to foreign courts. 7. That in case of different opinions prevailing among the senators, he should espouse such only as were in accordance with the laws, and clearly advantageous to the nation. 8. That he should be furnished with a permanent council, the members of which (16 in number; viz. 4 bishops, 4 palatines, and 8 castellans) should be changed every half year, and should be selected by the ordinary diets. 9. That a general diet should be convoked every two years, or oftener, if required. 10. That the duration of each diet should not exceed six weeks. 11. That no dignities or benefices should be conferred on other than natives. 12. That the king should neither marry nor divorce a wife without the permission of the diet. The violation of any one of these articles, even in spirit, was to be considered by the Poles as absolving them from their oaths of allegiance, and as empowering them to elect another ruler.”—S. A. Dunham, *History of Poland*, bk. 2, ch. 1.

1574-1590.—Abandonment of the throne by Henry of Valois.—Election of Stephen Batory.—His successful wars with Russia, and his death.—Election of Sigismund III of Sweden.—Henry of Valois, crowned at Cracow, on February 21, 1574, “soon sighed for the banks of the Seine: amidst the ferocious people whose authority he was constrained to recognize, and who despised him for his imbecility, he had no hope of enjoyment. To escape their factions, . . . he shut himself up within his palace, and, with the few countrymen whom he had been permitted to retain near his person, he abandoned himself to idleness and dissipation. . . . By the death of his brother [Charles IX king of France], who died on the 30th of May, 1574, he had become heir to the crown of the Valois. His first object was to conceal the letters which announced that event, and to flee before the Poles could have any suspicion of his intention. The intelligence, however, transpired through another channel. His senators advised him to convocate a diet, and, in conformity with the laws, to solicit permission of a short

absence while he settled the affairs of his new heritage, . . . but he feared the ambition of his brother the duke of Alençon, who secretly aspired to the throne; and he resolved to depart without it . . . [stealing away from his kingdom like a thief, on the night of June 18]. Some letters found on a table in his apartment attempted to account for his precipitate departure by the urgency of the troubles in his hereditary kingdom; yet he did not reach Lyons till the following year. In a diet assembled at Warsaw, it was resolved that if the king did not return by the 12th of May, 1575, the throne should be declared vacant. Deputies were sent to acquaint him with the decree. . . . After the expiration of the term, the interregnum was proclaimed in the diet of Stenzycza, and a day appointed for a new election. After the deposition of Henry [now become Henry III of France], no less than five foreign and two native princes were proposed as candidates for the crown. . . . The primate, many of the bishops, and several palatines, declared in favour of an Austrian prince; but the greater portion of the diet (assembled on the plains opposite to Warsaw) were for the princess Anne, sister of Sigismund Augustus, whose hand they resolved to confer on Stephen Batory, duke of Transylvania. Accordingly, Stephen was proclaimed king by Zamoyski, starost of Belz. . . . On the other hand, Uchanski the primate nominated the emperor Maximilian, who was proclaimed by the marshal of the crown: this party, however, being too feeble to contend with the great body of the equestrian order, despatched messengers to hasten the arrival of the emperor; but Zamoyski acted with still greater celerity. While his rival was busied about certain conditions, which the party of the primate forced on Maximilian, Batory arrived in Poland, married the princess, subscribed to every thing required from him, and was solemnly crowned. A civil war appeared inevitable, but the death of Maximilian happily averted the disaster. . . . But though Poland and Lithuania thus acknowledged the new king, Prussia, which had espoused the interests of the Austrian, was less tractable. The country, however, was speedily reduced to submission, with the exception of Dantzic, which not only refused to own him, but insisted on its recognition by the diet as a free and independent republic. . . . [Fortunately the inhabitants] had to deal with a monarch of extraordinary moderation. . . . Their submission [1577] disarmed his resentment, and left him at liberty to march against other enemies. During this struggle of Stephen with his rebellious subjects, the Muscovites had laid waste Livonia. To punish their audacity, and wrest from their grasp the conquests they had made during the reign of his immediate predecessors, was now his object. . . . Success everywhere accompanied him. Polotsk, Sakol, Turowla, and many other places, submitted to his arms. The investiture of the duchy (Polotsk) . . . he conferred on Gottard, duke of Courland. . . . Stephen now directed his course towards the province of Novogorod, . . . and, with amazing rapidity, reduced the chief fortified towns between Livonia and that ancient mistress of the North. But his troops were thinned by fatigue, and even victory; reinforcements were peremptorily necessary; and though in an enfeebled state of health, he again returned to collect them. . . . The succeeding campaign promised to be equally glorious, when the tsar, by adroitly insinuating his inclination to unite the Greek with the Latin church, prevailed on the pope to interpose for peace. To the wishes of the papal see the king was ever ready to pay the utmost deference. The

conditions were advantageous to the republic. If she surrendered her recent conquests—which she could not possibly have retained—she obtained an acknowledgment of her rights of sovereignty over Livonia; and Polotsk, with several surrounding fortresses, was annexed to Lithuania. [Stephen Batory died in 1586, having vainly advised the diet to make the crown hereditary, and avert the ruin of the nation. The interregnum which ensued afforded opportunity for a fierce private war between the factions of the Zborowskis and the Zamoyskis. Then followed a disputed election of king, one party proclaiming the archduke Maximilian of Austria, the other Sigismund, prince royal of Sweden—a scion of the Jagellonic family—and both sides resorting to arms. Maximilian was defeated and taken prisoner, and only regained his freedom by relinquishing his claims to the Polish crown.]—S. A. Dunham, *History of Poland*, bk. 2, ch. 1.

1578-1652.—Anarchy organized by the nobles.
—Extraordinary constitution imposed by them



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on the country.—“*Liberum veto*” and its effects. —“On the death of [Sigismund II] the last Jagellon, 1573, at a time when Bohemia and Hungary were deprived of the power of electing their kings, when Sweden renounced this right in favour of its monarchs, Poland renewed its privilege in its most comprehensive form. At a time when European monarchs gradually deprived the great feudal barons of all share in the administration of the law, . . . the Polish nobles destroyed the last vestiges of the royal prerogative. . . . In the year 1578, the kings lost the right of bestowing the patent of nobility, which was made over to the diet. The kings had no share in the legislation, as the laws were made in every interregnum. As soon as the throne became vacant by the death of a king, and before the diet appointed a successor, the nobles of the provinces assembled to examine into the administration of the late king and his senate. Any law that was not approved of could be repealed and new arrangements proposed, which became law if the votes of the diet were unanimous. This unanimity was most easily obtained when a law threatened the individual or when the royal prerogative was to be decreased. . . . The king had no share in the administration,

and even the most urgent circumstances did not justify his acting without the co-operation of the senate. . . . If there was a hostile invasion, war became a matter of course, but it was carried on, on their own account, by the palatines most nearly concerned, and often without the assistance of the king. . . . Bribery, intrigue and party spirit were the only means of influence that could be employed by a king, who was excluded from the administration, who was without domains, without private property or settled revenue, who was surrounded by officers he could not depose and by judges who could be deposed, and who was, in short, without real power of any sort. The senate itself was deprived of its power, and the representatives of the nobles seized upon the highest authority. . . . They alone held the public offices and the highest ecclesiastical benefices. They filled the seats of the judges exclusively, and enjoyed per-



SIGISMUND III

(After the painting by Jan Matejko)

fect immunity from taxes, duties, &c. . . . Another great evil from which the republic suffered was the abuse of the *liberum veto*, which, dangerous as it was in itself, had become law in 1652. . . . [This gave the power of veto to every single voice in the assemblies of the nobles, or in the meetings of the deputies who represented them. Nothing could be adopted without entire unanimity. The members] received definite instructions as to the demands they were to bring forward and the concessions they were to make. . . . One step only was wanting before unanimity of votes became an impossibility, and anarchy was completely organized. This step was taken when individual palatines enjoined their deputies to oppose every discussion at the diet, till their own proposals had been heard and acceded to. Before long, several deputies received the same instructions, and thus the diet was in fact dissolved before it was opened. Other deputies refused to consent to any proposals, if those of their own province were not accepted; so that the veto of one deputy in

a single transaction could bring about the dissolution of the entire diet, and the exercise of the royal authority was thus suspended for two years [since the diet could only be held every other year, to last no longer than a fortnight, and to sit during daylight, only]. . . . No law could be passed, nothing could be resolved upon. The army received no pay. Provinces were desolated by enemies, and none came to their aid. Justice was delayed, the coinage was debased; in short, Poland ceased for the next two years to exist as a state. Every time that a rupture occurred in the diet it was looked on as a national calamity. The curse of posterity was invoked on that deputy who had occasioned it, and on his family. In order to save themselves from popular fury, these deputies were accustomed to hand in their protest in writing, and then to wander about, unknown and without rest, cursed by the nation."—H. von Moltke, *Poland: An historical sketch*, ch. 3.—"It was not till 1652 . . . that this principle of equality, or the free consent of every individual Pole of the privileged class to every act done in the name of the nation, reached its last logical excess. In that year, the king John Casimir having embroiled himself with Sweden, a deputy in the Diet was bold enough to use the right which by theory belonged to him, and by his single veto, not only arrest the preparations for a war with Sweden, but also quash all the proceedings of the Diet. . . . From that time every Pole walked over the earth a conscious incarnation of a power such as no mortal man out of Poland possessed—that of putting a spoke into the whole legislative machinery of his country, and bringing it to a dead lock by his own single obstinacy; and, though the exercise of the power was a different thing from its possession, yet every now and then a man was found with nerve enough to put it in practice. . . . There were, of course, various remedies for this among an inventive people. One, and the most obvious and most frequent, was to knock the vetoist down and throttle him; another, in cases where he had a party at his back, was to bring soldiers round the Diet and coerce it into unanimity. There was also the device of what were called confederations; that is, associations of the nobles independent of the Diet, adopting decrees with the sanction of the king, and imposing them by force on the country. These confederations acquired a kind of legal existence in the intervals between the Diets."—*Poland: Her history and prospects* (*Westminster Review*, v. 63).

1586-1629.—Election of Sigismund of Sweden to the throne.—His succession to Swedish crown and his deposition. See SWEDEN: 1523-1604; 1611-1620.

1590-1648.—Reigns of Sigismund III and Ladislaus IV.—Wars with the Muscovites, the Turks and the Swedes.—Domestic discord in the kingdom.—Sigismund III, "who was elected out of respect for the memory of the house of Jagiello (being the son of the sister of Sigismund Augustus), . . . was too indolent to take the reins of government into his own hands, but placed them in those of the Jesuits and his German favourites. Not only did he thereby lose the affections of his people, but he also lost the crown of Sweden, to which, at his father's death, he was the rightful heir. This throne was wrested from him by his uncle Charles [see SWEDEN: 1523-1604], . . . causing a war between Sweden and Poland, which, although conducted with great skill by the illustrious generals Zamoyski and Chodkiewicz, terminated disastrously for Poland, for, after this war, a part of Livonia remained in the hands of the

Swedes." During the troubled state of affairs at Moscow which followed the death, in 1584, of Ivan the Terrible, Sigismund sent an army which took possession of the Russian capital and remained in occupation of it for some time. (See RUSSIA: 1533-1682.) "The Muscovites offered the throne of the Czar to Ladislas, the eldest son of the King of Poland, on condition that he would change his religion and become a member of 'the Orthodox Church.' Sigismund III., who was a zealous Catholic, and under the influence of the Jesuits, wishing rather to convert the Muscovites to the Catholic Church, would not permit Ladislas to change his faith [and] . . . refused the throne of the Czar for his son. . . . By the peace concluded at Moscow, 1619, the fortress of Smolenski and a considerable part of Muscovy remained in the hands of the Poles. . . . Sigismund III., whose reign was so disastrous to Poland, kept up intimate relations with the house of Austria. The Emperor invited him to take part with him . . . in what is historically termed 'the Thirty Years' War.' Sigismund complied with this request, and sent the Emperor of Austria some of his Cossack regiments. . . . Whilst the Emperor was on the one hand engaged in 'the Thirty Years' War,' he was on the other embroiled with Turkey. The Sultan, in revenge for the aid which the Poles had afforded the Austrians, entered Moldavia with a considerable force. Sigismund III. sent his able general Zolkiewski against the Turks, but as the Polish army was much smaller than that of the Turks, it was defeated on the battlefield of Cecora [1621], in Moldavia [its] general killed, and many of his soldiers taken prisoners. After this unfortunate campaign . . . the Sultan Osman, at the head of 300,000 Mussulmans, confident in the number and valour of his army, marched towards the frontier of Poland with the intention of subjugating the entire kingdom. At this alarming news a Diet was convoked in all haste, at which it was determined that there should be a 'levée en masse,' in order to drive away the terrible Musulman scourge. But before this levée en masse could be organized, the Hetman Chodkiewicz, who had succeeded Zolkiewski as commander-in-chief, crossed the river Dniester with 35,000 soldiers and 30,000 Cossacks, camped under the walls of the fortress of Chocim [or Kotzim, or Khotzim, or Choczim] and there awaited the enemy, to whom, on his appearance, he gave battle [Sept. 28, 1622], and, notwithstanding the disproportion of the two armies, the Turks were utterly routed. . . . After this brilliant victory a peace was concluded with Turkey, and . . . by this victory, the whole of Western Europe was saved from Mussulman invasion. . . . While these events were taking place in the southern provinces, Gustavus Adolphus, who had succeeded to the throne of Sweden, marched into the northern province of Livonia, where there were no Polish troops to resist him (all having been sent against the Turks) and took possession of this Polish province. [See SWEDEN: 1611-1629.] . . . Gustavus Adolphus, however, proposed to restore it to Poland on condition that Sigismund III. would renounce all claim to the crown of Sweden, to which the Polish sovereign was the rightful heir. But in this matter, as in all previous ones, the Polish king acted with the same obstinacy, and the same disregard for the interests of the kingdom . . . and by his refusal Poland lost the entire province of Livonia with the exception of the city of Dynabourg." Sigismund III died in 1632, and his eldest son, Ladislas IV, "was immediately elected King of Poland, a proceeding which spared the kingdom all the miseries attendant on an in-

terregnum. In 1633, after the successful campaign against the Muscovites, in which the important fortified city of Smolensk, as well as other territory, was taken, a treaty advantageous to Poland was concluded. Soon afterwards, through the intervention of England and France, another treaty was made between Poland and Sweden by which the King of Sweden restored to Poland a part of Prussia which had been annexed by Sweden. Thus the reign of Ladislas IV. commenced auspiciously with regard to external matters. . . . Unhappily the bitter quarrels of the nobles were incessant; their only unanimity consisted in trying to foil the good intentions of their king. [Ladislas IV died in 1648, and was succeeded by his brother, John Casimir, who had entered the order of the Jesuits some years before, and had been made a cardinal by the pope, but who was now absolved from his vows and permitted to marry.]"—K. Wolski, *Poland, lectures* 11-12.—See also BRANDENBURG: 1640-1688.

1610-1612.—*Intervention in Russia.—Occupation of and expulsion from Moscow.* See RUSSIA: 1533-1682.

1648.—*Political and religious reaction.*—"The principle of freedom was carried to such excess that every law passed by the Chamber of Deputies required a unanimous vote. A single veto threw out a Bill. This made legislation by Parliament almost impossible; the main power passed into the hands of local councils, which became almost autonomous. These councils, called 'sejmik,' were composed of the local nobility, and began to pass laws special to the area in which they acted without reference to national requirements. This system divided the country into a number of small provinces too loosely connected, and thus greatly diminished the coherence of the State as a whole. As electors of the Kings, the nobles were in a position to curtail the centralized authority until it almost disappeared. The fact that the King could be elected not merely from among the Polish nobility but from one of the foreign royal families, gave foreign monarchs the opportunity to interfere in the internal affairs of the country. . . . Two other factors tended to weaken Poland. In the first place, the Roman Catholic reaction which affected all Europe in the seventeenth century was very marked in Poland. The admirable laws of the sixteenth century, granting perfect freedom of conscience to all inhabitants of Poland and resulting in an inflow of Protestants from many European countries, were forgotten. Indeed, in 1733, all non-Catholics were deprived of the right of entering Parliament and the Civil Service. The second factor was the limitation of the franchise to the nobility. . . . The governing class, fearing an increase of the prerogatives of the Crown, would not vote supplies for the maintenance of an Army, and still clung to the old system of mobilizing the whole nobility in case of war. As an outcome, Poland suffered severe losses. Not only was she deprived of a part of her territory, but also lost her status as a great power."—A. Zaleski, *Poland's case for independence*, pp. 31-32, 34.

1648-1654.—*Revolt of the Cossacks.—Their allegiance transferred to the Russian tsar.*—Since 1320, the Cossacks of the Ukraine had acknowledged allegiance, first, to the grand duke of Lithuania, and afterwards to the king of Poland on the two crowns becoming united in the Jagellon family. (See COSSACKS.) They had long been treated by the hostile Poles with harshness, and in the time of the hetman Bogdan Khmel-nitski (or Chmielnicki), who had personally suf-

ferred grievous wrongs at the hands of the Poles, they were ripe for revolt (1648). "His standard was joined by hordes of Tatars from Bessarabia and the struggle partook to a large extent of the nature of a holy war, as the Cossacks and Malo-Russians generally were of the Greek faith, and their violence was directed against the Roman Catholics and Jews. . . . Bogdan succeeded in taking Lemberg, and became master of all the palatinate, with the exception of Zamosc, a fortress into which the Polish authorities retreated. On the election of John Casimir as king of Poland, he at once opened negotiations with the successful Cossack, and matters were about to be arranged peacefully. Khmelnitski accepted the 'bulava' of a hetman which was offered him by the king. The Cossacks demanded the restoration of their ancient privileges, the removal of the detested Union—as the attempt to amalgamate the Greek and Latin Churches was called—the banishment of the Jesuits from the Ukraine, and the expulsion of the Jews,



JOHN SOBIESKI
(Original in the Louvre)

with other conditions. They were rejected, however, as impossible, and Prince Wisniowiecki, taking advantage of the security into which the Cossacks were lulled, fell upon them treacherously and defeated them with great slaughter. All compromise now seemed hopeless, but the desertion of his Tatar allies made Bogdan again listen to terms at Zborow. The peace, however, was of short duration, and on the 28th of June, 1651, at the battle of Beresteczko in Galicia, the hosts of Bogdan were defeated with great slaughter. After this engagement Bogdan saw that he had no chance of withstanding the Poles by his own resources, and accordingly sent an embassy to Moscow in 1652, offering to transfer himself and his confederates to the allegiance of the Tsar. The negotiations were protracted for some time, and were concluded at Pereiaslavl [in 1654], when Bogdan and seventeen Malo-Russian regiments took the oath to Buturlin, the Tsar's commissioner."—W. R. Morfill, *Story of Russia*, ch. 6.

Also in: H. Krasinski, *Cossacks of the Ukraine*, ch. 1.

1652.—First exercise of the "Liberum veto." See above: 1578-1652.

1656-1658.—War with Sweden.—Battle of Warsaw. See SWEDEN: 1644-1607.

1668-1696.—Abdication of John II Casimir.—War with the Turks.—Election and reign of John III Sobieski.—"In 1668 John Casimir, whose disposition had always been that of a monk rather than that of a king, resigned his throne, and retired to France, where he died as Abbe de St. Germain in 1672. . . . For two years after the abdication . . . the country was in a state of turmoil . . . and confusion. . . . In 1669 a powerful faction of the inferior nobles secured the election of Michael Wisniowiecki, an amiable but silly young man. . . . When John Casimir abdicated the throne Sobieski retained his office of grand hetman under his successor, the feeble Wisnowitzki. . . . [Sobieski] was commander-in-chief of the Polish forces against the Turks . . . [and] in the campaigns of 1671 and 1672 his successes against this powerful enemy were almost miraculous. . . . In 1673 he was sent on an expedition against the Turks and at Khotin the Polish army scored a splendid victory. The Turkish army was almost completely annihilated. But all his exertions were insufficient, in the existing condition of the republic, to deliver it from the terror of the impetuous Mussulmans. In 1672 . . . a disgraceful truce was concluded between the Polish diet and the sultan. The republic was now racked by internal convulsions; nobles, serfs, and clergy, contending with each other, and a large faction of the nobility being inclined to dethrone Wisnowitzki, and attempt a complete revolution in the government. . . . The revolutionary party . . . had formed themselves . . . into a body called the Royal Confederation, and were proceeding to carry out their plans for remodelling the constitution. Before this self-elected body, some private enemy of Sobieski impeached him as a traitor. They summoned him to Warsaw to defend himself. Sobieski came—accompanied, however, by a retinue of the highest nobles, and some regiments of horse. The court and the accuser were abashed. Sobieski, acting in his capacity as grand marshal of Poland, denounced the Royal Confederation as illegal, and insisted on its being changed into a constitutional diet. The demand was complied with. . . . He was triumphantly acquitted of all the charges that had been brought against him. . . . When, in conclusion, Sobieski, as grand hetman, advised the immediate rupture of the dishonourable treaty with the Turks, their approval was unanimous and enthusiastic. Raising an army . . . Sobieski marched against the Turks. He laid siege to the fortress of Kotzim. . . . The Fortress was taken; the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia yielded; the Turks hastily retreated across the Danube. . . . While the Poles were preparing to follow up their victory, intelligence reached the camp that Wisnowitzki was dead. . . . The diet had already met when Sobieski, and those of the Polish nobles who had been with him, reached Warsaw. The electors were divided respecting the claims of two candidates, both foreigners—Charles of Lorraine, who was supported by Austria; and Philip of Neuburg, who was supported by Louis XIV. of France. Many of the Polish nobility had become so corrupt, that foreign gold and foreign influence ruled the diet. In this case, the Austrian candidate seemed to be most favourably received; but as the diet was engaged in the discussion, Sobieski entered. . . . A stormy discussion ensued, in the midst of which the cry of 'Let a Pole rule over Poland,' was raised by one of the nobles, who further proposed that John Sobieski should be elected. The proposition went with the humour of the as-

sembly, and Sobieski, under the title of John III., was proclaimed king of Poland (1674). Sobieski accepted the proffered honour, and immediately set about improving the national affairs, founding an institution for the education of Polish nobles, and increasing the army. . . . After several battles of lesser moment with his Turkish foes, Sobieski prepared for a grand effort; but before he could mature his plans, the pasha of Damascus appeared with an army of 300,000 men on the Polish frontier, and threatened the national subjugation. With the small force he could immediately collect, amounting to not more than 10,000 soldiers Sobieski opposed this enormous force, taking up his position in two small villages on the banks of the Dneister, where he withstood a bombardment for twenty days. Food and ammunition had failed; but still the Poles held out . . . against the faces of the Turks, who surrounded them on all sides. . . . At length, early in the morning of the 14th of October, 1676, they saw the Poles issue slowly out of their entrenchments in order of battle, and apparently confident of victory. A superstitious fear came over them at such a strange sight. No ordinary mortal, they thought, could dare such a thing; and the Tartars cried out that it was useless to fight against the wizard king. The pasha himself was superior to the fears of his men; but knowing that succours were approaching from Poland, he offered an honourable peace, which was accepted, and Sobieski returned home in triumph. [See also HUNGARY: 1668-1683.] Seven years of peace followed. . . . In 1683, a threatened invasion of Christendom by the Turks called him again to the field. . . . After completely clearing Austria of the Turks, Sobieski returned to Poland, again to be harassed with political and domestic annoyances. . . . He died suddenly on Corpus Christi Day, in the year 1696; and 'with him,' says the historian, 'the glory of Poland descended to the tomb.' On the death of Sobieski, the crown of Poland was disposed of to the highest bidder. The competitors were James Sobieski, the son of John; the Prince of Conti; the Elector of Bavaria; and Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony. The last was the successful candidate, having bought over one half of the Polish nobility, and terrified the other half by the approach of his Saxon troops. . . . Augustus entertained a great ambition to be a conqueror, and the particular province which he wished to annex to Poland was Livonia, on the Baltic—a province which had originally belonged to the Teutonic Knights, for which the Swedes, Poles, and Russians had long contended; but which was now . . . in the possession of Sweden."—*History of Poland (Chambers's Miscellany, v. 4, no. 29)*.

ALSO IN: A. T. Palmer, *Life of John Sobieski*. 1684-1696.—War of the Holy League against the Turks. See TURKEY: 1684-1696.

1696-1698.—Disputed election of a king.—Crown gained by Augustus of Saxony.—On the death of Sobieski (1696), Louis XIV of France, put forward the Prince of Conti as a candidate for the vacant Polish throne. "The Emperor, the Pope, the Jesuits and Russia united in supporting the Elector Augustus of Saxony. The Elector had just abjured, in view of the throne of Poland, and the Pope found it quite natural to recompense the hereditary chief of the Lutheran party for having reentered the Roman Church. The Jesuits, who were . . . powerful in Poland, feared the Jansenist relations of Conti. As to the young Czar Peter, he wished to have Poland remain his ally, his instrument against the Turk and the Swede, and feared lest the French spirit should come to re-

organize that country. . . . The financial distress of France did not permit the necessary sacrifices, in an affair wherein money was to play an important part, to be made in time. The Elector of Saxony, on the contrary, exhausted his States to purchase partisans and soldiers. The Prince de Conti had, nevertheless, the majority, and was proclaimed King at Warsaw, June 27, 1697; but the minority proclaimed and called the Elector, who hastened with Saxon troops, and was consecrated King of Poland at Cracow (September 15). Conti, retarded by an English fleet that had obstructed his passage, did not arrive by sea till September 26 at Dantzic, which refused to receive him. The Prince took with him neither troops nor money. The Elector had had, on the contrary, all the time necessary to organize his resources. The Russians were threatening Lithuania. Conti, abandoned by a great part of his adherents, abandoned the undertaking, and returned to France in the month of November. . . . In the following year Augustus of Saxony was recognized as King of Poland by all Europe, even by France."—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV, v. 2, ch. 4*.

1699.—Peace of Carlowitz with Turkey. See HUNGARY: 1683-1699.

18th century.—Status of Jews. See Jews: Poland: 18th century.

1700.—Aggressive league with Russia and Denmark against Charles XII of Sweden. See SWEDEN: 1697-1700.

1701-1707.—Invasion and subjugation by Charles XII of Sweden.—Deposition of Augustus.—Election of Stanislaus I Leczinski. See SWEDEN: 1701-1707.

1709.—Restoration of Augustus.—Expulsion of Stanislaus Leczinski. See SWEDEN: 1707-1718.

1715.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Map of Eastern Europe: 1715.

1720.—Peace with Sweden.—Recognition of Augustus.—Stanislaus again allowed to call himself king. See SWEDEN: 1719-1721.

1732-1733.—Election to the throne, a European question.—France against Russia, Austria and Prussia.—Triumph of the three powers.—Crown renewed to the House of Saxony.—"It became clear that before long a struggle would take place for the Crown of Poland, in which the powers of Europe must interest themselves very closely. Two parties will compete for that uneasy throne: on the one side will stand the northern powers, supporting the claims of the House of Saxony, which was endeavouring to make the Crown hereditary and to restrict it to the Saxon line; on the other side we shall find France alone, desiring to retain the old elective system, and to place on the throne some prince, who, much beholden to her, should cherish French influences, and form a centre of resistance against the dominance of the northern powers. England stands neutral: the other powers are indifferent or exhausted. With a view to the coming difficulty, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, made a secret agreement in 1732, by which they bound themselves to resist all French influences in Poland. With this pact begins that system of nursing and interferences with which the three powers pushed the 'sick man of the North' to its ruin; it is the first stage towards the Partition-treaties. Early in 1733 Augustus II of Poland died: the Poles dreading these powerful neighbours, and drawn, as ever, by a subtle sympathy towards France, at once took steps to resist dictation, declared that they would elect none but a native prince, sent envoys to demand French help, and summoned Stanislaus

Leczinski to Warsaw. Leczinski had been the protégé of Charles XII, who had set him on the Polish throne in 1704; with the fall of the great Swede the little Pole also fell (1712); after some vicissitudes he quietly settled at Weissenburg, whence his daughter Marie went to ascend the throne of France as spouse of Louis XV (1725). Now in 1733 the national party in Poland re-elected him their king, by a vast majority of votes. There was, however, an Austro-Russian faction among the nobles, and these, supported by strong armies of Germans and Russians, nominated Augustus III of Saxony to the throne: he had promised the Empress Anne to cede Courland to Russia, and Charles VI he had won over by acknowledging the Pragmatic Sanction. [See also AUSTRIA: 1718-1738.] War thus became inevitable: the French majority had no strength with which to maintain their candidate against the forces of Russia and Austria; and France, instead of affording Stanislaus effective support at Warsaw, declared war against Austria. The luckless King was obliged to escape from Warsaw, and took refuge in Danzig, expecting French help: all that came was a single ship and 1,500 men, who, landing at the mouth of the Vistula, tried in vain to break the Russian lines. . . . Danzig capitulated, and Stanislaus, a broken refugee, found his way, with many adventures, back to France; Poland submitted to Augustus III."—G. W. Kitchin, *History of France*, v. 3, bk. 6, ch. 2.

1755-1756.—In alliance against Prussia.—Seven Years' War. See GERMANY: 1755-1756.

1763-1790.—First partition and events which led to it.—Respective shares of Russia, Austria and Prussia.—Reforms.—"In 1762, Catherine II. ascended the throne of Russia . . . bent on playing a great part in the affairs of Western Europe. Poland lay between Europe and her empire; she was bound, therefore, to get a firm footing in Poland. . . . On the death of Augustus III., . . . [in 1763], she would permit no foreign prince to mount the throne of Poland, but selected a native Polish nobleman, . . . Stanislaus Poniatowsky, a former lover of her own. Above all things she desired to perpetuate the chronic anarchy of Poland, so as to ensure the weakness of that kingdom. . . . A further desire in Catherine's mind arose from her own peculiar position in Russia at that time. . . . She desired to render herself popular, and "could find nothing more in accordance with the disposition of the Russians . . . than the protection of the Greek Catholics in Poland. Incredible as it may seem, the frantic fanaticism of the Polish rulers had begun, in the preceding twenty or thirty years, to limit and partially to destroy, by harsh enactments, the ancient rights of the Nonconformists. . . . In the year 1763 a complaint was addressed to Catherine by Konisky, the Greek bishop of Mohilev, that 150 parishes of his diocese had been forcibly Romanised by the Polish authorities. The Empress resolved to recover for the dissenters in Poland at least some of their ancient rights, and thus secure their eternal devotion to herself, and inspire the Russian people with grateful enthusiasm. At this time, however, King Augustus III. was attacked by his last illness. A new king must soon be elected at Warsaw, upon which occasion all the European Powers would make their voices heard. Catherine, therefore, in the spring of 1763, first sounded the Cabinets of Vienna and Berlin, in order, if possible, to gain common ground and their support for her diplomatic action. The reception which her overtures met with at the two courts was such as to influ-

ence the next ten years of the history of Poland and Europe. . . . At Vienna, ever since Peter III. had renounced the Austrian alliance, a very unfavourable feeling towards Russia prevailed. . . . The result was that Austria came to no definite resolution, but returned a sullen and evasive reply. It was far otherwise with Frederick II. of Prussia. He agreed with Catherine in desiring that Poland should remain weak. On the other hand, he failed not to perceive that an excessive growth of Russia, and an abiding Russian occupation of Poland, might seriously threaten him. Nevertheless, he did not waver a moment. . . . He needed a powerful ally. . . . Russia alone was left, and he unhesitatingly seized her offered hand. . . . It was proposed to him that six articles should be signed, with certain secret provisions, by which were secured the election of a native for the throne of Poland, the maintenance of the Liberum Veto (i. e., of the anarchy of the nobles), and the support of the Nonconformists; while it was determined to prevent in Sweden all constitutional reforms. Frederick, who was called upon to protect the West Prussian Lutherans, just as the aid of Catherine had been sought by the Greek Bishop of Mohilev, made no objection. After the death of King Augustus III. of Poland, in October, 1763, Frederick signed the above treaty, April 11th, 1764. This understanding between the two Northern Powers caused no small degree of excitement at Vienna. It was immediately feared that Prussia and Russia would at once seize on Polish provinces. . . . This anxiety, however, was altogether premature. No one at St. Petersburg wished for a partition of Poland, but for increased influence over the entire Polish realm. Frederick II., for his part, did not aim at any territorial extension, but would abandon Poland for the time to Russia, that he might secure peace for his country by a Russian alliance. . . . Meanwhile, matters in Poland proceeded according to the wishes of Catherine. Her path was opened to her by the Poles themselves. It was at the call of the Czartoriskys [a wealthy and powerful Polish family] that a Russian army corps of 10,000 men entered the country, occupied Warsaw, and put down the opposing party. It was under the same protection that Stanislaus Poniatowsky was unanimously elected King, on September 1st, 1764. But the Czartoriskys were too clever. They intended, after having become masters of Poland by the help of Russia, to reform the constitution, to establish a regular administration, to strengthen the Crown, and finally to bow the Russians out of the kingdom." The Czartoriskys were soon at issue with the Russian envoy, who commanded the support of all their political opponents, together with that of all the religious Nonconformists, both in the Greek Church and among the Protestants. The king, too, went over to the latter, bought by a Russian subsidy. But this Russian confederation was speedily broken up, when the question of granting civil equality to the Nonconformists came up for settlement. The Russians carried the measure through by force and the act embodying it was signed March 5, 1768. "It was just here that the conflagration arose which first brought fearful evils upon the country itself, and then threatened all Europe with incalculable dangers. At Bar, in Podolia, two courageous men, Pulawski and Krasinski, who were deeply revolted at the concession of civil rights to heretics, set on foot a new Confederation to wage a holy war for the unity and purity of the Church. [See BAR, CONFEDERATION OF.] . . . The Roman Catholic population of

every district joined the Confederation. . . . A terrible war began in the southern provinces. . . . The war on both sides was carried on with savage cruelty; prisoners were tortured to death; neither person nor property was spared. Other complications soon arose. . . . When . . . the Russians, in eager pursuit of a defeated band of Confederates, crossed the Turkish frontier, and the little town of Balta was burnt during an obstinate fight, . . . the Sultan, in an unexpected access of fury, declared war against Russia in October, 1768, because, as he stated in his manifesto, he could no longer endure the wrong done to Poland. [See TURKEY: 1768-1774.] Thus, by a sudden turn of affairs, this Polish question had become a European question of the first importance; and no one felt the change more deeply than King Frederick II. He knew Catherine well enough to be sure that she would not end the war now begun with Turkey, without some material gain to herself. It was equally plain that Austria would never leave to Russia territorial conquests of any great extent in Turkey. . . . The slightest occurrence might divide all Europe into two hostile camps; and Germany would, as usual, from her central position, have to suffer the worst evils of a general war. Frederick II. was thrown into the greatest anxiety by this danger, and he meditated continually how to prevent the outbreak of war. The main question in his mind was how to prevent a breach between Austria and Russia. Catherine wanted to gain more territory, while Austria could not allow her to make any conquests in Turkey. Frederick was led to inquire whether greater compliance might not be shown at Vienna, if Catherine, instead of a Turkish, were to take a Polish province, and were also to agree, on her part, to an annexation of Polish territory by Austria." When this scheme—put forward as one originating with Count Lynar, a Saxon diplomatist—was broached at St. Petersburg, it met with no encouragement; but subsequently the same plan took shape in the mind of the young Emperor Joseph II., and he persuaded his mother, Maria Theresa, to consent to it. Negotiations to that end were opened with the Russian court. "After the foregoing proceedings, it was easy for Russia and Prussia to come to a speedy agreement. On February 17, 1772, a treaty was signed allotting West Prussia to the King, and the Polish territories east of the Dnieper and Duna to the Empress. [See RUSSIA: Map: Growth of Russia in Europe: 1300-1796.] The case of Austria was a more difficult one. . . . The treaty of partition was not signed by the three Powers until August, 1772. [See also RUSSIA: 1768-1796.] . . . The Prussian and Austrian troops now entered Poland on every side, simultaneously with the Russians. The bands of the Confederates, which had hitherto kept the Russians on the alert, now dispersed without further attempt at resistance. . . . A Diet was convened, in order at once to legalise the cession of the provinces to the three Powers by a formal compact, and to regulate the constitutional questions which had been unsettled since the revolt of the Confederation of Bar. . . . The act of cession was unanimously passed. . . . The *Liberum Veto*, the anarchy of the nobles, and the impotence of the Sovereign, were continued."—H. von Sybel, *First partition of Poland* (*Fortnightly Review*, July, 1874).—"One's clear belief . . . is of two things: First, that, as everybody admits, Friedrich had no real hand in starting the notion of Partitioning Poland;—but that he grasped at it with eagerness as the one

way of saving Europe from War: Second, what has been much less noticed, that, under any other hand, it would have led Europe to War; and that to Friedrich is due the fact that it got effected without such accompaniment. [Carlyle's statement of the sharing of the Polish territory in the several partitions is incorrect. The following, from Witzleben, is more trustworthy: Russia, 8,782 German square miles; Prussia, 2,641; Austria, 2,205.] . . . Friedrich's share . . . as filling up the always dangerous gap between his Ost-Preussen and him, has, under Prussian administration, proved much the most valuable of the three; and, next to Silesia, is Friedrich's most important acquisition. September 13th, 1772, it was at last entered upon,—through such waste-weltering confusions, and on terms never yet unquestionable. Consent of Polish Diet was not had for a year more; but that is worth little record."—T. Carlyle, *History of Frederick the Great*, v. 6, bk. 21, ch. 4.—Regardless of the fact that the king was powerless, and despite the disturbances created by the "*Liberum Veto*" (see above: 1578-1652), and the confusion caused by the lawlessness of the nobles "early in the last half of the eighteenth century, a strong regenerating movement had begun. At first this was the work of individual men, but shortly it widened . . . to a great national movement; . . . sweeping reforms on a democratic basis were initiated, but unfortunately they came too late. . . . The regenerating movement in Poland was gaining ground when King August III died in 1763. . . . Parliament began by introducing reforms to . . . [strengthen] the Executive; to facilitate the proceedings of the House; . . . to improve the position of burghesses and peasants; to strengthen the economic condition of the country; and, finally, to increase the military power of the State. Several of these reforms were carried into effect, but the most salient never reached the Statute Book because [of the attitude of] Prussia and Russia. . . . In 1773 the so-called Commission of Education was formed, and all business concerning public education fell to it. This was the first Board of Education established in Europe. . . . In 1787 . . . the international situation was greatly changed. Turkey declared war on Russia; Austria, according to her treaty with Russia, in her turn declared war on Turkey. Profiting by this situation, Sweden broke off diplomatic relations with Russia and began hostilities. England, Holland, and Prussia were ready to back Turkey. The Poles had two roads open to them: to enter into an alliance with Russia and Austria, or to join the other Powers standing by Russia. King Frederick William II made very profitable offers to Poland, promising her to free her from the influence of Russia. On March 29, 1790, a defensive and offensive treaty was signed between Poland and Prussia, by which each Power was bound to intervene should the other be attacked."—A. Zaleski, *Poland's case for independence*, pp. 34, 36-38.

ALSO IN: W. Cox, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 3, ch. 119.—R. N. Bain, *Last king of Poland*.—L. Eversley, *Partition of Poland*.

1768.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Map of eastern Europe: 1768.

1791-1792.—Civic constitution of April 18, 1791.—Stanislawian constitution of May 3, 1791.—Constitution overthrown by Russia.—"After the first Partition of Poland was completed in 1776, that devoted country was suffered for sixteen years to enjoy an interval of more undisturbed tranquillity than it had known for a cen-

tury. Russian armies ceased to vex it. The dispositions of other foreign powers became more favourable. . . . Attempts were not wanting to seduce him [Frederick II] into new enterprises against Poland. . . . As soon as Frederic returned to counsels worthy of himself, he became unfit for the purposes of the Empress [Catherine II of Russia] who, in 1780, refused to renew her alliance with him, and found a more suitable instrument of her designs in the restless character, and shallow understanding, of Joseph II, whose unprincipled ambition was now released from the restraint which his mother's scruples had imposed on it. . . . Other powers now adopted a policy, of which the influence was favourable to the Poles. [See GERMANY: 1791-1792.] Prussia, as she receded from Russia, became gradually connected with England, Holland, and Sweden; and her honest policy in the care of Bavaria placed her at the head of all the independent members of the Germanic Confederacy. Turkey declared war against Russia; and the Austrian Government was disturbed by the discontent and revolts which the precipitate innovations of Joseph had excited in various provinces of the monarchy. A formidable combination against the power of Russia was in process of time formed. . . . In the treaty between Prussia and the Porte, concluded at Constantinople in January, 1790, the contracting parties bound themselves to endeavour to obtain from Austria the restitution of those Polish provinces to which had been given the name of Galicia. During the progress of these auspicious changes, the Polish nation began to entertain the hope that they might at length be suffered to reform their institutions, to provide for their own quiet and safety, and to adopt that policy which might one day enable them to resume their ancient station among European nations. . . . A national spirit was slowly reviving. The nobility patiently listened to plans for the establishment of a productive revenue and a regular army; a disposition to renounce their dangerous right of electing a king made perceptible advances; and the fatal law of unanimity had been so branded as an instrument of Russia policy, that in the Diets of these ten years no nuncio was found bold enough to employ his negative. . . . In the midst of these excellent symptoms of public sense and temper, a Diet assembled at Warsaw in October 1788, from whom the restoration of the republic was hoped, and by whom it would have been accomplished, if their prudent and honest measures had not been [later] defeated by [an act of treachery]. . . . The Diet applied itself with the utmost diligence and caution to reform the State. They watched the progress of popular opinion, and proposed no reformation till the public seemed ripe for its reception." —J. Mackintosh, *Account of the partition of Poland* (*Edinburgh Review*, Nov., 1822).—"All this time the Diet was . . . labouring to frame . . . a constitution corresponding to the needs of the country—and the wishes of the nation. . . . The two questions which agitated the Chamber the most were the 'Civic Constitution' which aimed at restoring to the burgesses the franchise of which they had been . . . deprived . . . and the conversion of the Government from an electoral into an hereditary monarchy. . . . This question of the 'Civic Constitution' had been forced upon the attention of the House as early as 1789. The initiative was taken by Jan Deckert, Burgomaster of Warsaw, who induced no fewer than 141 Polish towns to send deputies to the Diet with a petition of rights. . . . and compelled an absolute monarch to comply

with their demands. . . . On December 2, 1789, 200 delegates from the Polish boroughs . . . proceeded . . . to present their petition to the King [Stanislaus II Augustus]. . . . It [demanded the] . . . restoration of the privileges enjoyed by the municipalities in 1569; personal security; the right to possess landed property; eligibility to all civil and ecclesiastical appointments; freedom from the jurisdiction of the aristocratic tribunals; and the possession of the parliamentary franchise. . . . The Burgesses departed with the comfortable conviction that Stanislaus was . . . their friend. The Diet was far less obliging. It affected to regard 'the Black Procession,' as it called the civic deputation to the King, as seditious agitators; refused to receive the Burgesses personally. . . . After a three days' debate (December 16-18) the whole question was referred to a special committee . . . and nothing more was heard of the matter for eighteen months. Finally (April 5, 1791) [there was] . . . presented to the Diet the draft of a new 'Civic Constitution,' revised and amended by the King. It was, virtually, a recapitulation, with some amplifications and improvements, of [the] . . . original petition. . . . But the Opposition . . . succeeded . . . in striking out the clause which restored to the Burgesses the right of representation in the Diet, a right they had possessed as early as the reign of King Alexander (1501-1506). As this was the vital clause of the 'Civic Constitution' the political prospects of the Burgesses now seemed hopeless indeed, when, to the general amazement, the reactionary deputy, Pan Suchorzewski, one of the two notorious parliamentary 'spouters' . . . suddenly presented to the Chamber 'a draft civic law' framed by himself. . . . The King [Stanislaus] . . . declared that he would accept with pleasure a project so much better than his own and, there and then, submitted the Suchorzewski amendment to the judgment of the Chamber, which adopted it unanimously. . . . The tidings of the passing of this memorable reform . . . speedily spread through Warsaw. On the following day [April 18, 1791] three hundred of the most eminent burgesses of the City, headed by their Burgomaster, proceeded to the Palace and petitioned for an audience. When the King appeared, the whole deputation fell at his feet and thanked him with tears of joy. . . . Nevertheless, . . . the 'Civic Constitution' had only [just] been carried through the House. . . . The . . . important question of the hereditary succession proved to be absolutely insoluble by legislative methods. It could only be settled . . . by the drastic expedient of a *coup d'état*. . . . In the Diet itself, the party in favor of 'Hereditary Monarchy' was the more popular and patriotic; but the 'Free Election' party was the more numerous and violent. Fortunately, it had no capable leaders and therefore lacked cohesion. The King was obliged, officially, to remain neutral as the *pacta conventa* which he had signed . . . at his coronation, precluded him from having any opinion on such a fundamental question. Both parties were already under arms when, on September 26, 1790, the Marshal of the Diet moved that a 'Universal' or Manifesto, should be submitted to the local Diets, . . . which elected the deputies to the Grand Diet, on this single question: shall the Elective Monarchy of Poland be converted into a Hereditary Monarchy? . . . Stanislaus himself wound up the debate. He began by reminding the House . . . [that] he had not many more years to live, and that, after his death, the throne, in the circumstances, could not fail to become an apple of discord among those whose



DIET AT WARSAW, 1773

The democratic leader, Thaddeus Reylan, throws himself before the door of the Diet in order to prevent the entry of Szczesny, Potocki, Poninski and Branicki, the leaders of the Russian party
(After Matejko's painting in the Vienna Court Museum)

ambition might covet so dangerous a prize. In that case the country would be plunged into civil war . . . simply because an obsolete prejudice required that all their decisions should be unanimous on the point in question. . . . On September 30, the Elector of Saxony was chosen by the Diet, suddenly, . . . but unanimously, as the fittest successor to Stanislaus. . . . Only in the distant palatinates of Volhynia and Braclaw, where reactionary influences were strongest, was there any determined opposition. . . . On December 20, 1790, the session was re-opened; but it soon became evident to the more perspicacious that the Diet was unequal to the task of reforming the Constitution. . . . The Volhynians would not hear of a radical reform of the Constitution and as, according to the fundamental laws, every constitutional question could only be decided by a unanimous vote of the Legislature, the whole business of the House soon came to a deadlock. . . . Stanislaus's own position was now very much stronger than it had been six months before. . . . As, however, experience had demonstrated the futility of the Diet's own efforts at constitution-making, they now begged the King himself to draw up a new form of Constitution suitable to the peculiar circumstances of the case. . . . He immediately set to work and presented his rough draft, written in French, on the model of the English Constitution. . . . Kollontaj at once proceeded to translate the King's French draft into excellent Polish, at the same time expanding its provisions so as to make it still more susceptible of sweeping reforms in the near future. . . . At the last moment, the conspirators were obliged to reconsider their plans. At a meeting held . . . on April 28, (1791) . . . it was agreed to carry out the *coup d'état* on the 3rd instead on the 5th of May, and to adopt a number of precautionary measures to facilitate its success. The King's nephew . . . General, Prince Joseph Poniatowski, was to surround the Palace with troops to protect the Estates from the violence of the reactionaries, while Kollontaj undertook, by means of his various agents, to secure beforehand, the burgesses of Warsaw for the revolution. . . . The Hall of Session was already full to overflowing. . . . In front of the Marshal's barrier sat Prince Joseph Poniatowski with the King's adjutant, General Golkowski. . . . [When] the King entered the Hall of Session . . . he was greeted with loud applause. . . . The deputies [were reminded] of the disasters which had already befallen the Republic, [and] . . . warned . . . that still more terrible disasters might momentarily be expected. . . . The Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs . . . read aloud the latest despatches from the Polish Ambassadors abroad. . . . From Vienna, Paris, Dresden, and the Hague came reports of Prussian intrigues aiming at a fresh partition of Poland. Still more alarming was the news from St. Petersburg. . . . Stanislaus immediately . . . declared that after what they had just heard it was obvious that any further delay in establishing a new stable Constitution must be fatal to Poland. . . . The draft of the new Constitution was then read. It was received [by] . . . Malachowski, on behalf of the Diet. . . . The Chamber supported the petition of its Marshal."—R. N. Bain, *Last king of Poland and his contemporaries*, pp. 217-231.—The new Constitution of May 3, 1791, "confirmed the rights of the Established Church, together with religious liberty, as dictated by the charity which religion inculcates and inspires. It established an hereditary monarchy in the Electoral House of Saxony; reserving to the nation

the right of choosing a new race of Kings, in case of the extinction of that family. The executive power was vested in the King, whose ministers were responsible for its exercise. The Legislature was divided into two Houses, the Senate and the House of Nuncios, with respect to whom the ancient constitutional language and forms were preserved. The necessity of unanimity [the "*Liberum Veto*"] was taken away, and with it, those dangerous remedies of Confederation and Confederate Diets which it had rendered necessary. Each considerable town received new rights, with a restoration of all their ancient privileges. The burgesses recovered the right of electing their own magistrates. . . . All the offices of the State, the law, the church, and the army, were thrown open to them. The larger towns were empowered to send deputies to the Diet, with a right to vote on all local and commercial subjects, and to speak on all questions whatsoever. All these deputies became noble, as did every officer of the rank of captain, and every lawyer who filled the humblest office of magistracy, and every burgess who acquired



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a property in land paying £5 of yearly taxes. . . . Numerous paths to nobility were thus thrown open. Every art was employed to make the ascent easy. . . . Having thus communicated political privileges to hitherto disregarded freemen, . . . the constitution extended to all serfs the full protection of law, which before was enjoyed by those of the Royal demesnes; and it facilitated and encouraged voluntary manumission. . . . The storm which demolished this noble edifice came from abroad. . . . On the 9th of January, 1792, Catharine concluded a peace with Turkey at Jassy; and, being thus delivered from all foreign enemies, began once more to manifest intentions of interfering in the affairs of Poland. [See RUSSIA: 1768-1796.] . . . A small number of Polish nobles furnished her with that very slender pretext with which she was always content. Their chiefs were Rzewuski [Rejewuski] . . . and Felix Potocki. . . . These unnatural apostates deserted their long-suffering country at the moment when, for the first time, hope dawned on her. . . . On the 12th of May, 1792, they formed a Confederation at Targowitz. On the 18th, the Russian minister at Warsaw declared that the Empress, 'called on by many distinguished Poles who had confederated

against the pretended constitution of 1791, would, in virtue of her guarantee, march an army into Poland to restore the liberties of the Republic.' [The hope, meantime, of help from Prussia, which had been pledged to Poland by a treaty of alliance in March, 1790, was speedily and cruelly annihilated.] 'Assured of the connivance of Prussia, Catharine now poured an immense army into Poland, along the whole line of frontier, from the Baltic to the neighbourhood of the Euxine. The spirit of the Polish nation was unbroken. . . . A series of brilliant actions [especially at Polonna and Dubienka] occupied the summer of 1792, in which the Polish army [under Poniatowski and Kosciuszko], alternately victorious and vanquished, gave equal proofs of unavailing gallantry. Meantime Stanislaus . . . on the 4th of July published a proclamation declaring that he would not survive his country. But, on the 22d of the same month . . . [he] declared his accession to the Con-



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federation of Targowitz; and thus threw the legal authority of the republic into the hands of that band of conspirators. The gallant army, over whom the Diet had intrusted their unworthy King with absolute authority, were now compelled, by his treacherous orders, to lay down their arms."—J. Mackintosh, *Account of the partition of Poland* (Edinburgh Review, Nov., 1822).—See also GERMANY: 1791-1792.

ALSO IN: H. Von Sybel, *History of the French Revolution*, v. 1-2, bk. 2, ch. 1, 6, bk. 4, ch. 1, bk. 6.—A. Gielgud, *Centenary of the Polish constitution* (Westminster Review, v. 135, p. 547).—F. C. Schlosser, *History of the 18th century*, v. 6, div. 1, ch. 2, sect. 4.—R. N. Bain, *Slavonic Europe*, ch. 18.

1793-1796.—Second and third partitions.—Extinction of Polish independence.—"In January, 1793, a treaty was signed by which Prussia was to have Danzig and Thorn, so long desired, all that was left of Great Poland, and parts of Cujavia and Masovia—briefly the vast region known to-

day as South Prussia. The treaty gave Russia those parts of Podolia and the Ukraine not already hers, together with parts of both Volhynia and Podlesia. By the two partitions she had now acquired all of Little Russia, all of White Russia, and part of Lithuania. To force Poland to ratify these arrangements was the final step, and one of the Empress's first official acts after her return to power in Poland was to convene the Polish Diet for this purpose. The Diet met at Grodno, June 17, 1793, but its coercion proved an unexpectedly difficult task. The Russian representative, Baron von Sievers, had spent large sums of money on this election, with the result that the great majority of the deputies were ready to vote for Russia. There were, however, some honest, patriotic men in this melancholy assembly, the so-called 'Zealots,' who opposed themselves uncompromisingly to a partition or even to a discussion of 'indemnity' with Russia and Prussia. . . . The King at first took a . . . position on their side. In his opening speech he said he had acceded to the Confederation of Targowica, because in so doing he thought to assure the integrity and independence of Poland, and declared that he had 'resolved under no conditions to sign any treaty depriving the Republic of even the smallest part of its possessions.' . . . Finally, however, after four weeks of opposition to Russian violence, knowing themselves without the means of defense, and wishing to avoid useless bloodshed, the Diet by a large majority agreed to the treaty with Russia. The treaty with Prussia, whose perfidy had brought them to this pass, they absolutely refused to accept. . . . Finally, on September 23, [1793] the meeting-place of the Diet was surrounded with soldiers and cannon, a Russian general and twelve officers took seats in the Diet, and that body was informed that they were prisoners until the treaty with Prussia was passed. Having tried in vain every other means of resistance, the Diet lapsed into complete silence. For four hours the famous 'Dumb Session' continued, the silence broken only by the threats and blusterings of the Russian general. At last, near four in the morning, [of September 25] at the insistence of the impatient Russians the Marshal of the Diet put the question. It was twice repeated without response, whereupon the Marshal declared that, since silence was a sign of consent, and no one had spoken, the motion was unanimously carried! The session was then declared closed, and, still in silence, the members left the hall. . . . The Empress wished to take no chances regarding its submissiveness, and before the Diet of Grodno was dissolved she forced it to ratify a treaty with Russia. This treaty, as one of the deputies of the Diet remarked, made Poland a Russian province. This same Diet also was obliged to annul all of the acts of the Four Years' Diet, and to reenact all the evil features of the old constitution—the *liberum veto*, the elective kingship, the privileges of the *szlachta*, and the serfdom of the peasantry. . . . At first the Poles were stunned by the enormity of this latest calamity which had befallen them. . . . As all open means of protest were denied them, they resorted to conspiracy. Secret societies were formed, plots for an insurrection hatched . . . and the plotters at home were in constant correspondence with exiles abroad, particularly a group in Saxony which included Kosciuszko and the leaders of the Four Years' Diet. These patriots did their best to find support for a Polish insurrection among the states of Europe. . . . Meanwhile [the Russian] General Igelström, knowing that there were plots, but unable to discover them, resolved to disband the greater part of the Polish army, upon which the

Poles must chiefly rely in any insurrection. Despair at this move led a brigade commanded by General Madalinski to refuse when ordered to disband. Instead, they marched toward Cracow, where the citizens, encouraged by this news, rose *en masse* and expelled the Russian garrison. Kosciuszko, who had hurried into Poland upon receiving news of the rising, was proclaimed Commander-in-Chief by the nobles in Cracow, and issued a manifesto calling on all patriots to rally to his standard and to send him arms and provisions. . . . All classes rallied to Kosciuszko's standard, even the peasants coming in great numbers, armed, where they had nothing else, with their scythe-blades. The King set the example of giving all his plate and a large part of his income to the national cause, and the nobles followed his example to such an extent that the army was soon abundantly supplied. At Raslawice, Kosciuszko met and defeated the Russian detachment sent after Madalinski, and Warsaw responded to General Igelström's attempt to disarm the Polish troops there by a rising which obliged Igelström to evacuate the city (April 18 [1794]). The insurgents then set up a provisional government under the Constitution of the 3d of May, and recognized Kosciuszko as Dictator. Five days later Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, expelled its Russian garrison, other lesser towns followed its example, and soon the Russians were in full retreat to the frontier. . . . The moment of triumph was . . . brief. . . . The King of Prussia was already on his way to Poland with an army, and Catharine of Russia was collecting, for the same destination, every soldier that could be spared from south, where preparations were on foot for a great Turkish war. Catharine was determined this time to be done with Poland. . . . Against such antagonists Kosciuszko's position was hopeless from the first, but he made a splendid fight. His army was small, badly equipped, and badly disciplined. That unanimity in the cause of freedom which the nation had shown in the first weeks of the rising had given way to the old suspicions and dissensions so characteristic of the Poles and so fatal to their cause. The democratic party in the towns, disciples of the French Jacobins, who wanted to set up a Reign of Terror in Poland, the peasants who wanted to be freed from serfdom, and the nobles, conservative to the core, who felt they had already gone too far in agreeing to the provisions of the Constitution of the 3d of May, all suspected one another, and agreed only in their suspicions of Kosciuszko. The King had from the beginning been a negligible factor. Though kept under constant surveillance for fear he would try to escape to Russia, he was otherwise treated with respect, but on the understanding that he should take no part in public affairs. Kosciuszko was the real ruler of the country. The arrival of the Russian troops from the south meant a speedy end to his power and to all his hopes. Swiftly, surely, and ruthlessly the Russian general, Suvároff, cut to pieces the Polish forces who opposed his march to Warsaw. Arrived there, he demanded the surrender the city, and, being refused, the Russians captured Praga, a suburb on the right bank of the river, massacred practically all the inhabitants, and burned the town. On November 8 they entered Warsaw. . . . Kosciuszko had been wounded and taken prisoner in a last vain attempt at Maciegowice, October 10, to check the advancing Russians. After his wound was healed he was sent to St. Petersburg, where he was kept a prisoner until the death of the Empress in 1796. . . . Meanwhile Russia, Prussia, and Austria divided the remaining territories of Poland between them [Oct. 24, 1795].

Russia took in the south what remained of Volhynia and Podlesia, thus extending her boundary to the Bug; in the north Courland and Samogitia (thus giving her all the southeastern Baltic coast), and all of Lithuania east of the river Niemen. This partition, with the two earlier ones, thus restored to Russia all the territories conquered from her by Lithuania during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and gave her in addition the greater part of Lithuania itself. [See RUSSIA: Map: Growth of Russian in Europe: 1300-1796.] Poland proper was divided between the German Powers. Prussia secured what remained of Podlachia and of Masovia, including the city of Warsaw, and all of Lithuania west of the Niemen—the territories which to-day make up New East Prussia and New Silesia. Austria acquired the district between the rivers Pilica, Vistula, and Bug, a region comprising all of Little Poland (the palatinates of Cracow, Sandomir, and Lublin), as well as parts of Red Russia (the Palatinate of Chelm) and Podlachia. The formal abdication of King Stanislaus on November 25, 1795, completed the process by which Poland was wiped off the map of Europe.—J. S. Orvis, *Brief history of Poland*, pp. 227-237.—See also RUSSIA: 1768-1796.

ALSO IN: L. Eversley, *Partitions of Poland*.—C. D. Hazen, *Modern European history*.—C. J. H. Hayes, *Political and social history of modern Europe*.—A. J. Grant, *History of Europe*.—F. E. Whitton, *History of Poland*.

1806.—False hopes of national restoration raised by Napoleon. See GERMANY: 1806 (October-December); 1806-1807.

1807.—Prussian provinces formed by Napoleon into the grand duchy of Warsaw, and given to the king of Saxony. See GERMANY: 1807 (June-July).

1809.—Cession of part of Bohemia, Cracow, and western Galicia, by Austria, to the grand duchy of Warsaw. See GERMANY: 1809 (July-September).

1812.—Attempt to reestablish the kingdom not encouraged by Napoleon. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).

1814-1815.—Polish question in Congress of Vienna.—Congress Kingdom of Poland created.—Grand duchy of Warsaw given to Russia.—Constitution granted by the Czar. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1830-1832.—Rising against Russian oppressor.—Courageous struggle for independence.—Early victories and final defeat.—Barbarity of the conqueror.—"Poland, like Belgium and the Romagna, had felt the invigorating influence of the Revolution of July [in France]. . . . Constantine, who had abdicated the crown of Russia in his brother's favour, was Viceroy of Poland. . . . He was residing at Warsaw when the news of the glorious days of July reached Poland. The Poles were naturally affected by the tidings of a revolution which had expelled autocracy from France. Kosciuszko—the hero of 1794—was their favourite patriot. . . . [The economic crisis which followed the Targowica venture, the second dismemberment, and the brutality of the Russian and Prussian troops, brought about a condition of affairs which was ripe for social conflagration. When the new Russian ambassador requested that the Polish army be reduced to half its size, Brigadier General Madalinski refused to submit.] Every circumstance which could justify revolt existed in Poland. The Constitution provided for the regular assembly of the Diet: the Diet had not been assembled for five years. The Constitution declared that taxes should not be imposed on the Poles without the consent of

their representatives: for fifteen years no budget had been submitted to the Diet. The Constitution provided for the personal liberty of every Pole: the Great Duke seized and imprisoned the wretched Poles at his pleasure. The Constitution had given Poland a representative government; and Constantine, in defiance of it, had played the part of an autocrat. [The immediate cause of the revolt was an order of Nicholas I to prepare a war against France.] Eighteen young men, armed to the teeth, entered the Grand Duke's palace and forced their way into his apartments. Constantine had just time to escape by a back staircase. His flight saved his life. . . . The insurrection, commenced in the Archduke's palace, soon spread. Some of the Polish regiments passed over to the insurgents. Constantine, who displayed little courage or ability, withdrew from the city; and, on the morning of the 30th of November [1830], the Poles were in complete possession of Warsaw. They persuaded Chlopicki, a general who had served with distinction under Suchet in Spain, to place himself at their head. . . . Raised to the first position in the State, his warmest counsellors urged him to attack the few thousand men whom Constantine still commanded. Chlopicki preferred negotiating with the Russians. The negotiation, of course, failed. . . . Chlopicki—his own well-intentioned effort having failed—resigned his office; and his fellow countrymen invested Radziwil with the command of their army, and placed Adam Czartoryski at the head of the Government. In the meanwhile Nicholas was steadily preparing for the contest which was before him. Diebitsch, who had brought the campaign [against Turkey] of 1829 to a victorious conclusion, was entrusted with the command of the Russian army. . . . Three great military roads converge from the east upon Warsaw. The most northerly of these enters Poland at Kovno, crosses the Narew, a tributary of the Bug, at Ostrolenka, and runs down the right bank of the first of these rivers; the central road crosses the Bug at Brzesc and proceeds almost due west upon Warsaw; the most southerly of the three enters Poland from the Austrian frontier, crosses the Vistula at Gora, and proceeds along its west bank to the capital. Diebitsch decided on advancing by all three routes on Warsaw. . . . Diebitsch, on the 20th of February, 1831, attacked the Poles; on the 25th he renewed the attack. The battle on the 20th raged round the village of Grochow; it raged on the 25th round the village of Praga. Fought with extreme obstinacy, neither side was able to claim any decided advantage. The Russians could boast that the Poles had withdrawn across the Vistula. The Poles could declare that their retreat had been conducted at leisure, and that the Russians were unable or unwilling to renew the attack. Diebitsch himself, seriously alarmed at the situation into which he had fallen, remained for a month in inaction at Grochow. Before the month was over Radziwil, who had proved unequal to the duties of his post, was superseded in the command of the Polish army by Skrzynecki. On the 30th of March, Skrzynecki crossed the Vistula at Praga, and attacked the division of the Russian army which occupied the forest of Waver, near Grochow. The attack was made in the middle of the night. The Russians were totally defeated. . . . Crippled by this disaster, Diebitsch fell back before the Polish army. Encouraged by his success, Skrzynecki pressed forward in pursuit. The great central road by which Warsaw is approached crosses the Kostczyn, a tributary of the Bug, near the little village of Iganie, about halfway between Russia and Warsaw. Eleven days

after the victory of the 30th of March the Russians were again attacked by the Poles at Iganie. The Poles won a second victory. The Russians, disheartened at a succession of reverses, scattered before the attack; and the cause of Poland seemed to have been already won by the gallantry of her children and the skill of their generals. Diebitsch, however, defeated at Grochow and Iganie, was not destroyed. . . . Foregoing his original intention of advancing by three roads on Warsaw, he determined to concentrate his right on the northern road at Ostrolenka, his left, on the direct road at Siedlice. It was open to Skrzynecki to renew the attack, where Diebitsch expected it, and throw himself on the defeated remnants of the Russian army at Siedlice. Instead of doing so he took advantage of his central situation to cross the Bug and throw himself upon the Russian right at Ostrolenka. . . . Skrzynecki had reason to hope that he might obtain a complete success before Diebitsch could by any possibility march to the rescue. He failed. . . . On the 26th of May, Skrzynecki found himself opposed to the whole Russian army. Throughout the whole of that day the Polish levies gallantly struggled for the victory. When evening came they remained masters of the field which had been the scene of the contest. A negative victory of this character, however, was not the object of the great movement upon the Russian right. The Polish general, his army weakened by heavy losses, resolved on retiring upon Warsaw. Offensive operations were over: the defensive campaign had begun. Victory with the Poles had, in fact, proved as fatal as defeat. The Russians . . . could afford to lose two men for every one whom Poland could spare. . . . It happened, too, that a more fatal enemy than even war fell upon Poland in the hour of her necessity. The cholera, which had been rapidly advancing through Russia during 1830, broke out in the Russian army in the spring of 1831. The prisoners taken at Iganie communicated the seeds of infection to the Polish troops. Both armies suffered severely from the disease; but the effects of it were much more serious to the cause of Poland than to the cause of Russia. . . . A fortnight after the battle of Ostrolenka, Diebitsch, who had advanced his head-quarters to Pultusk, succumbed to the malady. In the same week Constantine, the Viceroy of Poland, and his Polish wife, also died. . . . Diebitsch was at once succeeded in the command by Paskievitch, an officer who had gained distinction in Asia Minor. . . . On the 7th of July, Paskievitch crossed the Vistula at Plock, and threatened Warsaw from the rear. . . . Slowly and steadily he advanced against the capital. On the 6th of September he attacked the devoted city. Inch by inch the Russians made their way over the earthworks which had been constructed in its defence. On the evening of the 7th the town was at their mercy; on the 8th it capitulated. . . . On the 26th of February, 1832, Nicholas promulgated a new organic statute for the government of Poland, which he had the insolence to claim for Russia by the right of conquest of 1815. A draft of the statute reached Western Europe in the spring of 1832. About the same time stories were received of the treatment which the Russians were systematically applying to the ill-fated country. Her schools were closed; her national libraries and public collections removed; the children of the Poles were carried into Russia; their fathers were swept into the Russian army; whole families accused of participation in the rebellion were marched into the interior of the empire; columns of Poles, it was stated, could be seen on the Russian roads linked man to man by

bars of iron; and little children, unable to bear the fatigues of a long journey, were included among them; the dead bodies of those who had perished on the way could be seen on the sides of the Russian roads. The wail of their wretched mothers—"Oh, that the Czar could be drowned in our tears!"—resounded throughout Europe."—S. Walpole, *History of England*, v. 3, ch. 16.—See also RUSSIA: 1825-1855.

ALSO IN: J. Hordynski, *History of the late Polish revolution*.—A. Rambaud, *History of Russia*, v. 2, ch. 14.—A. Alison, *History of Europe*, 1815-52, ch. 26.—C. J. H. Hayes, *Political and social history of modern Europe*.—A. J. Grant, *History of Europe*.—C. D. Hazen, *Modern European history*.

1846.—Insurrection in Galicia suppressed.—Republic of Cracow annexed to Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1846.

1863-1869.—Last insurrection.—"In 1860 broke out the last great Polish insurrection, in all respects a very ill-advised attempt. On the 29th of November of that year, on the occasion of the 30th anniversary of the revolution of 1830, national manifestations taking a religious form, took place in the Warsaw churches. . . . On the 25th of February, 1861, on the anniversary of the battle of Grochow, the Agricultural Society of that city, presided over by Count Zamojski, held a meeting for the purpose of presenting a petition to the Emperor to grant a constitution. Although the Tsar did not concede this demand, he decreed by an ukase of the 26th of March a council of state for the kingdom, elective councils in each government, and municipal councils in Warsaw and the chief cities. Moreover, the Polish language was to be adopted in all the schools of the kingdom. . . . On the 8th of April the people appeared in crowds in front of the castle of the Viceroy, and when they refused to disperse, were fired upon by the soldiers. About 200 persons were killed in this unfortunate affair, and many more wounded. The viceroyalty of Count Lambert was not successful in conciliating the people; he was succeeded by Count Lüders, who was reactionary in his policy. An attempt was made in June, 1862, on the life of the Count in the Saxon Garden (Saksonski Sad), and he was soon afterwards recalled; his place being taken by the Grand Duke Constantine, who was chiefly guided by the Marquis Wielopolski, an unpopular but able man. Two attempts were made upon the life of the Grand Duke, the latter of which was nearly successful; the life of Wielopolski was also several times in danger. . . . On the night of Jan. 15, 1863, a secret conscription was held, and the persons considered to be most hostile to the Government were taken in their beds and forcibly enlisted. Out of a population of 180,000 the number thus seized at Warsaw was 2,000; soon after this the insurrection broke out. Its proceedings were directed by a secret committee, styled Rząd (Government). . . . The Poles fought under enormous difficulties. Most of the bands consisted of undisciplined men, unfamiliar with military tactics, and they had to contend with well-organised troops. Few of them had muskets; the generality were armed only with pikes, scythes, and sticks. . . . The bands of the insurgents were chiefly composed of priests, the smaller landowners, lower officials, and peasants who had no land, but those peasants who possessed any land refused to join. Many showed but a languid patriotism on account of the oppressive laws relating to the poorer classes, formerly in vigour in Poland, of which the tradition was still strong. The war was only guerilla fighting, in which the dense forests surrounding the

towns were of great assistance to the insurgents. The secret emissaries of the revolutionary government . . . [carried on a guerilla warfare, in the course of which] they succeeded in killing many persons who had made themselves obnoxious to the national party. . . . No quarter was given to the chiefs of the insurgents; when captured they were shot or hanged. . . . When the Grand Duke Constantine resigned the viceroyalty at Warsaw he was succeeded by Count Berg."—W. R. Morfill, *Story of Poland*, ch. 12.—"The energetic General Berg [was] placed at the head of the administration, October 31st, 1863. The whole land was full of Russian soldiers. In Poland, Podolia, and the Ukraine the nobles were rendered harmless by imprisonment; an extraordinary income tax was laid on the Roman Catholic clergy; and the peasants were won by bestowing their farms on them as their own private property. In Lithuania General Muravieff waged a war of extermination against the Polish element. The insurrection was quelled at the end of the year 1863, and the Russian chancellor, Prince Alexander Gortschakoff, was able to inform the French cabinet that there was no further occasion whatever for political notes. Napoleon had endeavored to utilize this opportunity, also, to act as arbiter of Europe. But he got no father than identical notes . . . from France, England, and Austria, to which Gortschakoff replied that the rebellion would be quelled the more quickly the more energetically those powers held down the revolutionary party in their own lands, and the less they encouraged it in others."—W. Müller, *Political history of recent times*, pp. 269-270.—In the meantime a provisional government had been set up. "Altogether about ten thousand men rallied around the revolutionary banner. . . . To deal with these ill-armed bands the government had at its disposal a well trained army of ninety thousand men under General Ramsay in Poland, sixty thousand troops in Lithuania, and forty-five thousand in Volhynia. It looked as if the rebellion would be crushed in a short while. . . . [The provisional government] now issued a manifesto in which it pronounced 'all sons of Poland free and equal citizens without distinction of creed, condition and rank.' It declared that 'land cultivated by the peasants, whether on the basis of rent-pay or service, henceforth should become their unconditional property, and compensation for it would be given to the landlords out of the general funds of the State.' The revolutionary government did its very best to supply and provision the unarmed and scattered guerrillas, who, during the month of February [1863], met the Russians in eighty bloody encounters. Meanwhile, it issued an appeal to the nations of western Europe, which was received everywhere with a genuine and heartfelt response. . . . The provisional government counted on a revolutionary outbreak in Russia. . . . It also counted on the active support of Napoleon III, particularly after Prussia . . . [had] made friendly overtures to Russia and offered her assistance in suppressing the Polish uprising. On the 14th day of February [1863] arrangements had already been completed, and the British Ambassador in Berlin was able to inform his government that a Prussian military envoy 'has concluded a military convention with the Russian Government . . . for the suppression of the insurrectionary movements which have lately taken place in Poland. . . . The Prussian railways are also to be placed at the disposal of the Russian military authorities for the transportation of troops through Prussian territory from one part of the Kingdom of Poland to another.' . . . This step of Bismarck's led to pro-

tests on the part of several governments and roused the Polish nation. The result was the transformation of the insignificant uprising into another national war against Russia. . . . Encouraged by the promises made by Napoleon III, the whole nation . . . took to arms. Indicating their solidarity with the nation, all the Poles holding office under the Russian Government . . . resigned their positions and submitted to the newly constituted Polish Government. . . . An army of thirty thousand men was soon organized and new additions were made. . . . The rich elements in the cities as well as in the country districts offered large sums of money. The nobility of Galicia and the Duchy of Posen supported the war with money, supplies and men. Lithuania rose and soon the flame of war spread over Livonia, White Russia, Volhynia, Podolia, and even in some places in Ukraine. The diplomatic intervention of the Powers in behalf of Poland . . . alienated Austria which hitherto had maintained a friendly neutrality with reference to Poland and had not interfered with the Polish activities in Galicia. . . . How Muravieff, the Hangman, proceeded in Lithuania, is too weird to describe. . . . Whole villages and towns were burned to the last beam; all activities were suspended and the gentry was ruined by confiscation and exorbitant taxes. Count Berg, the newly appointed Governor-General of Poland, followed in Muravieff's footsteps, employing inhumanly harsh measures against the country. . . . The Russian government had already been working among the peasants, . . . giving them liberal parcels of land for the mere asking. They were completely satisfied, and though not interfering with the revolutionaries to any great extent, became lukewarm to them. Fighting continued intermittently for several months . . . [and ended] in the latter half of 1864, having lasted for eighteen months. . . . After the collapse of the uprising . . . according to Russian official information, three hundred and ninety-six persons were executed and eighteen thousand six hundred and seventy-two were exiled to Siberia. Large numbers of men and women were sent to the interior of Russia and to Caucasus, Ural and other sections. Altogether about seventy thousand persons were imprisoned, and subsequently taken out of Poland and stationed in the remote regions of Russia. The government confiscated sixteen hundred and sixty large estates in Poland and seventeen hundred and ninety-four in Lithuania. A ten per cent income tax was imposed on all estates as a war indemnity. Only in 1869 was this exorbitant and ruinous tax reduced to five per cent on all incomes. Besides the land granted to the peasants, the Russian Government gave them additional forest, pasture and other privileges (known under the name of 'servitudes') which have proven to be a source of incessant irritation between the landowners and peasants, and of serious difficulty to rational economic development. The government took over all the church estates and funds, and abolished monasteries and convents. With the exception of religious instruction, all other studies in the schools were ordered to be in Russian. Russian also became the official language of the country, used exclusively in all offices of the general and local government. All traces of the former Polish autonomy were removed and the kingdom was divided into ten provinces, each with an appointed Russian military governor and all under complete control of the Governor-General at Warsaw. All the former government functionaries were deprived of their positions, and in Poland alone about fourteen thousand Poles were thrown out to care

for themselves and their families as well as they could. . . . As long as Russian rule lasted the Poles could not acquire land in two sections of the former Polish Republic. The impoverished Polish nobles who did not own any real estate were ordered to leave the country and were forcibly settled in Russia. Polish speech was prohibited in public places. Severe punishment was prescribed for teaching reading or writing outside of school buildings. Polish display signs over stores, Polish posters or advertisements of any kind came under the ban of the law. . . . The names of the cities were Russified and Russian colonization was strongly encouraged. Particularly severe limitations were imposed upon the Roman Catholic Church. . . . Meetings of priests were prohibited, as were also public prayers, processions, renovation of church buildings or displays of crosses. A very strict police control was exercised over the priests. As in Poland Roman Catholic religious orders were abolished. Thousands of Catholic communicants were forced to join Greek Orthodox churches and many Roman churches were transformed into Orthodox places of worship. Efforts were made to supplement the prayers in Polish by special prayers in the Russian tongue. . . . As a result of these Russian iniquities with reference to the Roman Catholic Church in Poland, . . . Pope Pius IX severed diplomatic relations with Russia in 1865. The Poles were removed from all government positions, from service on railways, banks and similar public institutions. The publishing of books and periodicals in . . . the Polish . . . language was made illegal."—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 487-490, 493-494, 496.

1867-1910.—Austrian Poland.—Quarrel with Ruthenians.—Suffrage.—"After her defeat in 1866 Austria lost Venetia, and ceased to be a member of the German federation. Every nationality in the Empire seized the opportunity to press its demands upon the Government. The Government was no longer strong enough to choose its own policy. It was forced to seek support from the parties whose enmity would be most dangerous. It was impossible to defy the Magyars, and in 1867 the Emperor was crowned King of Hungary. This was the opening of a new era in Galician political history. The Polish party had felt its strength and its demands continued to grow. In 1868 the Diet submitted the 'Galician Resolution' to the Reichsrat. It asked for full autonomy, for the appointment of a Galician minister in the Austrian State Council, and asserted the retention of the principle of election to the Reichsrat through the Diet and not by direct voting. These desires were not granted fully or immediately. Local autonomy was increased, but the ministerial appointment, on which the Poles laid great stress, was not made till 1871, and in spite of their strong protests direct voting was introduced in 1873. The Polish politicians who wrung this measure of concession from the Government were all members of the nobility. . . . The unity of class interest which was thus secured to the Polish party gave them power to carry out their programme, which was simply to rule Galicia as an aristocracy, relying for support solely on the Crown and the Government. . . . It had won some degree of autonomy for the whole race of Galician Poles. [See GALICIA: 1861-1914.] . . . The supporters of the dynasty prevailed, and the triumph gained for the Poles [was] complete power over the Ruthenes. . . . [These people had been antagonistic to Poland since long before the first partition.] There was no desire for separation

among the Ruthenes [or Little Russians] in Galicia until after the first Partition . . . [which occurred in 1772], when Halicz and Lodomeria fell to Austria. . . . In Galicia the Ruthenian nobility . . . [had] long since been Polonized, and . . . the same process was going on . . . amongst the Ruthenian clergy when the new movement interrupted it. The clergy, however, were the class amongst whom anti-Polish feeling was still strongest, and they became the leaders in transforming a movement which . . . [had] at first been purely literary, into a political force. In 1829 a group of enthusiasts for nationality (which included some young Poles) organized the circulation of books and translation in order to raise Ruthenian to the rank of a literary language. . . . After 1862 a split occurred in the Ruthenian party. By that date a Ruthenian *intelligentsia* . . . [had] arisen who represented a nationalist party desiring some form of union with Little Russians outside Galicia (i.e. in the Ukraine). This Ukrainian National Party was not fully organized, nor known by this name, until 1892, but during the previous thirty years the cleavage between it and the Old Ruthenian party had been growing wider. The difference was fundamentally one of attitude towards Austria. The Old Ruthenians, desiring a united Ruthenia, wished to keep Eastern Galicia outside Austrian politics. The Young Ruthenians, or Ukrainian nationalists, pending the full accomplishment of their wider hopes, were prepared to work for the autonomy of Eastern Galicia under Austria. Both sides, however, united in fighting for the claims of their own people against the oppression of the Poles. . . . Another of the chief causes of friction has been the dispute over the language of instruction in Lemberg University. . . . In 1907 it led to the murder of the Polish Governor Potocki by a Ruthenian student, Sycinski. In the rioting that followed a great number of Ruthenians were arrested. The effect produced in Austria by the Russian revolution of 1905 forced the Government to introduce universal suffrage throughout the Monarchy. . . . The Ruthenian hopes of at last getting equality of representation were frustrated, [for] the Poles used their power in the Reichsrat to introduce a system of voting by districts which applied only to Eastern Galicia . . . so as to give preponderance to the Poles. In spite of this inequality, however, the extension of the franchise in 1907 gave the Ruthenes more political power than they had ever possessed before. . . . In 1908 the Ukrainian National [or Young Ruthenian] Party gave new proof of their anti-Russian standpoint by abstaining from sending delegates to the Pan-Slav Congress at Prague. . . . The Germans saw that the Ukrainian movement might become a menace to Russia, and fostered it in every way they could. They supplied money for propaganda, and kept in touch with the leaders of the party in Galicia. Moreover, the large seasonal migration of Ruthenian peasants from Galicia to Prussia was used by Germany as a means of spreading discontent against the Poles. . . . The bitterness with which the Poles viewed these proceedings caused a friendly feeling to arise between them and the Old Ruthenian Party, who continued to be Russophil in sympathy. This went so far as to produce an agreement between the Old Ruthenians and the Polish Parliamentary Club with regard to the elections of 1908, with object of defeating the Ukrainian Party at the polls."—*Austrian Poland* (Great Britain Foreign Office, *Historical section*, pp. 24-32).—An illustration of this "large seasonal migration" of peasants into Germany occurred in Leipzig, to which was added between 1880

and 1910, 180,000 inhabitants by the annexing process.

1872-1910.—Pan-Slavism and the Poles in Prussia.—Relations of the two nationalities.—Ruthlessness of government authority.—School strike of 1906-1907.—Boycott of Germans.—"Another stimulus to the Polish cause was the rise of Pan-Slavism. This movement which sprang up in opposition to a united and all too prosperous Germanism, immediately caught the Poles and was transformed by them into a Greater Polish movement. [See PAN-SLAVISM.] . . . The growth of this idea went hand in hand with the growth of Polish culture: its bearers were not merely the nobility and clergy but the newly created middle class as well. Under the stimulus of this movement . . . in Thorn and Graudenz and Danzig and Stargard, as well as in the cities of the province of Posen, Polish newspapers arose and soon found wide circulation. After 1890 these became the leaders of the radical wing of the Greater Poland party, carrying on a restless propaganda, not only by razor edged articles of agitation, but also by the issuance of reading books on Polish history and literature and of Polish song books, and by constant appeals to the national idea. The hatred which . . . [had] been slowly growing up between Pole and German in the eastern marches for a hundred years was fanned into a bright flame in this propaganda. . . . The leadership of this movement . . . [remained] in the hands of the clergy. . . . A general Polonizing of the eastern marches seemed on the way when in 1886 Bismarck went before the Landtag with propositions for strengthening the German element. How far the process had already gone in the province of Posen was shown by figures cited in that year. In the twenty-five years preceding, the Poles had increased by two hundred thousand while the German growth was only four thousand. . . . Once thoroughly convinced of the danger, the Prussian government went vigorously to work to meet it. . . . They settled . . . peasant farmers into the districts where a massing of Poles seemed imminent. For this purpose the Royal Colonization Commission was formed, with an initial appropriation of twenty-five million dollars for the purchase of land in the provinces of Posen and West Prussia, and the settlement of Germans thereon. . . . The greater part of the land purchased came from German owners, less than 30 per cent was acquired by the Commission from Polish owners. . . . Much of this Polish land had to be bought at a high figure and . . . a part of the purchase money was used by the sellers to buy still greater tracts of land for their compatriots in the other eastern provinces. . . . In spite of the work of the Royal Commission, the Poles . . . [had acquired] more land from the Germans in the two provinces than the Commission was able to purchase from Poles. . . . Naturally the Poles opposed the work of the Commission and [tried] every device which national solidarity and religious zeal could suggest. The Pole who sold his land to a German must be prepared to face the anathema of the village priest and the boycott of his Polish neighbors. The watchful correspondent of the nearest Polish paper reported his name to be published for general execration; no neighbor would lend a hand or horse to move his effects; curses and perhaps a broken head awaited his visit to the village tavern. [See also GERMANY: 1900-1909.] . . . One necessary but unfortunate result of the colonization policy was the fanning of the hatred between Germans and Poles in the eastern marches to white heat. To this feeling another circumstance made a noteworthy contribution, the

founding in 1894 of the 'Association of the Eastern Marches,' the *Deutscher Ostmarken Verein*. The impetus for this organization came from the gathering of a number of Germans from Posen around the aged Bismarck, then living in retirement on his Pomeranian estates. Under the ring of the old Chancellor's eloquence the Association immediately began a vigorous campaign to support the German element in the East. . . . By group meetings and by its annual 'day,' held in one of the large eastern cities, it awakened enthusiasm and strengthened weak knees in the Polish districts. It published a monthly, *The Eastern Marches*, issued from time to time historical and statistical pamphlets, organized lectures, inspired newspaper articles and sought in every way to foster German culture in the 'fighting district.' Supported by this and other patriotic societies, the government received from the Landtag new weapons for fighting the Slavic advance. In 1904 the right to settle permanently in the disputed territory was made dependent on the approval of the provincial authorities, who might naturally be expected to exclude Polish invaders. The object of the law, however, so far as it related to the acquisition of land; was largely nullified by the ingenuity of the Polish 'parcellation banks,' which bought up great estates and sold them in small lots to the adjoining Polish proprietors. This move and the rising price of land were met by the 'Expropriation Law' of 1908, borrowed from the British procedure in Ireland, which authorized the condemnation of land for colonization purposes. To these measures the Poles opposed an organization which grew more solid each year. . . . Its press spread by degrees a network of agitation centres over the eastern marches and the whole Rhine-Westphalian industrial district . . . [and] to the efforts of a strong and aggressive press . . . [were] added those of the Polish clergy. . . . The Polish youth were enrolled in the Sokol ('Falconi'), athletic clubs with strongly patriotic spirit. . . . Rural workers were organized into hundreds of rural clubs. The Rolnik (associations leagued among themselves for the purchase and sale of agricultural products and for supplying the farmers with their necessities), made the Polish peasant largely independent of the German middleman. There . . . [were] also merchants' associations, [and] large landholders' associations. . . . Their deadliest weapon [was] . . . the boycott, an arm before which the Germans . . . [were] comparatively helpless, partly from a lack of organization and partly because their fighting spirit . . . [had] awakened so slowly. The Poles . . . [were] past masters in the use of the boycott, and . . . worked therewith the greatest damage to German trade and industry in the smaller towns. . . . Up to 1872 Polish and German had fought with varying success for predominance in the schools of the Polish provinces. . . . By a regulation of the Prussian Department of Education, adopted during the *Kulturkampf*, it was provided that all children capable of understanding German to a sufficient degree should receive their religious instruction in that language. In practice it came about that the children of Polish families who had been permitted to learn the catechism in the language of their fathers in the lower classes, were transferred with increasing years to religious classes in German. Constant irritation was the result, . . . the Polish clergy taking a leading part against requiring the little ones to 'learn the sacred religion in the hateful German language.' This agitation reached its climax in the fall of 1906, when . . . children in a number of schools in the Polish provinces under instruction from their par-

ents refused to answer questions on the catechism in German or to learn German hymns. Beginning directly after the long vacation in 1906, the strike was vigorously fanned by the Polish press and clergy until it involved in the provinces of Posen and West Prussia over one thousand schools, including some 60,000 scholars. The tone of the Polish press and clergy became exceedingly bitter. The Prussian officials were compared to Herod and Pharaoh; they were charged with misusing religious instruction for political purposes, the enforced instruction in German was a 'sinful desecration' of the Catholic religion. . . . The children were heralded as martyrs to faith and nation; the parents were promised the special protection of the saints for their fight against the Germanizing and Lutheranizing of their children. Prayers were said for the striking boys and girls, who on more than one occasion marched directly from the school to church, where a mass was said for them. Under such urging, the youngsters left nothing to be desired in the ardor of their opposition, greeting the religious teacher with Polish songs and adjurations and strewing the roadsides with the fragments of their German catechisms. The Prussian school administration proceeded against the strike with all of the vigor which its strongly centralized system makes possible. The school regulations discourage corporal punishment; but the youngsters were 'kept back,' deprived of all privileges and threatened with loss of promotion; and when that did not avail, the temporal arm was invoked against their parents. Fines were imposed, and parents who, to save their children from threats and strenuous treatment by the teachers had kept the youngsters at home, received in some cases considerable terms in prison. As a final resort, the ministry turned to a measure which . . . on more than one occasion reduced refractory school districts in Prussia to obedience: additional teachers were appointed, whose pay fell heavily upon the taxpayers in rural and smaller urban communities. As a result of this vigorous treatment, the strike began to give way in a few months; and by the Easter holidays of 1907 was practically suppressed, leaving behind a bitter heritage of hate. . . . The community . . . [now was obliged] to support education . . . [but in] all of the states a sharp control [was] exercised by the government authorities. . . . The provincial school boards, under the chairman of the provincial president . . . [brought] all of the schools in direct dependency on the crown. . . . Under these provincial boards the elementary schools [were] regularly inspected by [a] district inspector, of whom about 30 per cent (1910) gave all of their time to school affairs. Prussia . . . [provided] a large part of the pensions and backed up the weaker communities financially in the maintenance of the schools, . . . especially in the districts of the eastern marches where that work in the Germanization of the Poles [was] of such importance."—R. H. Fife, *German empire between two wars*, pp. 245-267.

ALSO IN: Prince von Bülow, *Imperial Germany, 1877-1905.—Industrialization of Russian Poland.—Secret political developments.—Independent parties.*—"When, in the seventies, Russia, needing additional funds to finance the war with Turkey, considerably raised the custom duties and built a high protective wall, Polish manufacturers found themselves practically without foreign competition and with enormous markets in the east. Agents of the industrial countries arrived in considerable numbers and established large factories taking advantage of the great natural resources of the country, its abundance of coal, iron, zinc and

lead and of the immense supply of relatively cheap labor. The small peasant landowners were unable to eke out enough from their farms to meet the high Russian taxes, and tens of thousands of them flocked to the cities. In a decade or two, the country's economic basis of existence swung from agriculture to industry. In 1909 over a million and a quarter tons of iron ore were extracted and about four and a half million tons were smelted. The annual production of calamine was 100,000 tons and that of coal was estimated as sufficiently large to supply all France. Poland became one of the most highly developed industrial countries of Europe with a density of population surpassed by Belgium alone. Warsaw, on account of its central geographic position, grew by leaps and bounds, and reached, including the population of its suburbs, the million mark. New cities sprang up and small towns, like Lodz, developed prodigiously. . . . Fearing lest the Polish industries supplant the Russian manufactures, the government so regulated railways tariffs that it was much cheaper to ship the same kind of goods from points in Russia to destinations in Poland, than from the same places in Poland to points in Russia. Factory regulations were made more cumbersome in Poland than in Russia and taxation higher. The purposeful underdevelopment of railway facilities in Poland interfered with proper local distribution and tended . . . to thwart the development of those industries of the preceding period which had been producing exclusively for the Polish market and to specialize in exports to the Empire. This led to centralization of capital in certain industries like the textile and steel and iron, and deterred diversification of production. . . . In spite of the industrial expansion of the country, hundreds of thousands of manual workers were impelled to seek work abroad, especially in the United States, and also in Germany, whither they flocked in large numbers every spring for work in the fields. . . . Many thousands among the young Polish engineers and chemists were induced to go to Russia and many of them, attracted by the very high compensation professional service commands because of its scarcity, settled there permanently. . . . A powerful . . . Socialist Party arose and found tens of thousands of sympathizers among the intellectual elements of the cities who were attracted to the organization not only because of their sympathy with the exploited workman and their love for democracy, but also because of the fact that the more important wing of the Polish Socialist Party, known as the P.P.S., . . . inscribed in its platform the blunt demand for Poland's independence. . . . As a consequence, the break from internationalism was precipitous and popular. Only a small minority refused to follow the general current and banded together under the name of the 'Social Democratic Party of Poland and Lithuania.' The only other party which, like the socialist, stood on a basis of complete national independence, was the People's Party which . . . comprised mainly the lower elements of the urban and the rural populace. . . . The leaders of the People's Party in Russian Poland . . . distorted the movement, narrowed its scope and breadth, turned it into a jingo mould and made it subservient to Russian interests under the name of the National Democratic Party. . . . In recent years large numbers of former adherents realized that they had been misguided by the National Democratic leaders and went over to the independence organizations."—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 514-516, 518, 521.

1890-1891.—Slight concessions from Germany

under chancellorship of Caprivi. See GERMANY: 1890-1891.

20th century.—Education under Austria, Russia, and Prussia. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Poland.

1905-1914.—Revolutionary movement in Lithuania.—Joseph Pilsudski and the Polish legions.—"The defeat of Russia in the Japanese war was the immediate cause of revolutionary outbreaks . . . throughout the whole Empire. . . . In Lithuania the most important incident of the revolutionary period was the meeting of the first National Lithuanian Assembly. Two thousand delegates sat at Vilna, and passed resolutions demanding autonomy for the four governments of Vilna, Kovno, Grodno and Suwalki (this last lying in the Kingdom of Poland, adjoining Lithuania, and containing a solidly Lithuanian population in its northern half. They asked for a Diet at Vilna, whose members should be elected by equal, direct and secret voting, without regard to race, nationality, or religion [an] autonomous centre, with the addition of such neighbouring countries as should be drawn to her for economic, cultural, national, or historical reasons. The Assembly desired federation with Russia for the Lithuania so constituted. This . . . brought into being an organized Lithuanian National Party with a definite programme, which remained unaltered until after the Russian Revolution of 1917, when the idea of complete independence was substituted for federation. . . . The electoral Statute of 1905, granted under pressure of fear, imposed no special nationality distinctions. The franchise was based on a four-class system (land-owners, peasants, townmen and workmen), which was arranged so as to favour the rural population. Only Poles were returned at the elections held in Lithuania under this Statute, for the first Duma in 1906. The system was altered by Imperial ukase, in defiance of the Constitution at the same time that the second Duma was dissolved in June, 1907. The new franchise favoured the great land-owners, and would of course have put more power into Polish hands if it had been allowed to work in Lithuania; but there a nationality clause was introduced providing that the number of electors in each class should be in proportion to the amount of land possessed by the respective nationalities in the district. . . . The Lithuanian Nationalists got no support from any of the parties in the Duma, for none even of those progressives who favoured autonomy for Poland were disposed to grant it to Lithuania. At the third Duma the five delegates allotted to the non-Russian population of the Vilna Government were all Poles; of the five allotted to the Kovno Government one was a Pole, three were Lithuanians, and one a Jew. The Polish delegates from Lithuania made common cause in the Duma with the Polish party, although their interests were not always the same; and thereby they escaped the isolation in which the Lithuanians found themselves."—*Russian Poland, Lithuania and White Russia (British Foreign Office, Historical section, pp. 46, 48, 49)*.—"Pilsudski was born amid the insurrection of 1863. . . . Of aristocratic origin himself, his sympathies were socialistic. . . . In 1887 [he] was condemned to five years' deportation to Siberia. . . . On his return from exile in 1892 he settled at Lodz, and joined the newly-formed 'Polish Socialist Party,' the primary object of which was the emancipation of Poland from her Russian oppressors. [The strength of the party was in the workmen of the towns, but there was a large sprinkling of intelligentsia.] Pilsudski became the

leading spirit in the new movement. . . . Secret societies sprang up in every considerable village, and behind all this political activity was always the brilliant young leader Pilsudski. . . . At the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War he conceived the idea of forming a Polish legion to help the Japanese. . . . Pilsudski was convinced that Poland would never be freed from the Russian yoke except by force. . . . He succeeded . . . in eventually carrying his point, and in 1908 the first Rifle Exercise Corps was founded in Galicia under the auspices of the Polish Socialist Party. . . . Pilsudski, meanwhile, devoted himself feverishly to the study of practical warfare and strategy. By secret visits across the border he kept up the courage of his fellow workers in Poland. . . . Later on he formed the different Polish corps into a union. . . . In the beginning of the year 1914 the prospect of a



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JOSEPH PILSUDSKI

European War was already in the air. Pilsudski thought it would be confined to Russia and Austria, and that France and Germany would remain neutral. If strong enough, the Legion he was creating would be able to sell its support for the emancipation of Poland."—T. Barclay, *Garibaldi of Poland* (*English Review*, v. 30, June 1920, pp. 540-542).

1913.—Claims in eastern Galicia. See GALICIA: 1913.

1914-1917.—Attitude towards Prussia and Russia at the outbreak of the World War.—Formation of the Polish legions.—"Although Poland had no part in precipitating the gigantic world conflict which opened on the first day of August, 1914, yet, by reason of her geographic position, she became one of the greatest theatres of the war where whole nations met in a terrible death grapple. The country was devastated and plunged into a sea of blood. Scores of cities and towns, thousands of villages were ruined. . . . About two million Poles of military age were

drafted into the three foreign armies and lined upon opposite sides of the battlefield. . . . And immediately all the tragic difficulties of the Polish situation became apparent, complicated as they were by the differences in the political status of the three sections and by the multiplicity of economic and social interests and aspirations among the various classes of the people. Those of the Prussian part of Poland, exasperated by the inhuman treatment to which they have been subjected, had but one desire: to be rid as soon as possible and forever of the Prussian curse. In Russian Poland, likewise, it was the ardent desire of the people to free themselves from Russian shackles, and the vast majority hoped for a complete severance of all the bonds uniting Poland with Russia. . . . In 1912 the representatives of all the Independence parties of the Kingdom of Poland and of Galicia [had] met and formed a Temporary Committee of the Confederated Independence Parties, known by their Polish initials as K. S. S. N., charged with the definite task of mapping out a detailed plan of procedure in case of a world war, and of making military preparations for such a contingency. It was the common agreement that in the event of war between Russia and Austria, Poland was to take an active part against Russia, even if hated Germany should join Austria. [See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1914-1915.] . . . It was in Galicia that military preparedness began to be organized, at first secretly and then openly. Numerous books and pamphlets were published bearing on war questions and technique. Schools were started for training Polish officers to command the Polish army in event of war with Russia, and the organizers were in close touch with the revolutionary societies of Russian Poland and Lithuania. The bulk of the army was to be composed of Russian Poles, who, it was reckoned, would be available at the outbreak of a war on account of the anticipated hasty withdrawal of the Russian armies from Poland for well known strategic reasons. This actually occurred. Because, however, of Germany's decision to throw the weight of her armies first to the west to crush the republican France, Russia was able to come back too early to make possible a considerable conscription of the Russian Poles into the Legions which came into official existence on August 16, 1914, when the Supreme National Committee, the civic counterpart of the Legions, was organized in Cracow with Professor Wladyslaw Leopold Jaworski as President and a membership of forty Galician deputies to the Parliament at Vienna and the Provincial Diet at Lemberg, representing all political parties. . . . Six days after the declaration of war Joseph Pilsudski, a Lithuanian Pole, following the command of the Revolutionary National Government which was set up in Warsaw, . . . established headquarters at Kielce in Russian Poland, where his small army was swelled to considerable proportions. . . . Meanwhile, on August 14th, Grand Duke Nicholas, Commander-in-Chief of the Russian armies, . . . issued his manifesto . . . in which he promised the unification of Poland in territory, language and religion. . . . The appeal served its purpose. The masses in Russian Poland . . . received the manifesto with almost puerile enthusiasm. It was not, however, love of Russia or faith in Russian promise, but hatred of Prussia which caused this outburst. . . . It was confidently expected that France and England would soon issue guarantees of the Russian pledges. . . . The friendly attitude of a great number of Poles toward Russia after the manifesto was caused also by the belief that the Allies would

soon overpower the Teutonic Empires."—R. Butler, *New eastern Europe*, pp. 571, 573, 575-576, 578-579.—"The misrule of Galicia during the occupation served to cool the original enthusiasm for Russia, which had been exhibited by certain elements in Poland after the publication of the Grand Duke's manifesto. When the Russian government, desirous of offsetting the international status of the Polish Legions, resolved to organize counter legions with the aid of a Polish Committee composed chiefly of National Democratic leaders, it found no response on the part of the country in spite of all the efforts of the Committee. . . . Meanwhile, the Teutonic Eastern sweep was coming on and early in August, 1915, Warsaw fell. [See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 3.] . . . The hopes of the Poles who . . . [had] counted on the active and forceful intervention of France and England . . . [had] been shattered by various discouraging pronouncements of eminent Frenchmen and Englishmen. The greatest blow . . . came on January 12, 1917, when in their joint reply to President Wilson's note of December 18, 1916, referring to Poland the Allies said: 'the intentions of His Majesty the Emperor of Russia regarding the Poles have been clearly indicated in the proclamation which he just addressed to his armies.'"—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 588-589.

1915.—World War: Campaigns in Galicia. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 8.

1915-1918.—German occupation and government.—Government of von Beseler.—Attitude of Socialists.—"In quick succession cities and fortresses fell [before the Germans] and by the end of the year 1915 'the whole of Poland and large areas of Lithuania, Volhynia and Podolia came under the joint occupancy of the Teutonic allies, but no announcement concerning the status of Poland was forthcoming. For months not a word could be had from Vienna in response to the insistent inquiries and protests of the Supreme National Committee. Meanwhile, the whole civil administration of the conquered territory was taken over by the officials of the Central Powers, and severe requisitions were made. The Germans were particularly inconsiderate in depriving the people of their foodstuffs down to the bare bone. The Prussian Colonization Commission . . . [squeezed] the maximum amount of food, metals and coal out of Poland and . . . [organized] the economic conditions of the occupied territory. The result of their labors was disastrous for the country. They impoverished the people to the point of starvation and forced thousands of workmen to go to Germany to work in the fields and factories. At the same time the Germans granted a number of concessions to the Poles, such as the right to establish Polish schools and other educational institutions, to open the University and the Polytechnic Institute, to take over the administration of justice in the lower courts and to organize home rule for cities. They turned the administration of the Warsaw postal service over to the city authorities and left a considerable amount of leeway to the Warsaw City Council in organizing the police and public health work as well as other administrative policies. They imposed, however, a severe censorship over the press. . . . In spite of the asseverations made by Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg that 'the Polish question must and will be solved by Germany and Austria-Hungary,' negotiations were going on between the Central Powers and the Russian government. And Poland was to constitute one of the prizes to Russia for a separate peace. While these negotiations

were being carried on, the Polish press was completely muzzled. Adverse criticism of the Tsar was not permitted and even the mere mention of the Legions was prohibited, much less advertisement for recruits. . . . These acts by Germany led to the formation of a secret military organization, in close touch with the Legions and with the avowed aim of an uprising in the event of a separate peace between the Central Empires and Russia. The conditions in the Austrian area of occupation were considerably better. The administration of the territory was entrusted to Poles and the rights of the people were recognized and respected. The requisitions were not as heavy. In Galicia, however, after the retreat of the Russians many of the old home-rule liberties were temporarily suspended and an Austrian was appointed Governor General of the Province. Since 1866 this was the first appointment of anyone but a Pole to the position. . . . While efforts were being made to secure for Poland the desired political status, the immediate economic, social and educational needs of the country were not neglected. Citizens' committees sprang up all over the land to organize self-help and relief measures, and with the scanty means at their disposal they accomplished marvelous results. . . . Pilsudski's resignation of his position as Brigadier General of the Legions in the Autumn of 1916, probably more than anything else, was responsible for the recognition of Poland's independence on the part of the Central Powers. Seeing that all the negotiations of the Supreme National Committee and other political organizations were powerless to secure this recognition, he determined to force the issue. . . . As a counterpart of Pilsudski's resignation came the resignation of the powerful Socialist deputy, Ignace Daszynski, from the Polish Parliamentary Club at Vienna. It was a dramatic way of serving notice on the governments of the Central Powers that the Polish people had ceased to believe in the sincerity of the indefinite promises. . . . It served its purpose. The two governments became more willing to negotiate. . . . As a result of the negotiations came the manifesto of November 5th read in the name of the two emperors by the military representatives at Warsaw and Lublin, . . . that they 'have resolved to form of these territories an independent State with an hereditary monarch and a constitutional government, the exact frontiers of [which] will be outlined later. . . . The allied monarchs express the confident hope that Polish wishes for the evolution of a Polish State and for the national development of a Polish kingdom will now be fulfilled, taking due consideration of the general political conditions prevailing in Europe, and of the welfare and the safety of their own countries and nations.' . . . The proclamation was received with great enthusiasm in Poland but it failed to include certain of the points insisted upon by the Poles. . . . The first few weeks following the proclamation justified the existing apprehensions. There was considerable open opposition to it in many quarters in Germany. Nothing was done about the appointment of a Regent and no immediate plans were laid for formation of a State Council and the drafting of a constitution. Subsequently, when a plan was presented on the part of the German government for the organization of the State Council and for raising an army, many of its features were promptly disapproved by the Poles. . . . Evidently no agreement could be reached between Berlin and Vienna and, as a result, no Regent was appointed. The proposal that the Council of State be presided over during the course of the war by the German Governor Gen-

eral, . . . [had to be] withdrawn in the face of the unanimous opposition which arose. Another serious clash came over the question of the organization of the army. The Central Powers proposed that recruiting stations be set up immediately all over Poland to raise an army. Pilsudski and the majority of the political leaders of the country objected to such a procedure, pointing out that Poland alone . . . through a properly and legally chosen Diet . . . [could] decide this question. The Polish demands in this as well as in other matters, were finally granted by the Central Powers. A Polish Provisional Regent, known as the Marshal of the Crown, was appointed in the person of Wacław Niemcewicz, a grandson of Bonawentura Niemcewicz, the last president of the Polish government of 1831. This choice was made to emphasize the illegality of the annexation of the Congressional Kingdom by Russia in 1831 and to recognize the status of Poland as it existed from 1815 to 1831 by virtue of the Treaty of Vienna. Pending the convocation of the Diet, a Council of State was organized, composed of twenty-five representatives from all parts of the country, [with] . . . Germany and Austria each . . . [having] ex-officio representatives in the Council. On January 15, 1917, the Council met for the first time and adopted rules and by-laws. . . . The Council issued an appeal to the nation, in which it promised to arrange for a convocation of a legislative assembly in the near future, to prepare a draft of a constitution 'based on the principle of civic equality of all citizens and adapted to modern needs, to establish a strong government and to organize the finances of the State.' . . . By a decree of November 26, 1916, the Central Powers placed credits at the service of the State Council and gave full authority to the Council to raise funds by either taxation or loans. The Polish Legions, which were released by the Austrian Emperor from their former oath of allegiance, swore fealty to the Provisional Polish Government and became the nucleus of the Polish army. They . . . [were] stationed in the various cities to replace the troops of the Central Empires, which had hitherto garrisoned the country. Similarly, all political, civic and religious bodies in Poland pledged themselves to support the Provisional Government. . . . Following an official Russian declaration March 30, 1917, in favor of Polish independence, the Polish deputies in the Duma resigned, recognizing that they ceased to represent districts forming a part of the Russian Empire."—E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, *Political history of Poland*, pp. 591-593, 601, 603, 605, 607, 609.—"The German Governor, General von Beseler, was an enlightened and agreeable personality with many Polish sympathies; and the mailed hand of the Occupation was for long hidden in a velvet glove. . . . [Under his rule] the powers of the Council of State were fairly extensive, perhaps as extensive as they could be in a country under military occupation. Education and Justice were handed over to the . . . [Council] practically without reserve; and for the first time for many years the native tongue was again heard in the schools and in the courts of law. Local representative bodies were called into being in the towns and in the country; and in Warsaw the municipality received control of all the public services, including police, prisons, posts (municipal), public sanitation, and hygiene. In certain towns the German military authorities reserved to themselves the control of this last department, on the ground that the conditions found on their entry were prejudicial to the health of the troops. . . . Of the

purely civil branches of the administration, only the railways and the posts remained wholly in the hands of the Occupying Powers. A member of the Council of State was deputed to act as Finance Minister; but the Germans in handing over the finances made the reservation, . . . 'except in so far as the costs of the Occupation are concerned.' Similarly, a Minister of Political Affairs was appointed, but he was permitted to hold official relations only with the Central Powers. . . . Early in February 1917 the Council of State decided against conscription. The outbreak of the Russian Revolution a month later still further weakened the chances of a Polish Army. . . . The subsequent collapse of the Russian armies signified the end of the common menace which had held the parties in Warsaw together. . . . Some of the Socialist legionaries refused to take a new oath of allegiance. Various arrests were made by the German authorities, among the arrested being Pilsudski."—R. Butler, *New eastern Europe*, pp. 113-117.—"On Armistice Day [Nov. 11, 1919], Pilsudski, released from his Magdeburg prison, assumed supreme power. Within three months of Armistice Day a Constituent Assembly composed of delegates elected from all parts of Poland began its session. A provisional cabinet, resting upon this Constituent Assembly, and a Chief of State, existing prior to, but confirmed by, the Assembly, were the repositories of Executive authority until a constitution could be framed and adopted. This form of pre-constitutional government served Poland from 1919 to 1922."—W. J. Kelley, *Poland entering upon normal parliamentary life* (Poland, July, 1923).

ALSO IN: G. P. Gooch, *History of modern Europe*, pp. 578-581.

1917-1918.—Demands independence from Austria-Hungary. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1917-1918.

1918.—Property loss due to the World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 4.

1918.—Freedom from Russia.—Independence.—Fall of Council of Regency.—Pilsudski's government.—Affairs in Poland during the year 1918 were extremely complicated. In September, 1917, a Regency Council had been appointed to govern the new semi-independent Polish state which had been set up by the Central Powers, and a cabinet and diet established. The Central Powers, however, did not propose to include all of the old kingdom in the new state. Prussian Poland was to be retained by Prussia, and although Galicia might have been included, by the treaty with Ukraine the district of Kholm was assigned to that state. Protests from Poland on this subject, induced Germany in April 1918 to declare their intention of revising the Ukrainian Treaty so as to give part of Kholm to Poland. Russian Poland was certain to be included. The Petrograd provisional government has already (in 1917) addressed the Poles in the following words: "The Russian nation, which has shaken off its yoke, recognizes also the absolute right of the brother nation of Poles to decide its own fate by the exercise of its own free will. . . . The Polish nation, liberated and unified, will settle for itself the nature of its own government, expressing its will by means of a Constituent Assembly convoked on the basis of universal suffrage in the capitol of Poland." At the beginning of November, the breakdown of the Central Powers gave the Poles the opportunity of seizing the independence which had been acknowledged by the Allies in 1916. A Polish People's Republic was proclaimed in Cracow on November 6. The freedom given by the armistice (see also EUROPE: Modern: New balance of powers) was

immediately availed of to invade the districts which the Poles believed to be theirs of right. Western Galicia was seized, but the advance into Eastern Galicia was vigorously opposed by the Ukrainians. "Left to itself, the first act of the Regency was to demand the liberation of General Joseph Pilsudski, who had been incarcerated at Magdeburg since July, 1917. In this demand the Council, which had failed to gain the confidence of the people, was actuated by the double desire to recover popularity and to preserve its authority, already menaced by the foundation of a socialist Government at Lublin at the instance of M. Daszynski. The Germans . . . were quite ready to return Pilsudski to Poland. On his arrival the leaders of the National Democratic Party offered to join him in forming a Coalition Government. But he repelled these advances on the excuse that he must wait to ascertain the will of the people. . . . A few days later, however, General Pilsudski accepted the supreme power from the hands of the Regency Council, which then realized that its dissolution was inevitable. His first attempt to form a Cabinet, with M. Daszynski recalled from Lublin, failed owing to the hostility of the Poznanians, who refused to join a purely Socialist combination. But though they persisted in their refusal, a provisional cabinet was formed under M. Moraczewski. After passing an electoral law granting universal suffrage and a decree limiting the working day to eight hours, its manifest incapacity combined with the scarcity of food began to arouse murmurs of discontent. General Pilsudski, fearing that in the absence of all organized government this discontent might develop into anarchy, assented to the proposal pressed upon him by the National Democrats that M. Paderewski . . . should be offered the premiership of a new Ministry. In return for this concession it was agreed that Pilsudski himself should be elected to the office of Chief of the State by a unanimous vote of all parties in the Diet. So far Poland was free only in name. The German forces in Poznan, civil as well as military, were animated by a very different spirit from that of the invaders in the Congress Kingdom. Their expulsion by [the] rising of the whole Polish population in the Grand-Duchy did not take place till the end of 1918. About the same time the Ruthenians, or as they are called in Western Europe the Ukrainians . . . commenced an offensive against the Poles in Galicia. . . . It was not, however, until the end of 1918 that Polish troops had cleared the country of its enemies and occupied the principal towns. Meanwhile M. Paderewski had not fulfilled the hopes born at the time of his venture into the quicksand of political life."—R. Devereux, *Poland reborn*, pp. 57-59.—"Pilsudski's government publicly claimed Vilna, the capital of Lithuania, and some districts of White Russia. The Lithuanians and White Russians called upon the Bolsheviks of Russia to support them against the aggression of Poland. . . . [One of Pilsudski's first acts, was to arrest the ring leaders of the Bolshevik movement.] The arrival of Paderewski [who had been one of the leading exiles in Paris, who had set up the Polish National Committee] in Poland, in the last days of 1918, caused a crisis between the conservative and radical elements in the country. Paderewski was one of the conservative leaders who was in strong opposition to the dictatorship of the radical Pilsudski. The former even made an effort to overthrow Pilsudski's government, but failed."—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations*, pp. 128, 129-130.—"The city itself [Danzig] . . . is overwhelmingly German (over 90%), and so is the

small district surrounding it. On the other hand, economically and geographically, Danzig belongs to Poland. . . . [It had been supremely prosperous during the best days of its union with Poland, but had decayed and stagnated under Prussian rule.] The city derives its importance almost wholly from the fact that it is the natural port of the Vistula valley. . . . Poland is essentially the valley of the Vistula. That river has always been the main artery of the country's economic life, and scarcely any other European nation has its settlements concentrated in one river valley in like degree. The Vistula is a magnificent river system, a basin of 60,000 square miles with 3,100 miles of navigable streams, and a possibility of opening good and easy connections with the Dnieper, the Dniester, and the Niemen—i. e., with half of eastern Europe. But the utilization and proper development of this unique system of transcontinental waterways by Poland depends on her control of the great port at the mouth of the Vistula. . . . [According to the arrangement, Danzig and its territory were entirely separated from Germany and organized as a free city under the protection of the League of Nations. (See below: 1922.) Posen, part of West Prussia and the Danzig territory were the only regions which were definitely taken from Germany by the Peace Treaty and added to Poland. In three other territories, however, plebiscites were ordered to be held to determine whether the inhabitants desired to remain with Germany, or to be united to Poland.] The first of these plebiscite areas was the Marienwerder district on the right bank of the Vistula in the northeastern corner of West Prussia . . . [a] small territory . . . of much importance to Poland. . . . [In German hands, however, it might menace the right bank of the Vistula, and moreover] . . . the most direct and convenient railway from Danzig to Warsaw runs across this territory. . . . [Another plebiscite zone was the East Prussian province of Mazuria, in which there is a large Polish speaking majority.] To sum up, by the terms of the treaty, Germany definitely lost about 17,500 square miles of territory and about 2,900,000 subjects, . . . [exclusive of the losses imposed by the results of the plebiscites.]"—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*, pp. 170-186.

1918.—British war aims regarding Poland.—President Wilson's peace program.—Count von Hertling's answer to Lloyd George and President Wilson regarding war settlements. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statements of war aims: a; b; d.

1918.—Represented at Paris scientific conference. See INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

1918-1920.—Strife with Ruthenians in Galicia. See GALICIA: 1914-1920.

1918-1922.—Work of American Relief Administration. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American relief administration; American Friends.

1919.—Social insurance.—Unemployment insurance. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Poland: 1919.

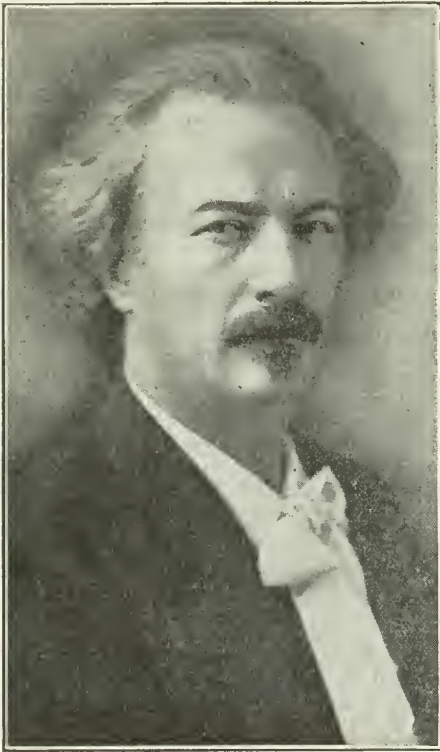
1919.—Represented at conference for International Union of Academies. See INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by the French Academy.

1919.—Compulsory education decree. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Poland.

1919.—Paderewski made premier.—Recognition of provisional government by Allied powers.—Dispute with Lithuania over Vilna.—The difficult political situation which existed in

Poland, at the close of 1918, was complicated by the existence not only of two governments within the country (see above: 1918) but also by the Polish National Council which had been established in Paris since 1916, and had been recognized by the Allied powers. This council, of which Ignace Paderewski was the most prominent member, was not exactly in accord with the Pilsudski government in Warsaw. But this state of affairs could not continue. In order to end it Paderewski went to Poland, Pilsudski sent Dr. Casimir Dluski at the head of a mission to the Polish organization there to Paris and an agreement was reached in January, 1919. Under this agreement Pilsudski retained office as provisional president, the National Council was increased to

constituent assembly on February 10, in which the ministerial party was upheld by a clear majority of over 300. The government was thereupon accorded recognition by the Allied powers, on February 21. The United States had already, on January 29, sent a message to Paderewski, which amounted to recognition. During this time Dmowski, who had been approved by the Pilsudski government, was chief delegate for Poland at the Peace conference. Later on, Paderewski went back to lay the claims of Poland before the conference, and in July he returned to Warsaw to lay the treaties before parliament. (See below: 1919 [June-August]). Strenuous objection was made to the plebiscites, the Minority Treaty, and the recognition of Danzig as a free city; but in spite of this the treaties were ratified on August 1 by a majority of 285 out of 326. Constant disputes with Czecho-Slovakia over the question of Austrian Silesia gave rise during the year to an acute conflict between the governments of Prague and Warsaw (see below: 1919-1920). The result was an estrangement between the two nations, which gravely endangered the political development of the newly constituted states of central and eastern Europe. The Poles claimed the frontier of 1772 as well as Silesia; the Czechs insisted upon the possession of the railway which runs from Oderberg through Teschen into Slovakia, and also the coal fields between Oderberg and Karvin. During the year, Pilsudski had also to lead his armies against the Ukrainians who disputed possession of territory in Galicia. (See UKRAINE: 1914-1921; 1919.) At the same time a much more serious war was waged with the Bolsheviks, who had entered the east almost on the heels of the German troops. The Russians accused the Poles of commencing this war in order to satisfy imperialistic tendencies. The Poles pointed to the financial and industrial state of the country and argued that they were in no position to commence an aggressive war without great provocation. The internal situation in the beginning of 1919 was extremely serious. The danger of Bolshevism grew daily. The Social Democratic party, while ostensibly hostile to Bolshevism, in fact hampered every effort to introduce order, hoping thus to create a situation which would make them appear in the eyes of the people as Poland's only salvation. But the Socialists had their followers only in towns and large industrial centres, and formed a comparatively small part of the population. The bulk of the population of Poland, which is an agricultural country, still remains the "chlop"—the poor, oppressed peasant class, which gained nothing by the new order of things, and which in consequence was very easily accessible to Bolshevik agitation. The fact also remains that, so far as literacy, education and the general view of life are concerned, the Polish peasant is made of the same stuff as the Russian "muzhik," on whom the Bolshevik idea worked so easily. The country was full of Bolshevik agents coming from Russia and Germany, who turned their attention from the towns to the peasants. The peasants refused to surrender foodstuffs to the troops sent to requisition them, and manifested a growing opposition to conscription and to the army. They demanded land, which the landed gentry refused to give, and threatened not merely not to work land but to prevent the noble proprietors from working it with the help of others. The Socialists were without practical influence among these people; the government lost ground steadily and, to save the situation declared a



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IGNACE JAN PADEREWSKI

twenty-four, including ten from Warsaw, and the labor government which Pilsudski had formed under Moraczewski gave way to a coalition ministry under Paderewski, in which he held the portfolio of foreign affairs himself, and retained several of Moraczewski's old ministers, notably in the departments of finance, the interior and war. The economic situation was at this time as bad as possible. The country was in the grip of famine; the treasury might be said to have been non-existent; the railway systems, which had never been coordinated, were completely disrupted by war, and the government was faced by the probability of invasion by Russia over the tempting eastern frontiers which were left open by the German evacuation. The first steps taken to find a way out of this maze of trouble were the organization of an established government as stated above. This was followed by the election of a

state of siege all over Poland, hoping thus to get the work done in the fields, provide the towns with food, help on conscription, and rid the country of Bolshevik agitators. The peasant was the most tragical disappointment for M. Paderewski, who had declared that the "chłop" was the surest foundation of the Polish state, but who a few days later was forced to sign a decree for a three months' state of siege. The Bolshevik danger appeared more serious because of the army of unemployed. And while the government could not meet the enormous expense of maintaining this great army the farmers could not get labourers for field work, and industry suffered from lack of workmen. People prefer to take the "unemployment allowance" paid by the government rather than work for wages which were sometimes lower than this allowance.—Based on *Polish political currents* (*New Europe*, May 8, 1919).—In 1919 a long continued dispute began with Lithuania over Vilna. "The dispute arose out of a declaration of the Supreme Council on December 8, 1919, provisionally establishing the frontier between Northeastern Poland and Lithuania. After the armistice with Germany, the Lithuanian government had established itself at Kovno. The Russian Bolsheviks, however, still retained and occupied Vilna. From the former Lithuanian capital the Bolsheviks were later driven out by the warring Poles."—*Poland and the Vilna settlement* (*New York Times Current History*, Oct., 1921).—See also LITHUANIA: 1919-1920.

1919 (June).—Settlement of boundaries by the Treaty of Versailles.—Danzig and the plebiscite regions.—"The Allied statesmen met at Paris already committed to the programme of the restoration of a 'united and independent Poland.' President Wilson in the Fourteen Points had laid down the principle that 'an independent Polish state should be created which should include the territories inhabited by indisputably Polish populations, which should be assured a free and secure access to the sea and whose political and economic independence and territorial integrity should be guaranteed by international covenant.' The prime ministers of Great Britain, France and Italy, in their declaration of June 3, 1918, had also affirmed that 'the creation of a united and independent Polish state with free access to the sea constitutes one of the conditions of a solid and just peace and of the rule of right in Europe.' . . . [and the outcome was a settlement of the Polish territorial problems. But this settlement was necessarily incomplete because the conference could make definite arrangements only with regard to Prussian and Austrian Poland.] . . . It was possible to assume that Russia had renounced all claims to Warsaw and to the so-called Congress Kingdom, because the government of Prince Lvov, in March, 1917, had spontaneously accepted the principle of 'an independent Polish state including all regions with an indisputable Polish ethnic majority.' But . . . it [was] impossible down to the present [1920] to assign definite limits to this state on the east, in those debatable regions where the ethnographic situation and the wishes of the population [were] so doubtful, and where Polish, Russian, Lithuanian, and Ukrainian claims all [came] into collision. Hence Poland's . . . boundaries were fixed [by the conference] only on the west, northwest, and south. . . . The treaty incorporates a good many Germans into the new Polish state. In the provinces ceded outright to Poland, the ratio is about 1,000,000 Germans to 1,800,000 Poles. . . . A large

number of these Germans have, so to speak, no right to be there. . . . In addition, the host of government functionaries and servants in these provinces, the administrative, judicial, financial, railroad, telegraph, postal, forest, school officials and employees, have been recruited almost exclusively from the Germans, and very largely from Germans brought in from the west by the promise of higher pay and other special privileges. . . . No large compact blocks of German population . . . [were] annexed to Poland. No territories . . . [were] awarded to Poland simply on the basis of historic rights. What the Peace Conference attempted to do was to disentangle two inextricably interlocked races, as far as that could be done; to define what might be considered . . . the area of Polish majorities; and then to make the political boundary coincide with this ethnographic one, as far as was practicable. Since this ethnographic frontier presents an extraordinarily jagged and tortuous contour, some deviations from it had to be made in order to obtain a relatively strait and simple boundary; and . . . to avoid cutting railway lines too frequently. . . . But what was most characteristic of the desire to be completely fair to the Germans, is the fact that two large areas of incontestably Polish majority were not transferred to Poland, as they might well have been according to the Fourteen Points. Since there was a possibility of doubt as to the wishes of their populations, their fate . . . [was] left to popular vote. . . . Five sixths of the old province of the Posen, . . . the cradle of the Polish race and of the Polish state, [was ceded to Poland]. The province belonged to Poland uninterruptedly down to the Second Partition in 1793; it has always retained a strong Polish majority; and that majority has furnished the most conclusive proof of its Polish patriotism and its detestation of German rule. . . . In West Prussia the problem was much more simple. . . . West Prussia falls into three zones. . . . The central zone and the southeast are predominantly Polish. There thus exists to the west of the Vistula an unbroken corridor of Polish-speaking territory extended through to the Baltic. In the collision . . . between the two streams of colonization, the south to north movement . . . [was] the stronger. The Germans . . . [had] not succeeded in bridging the gap between the old German lands of the west and the isolated German colony in East Prussia. This is the first and principal reason for the establishment of the much discussed Polish *couloir* to the Baltic. . . . [The question of this Polish corridor is closely bound up with the thorny problem of Danzig.] Historically Danzig has in the main passed through the same vicissitudes as West Prussia, of which it is the capital. It is an old Polish city, transformed into a German-speaking one since the fourteenth century. Nevertheless, German Danzig distinguished itself in the past by its loyalty to Poland. It took the lead and fought gallantly to effect the reunion of West Prussia with Poland in the fifteenth century. During the ensuing period of Polish rule, it was prosperous and contented. The whole seaborne trade of Poland passed through its hands; it ranked as well nigh the first port of the Baltic; and the wide measure of autonomy which Poland allowed it drew Danzig to her by affection as well as by interest. It was not without staunch resistance that the city surrendered to the Prussian usurpation in 1793, and as late as 1813 the City Council besought the Powers of Europe to reunite Danzig to Poland and not to incorporate

it with Prussia. . . . The ancestors of these Poles were called into the country in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries by the Teutonic Knights to replace the original Prussian population, which the Knights had largely exterminated. The Mazurian Poles have remained politically separated from the rest of their nation for six hundred years; since the sixteenth century they have become Protestants, while almost all the other Poles are Catholics; and because of these facts and also because of their economic, intellectual, and spiritual dependence on their German landlords, teachers, and pastors, the Mazurian Poles have long been completely estranged from the rest of the Polish nation. They have on the whole shown no very marked signs of Polish national consciousness, and there was room to doubt whether they desired reunion with Poland. Hence, a plebiscite was clearly in order here. The third plebiscite area . . . [was] in Upper Silesia, in this case there was an indisputable Polish-speaking majority; 65.6% of Poles for the region as a whole, and in many districts 80 or even 90. So strong was the Polish claim that the original decision of the Peace Conference was to award Upper Silesia to Poland outright, . . . [but] as a result of the vehement objections raised by the German delegation at Versailles, this decision was ultimately modified. The territory in question is extraordinarily rich in minerals and important industrially. In the period just before the outbreak of the War, its coal production was 44,000,000 tons a year—23% of Germany's total output of coal. It also furnished 34% of her production of lead ore; and 81% of her zinc."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*.—See also PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; Course of discussion; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; Part III: Section VIII; Part III: Section XI.

1919 (June 28).—*Minority Treaty*.—Another important treaty was signed on the same day that the German delegates signed the treaty ending the great World War. This was the treaty with Poland, the terms of which follow:

The United States of America, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan, the principal allied and associated powers, on the one hand; and Poland, on the other hand: . . .

Chapter I

Article 1.—Poland undertakes that the stipulations contained in Article 2 and 8 of this chapter shall be recognized as fundamental law, and that no law, regulation, or official action shall conflict or interfere with these stipulations, nor shall any law, regulation, or official action prevail over them.

Art. 2.—Poland undertakes to assure full and complete protection to life and liberty to all inhabitants of Poland, without distinction of birth, nationality, language, race, or religion. All inhabitants of Poland shall be entitled to the free exercise, whether public or private, of any creed, religion, or belief whose practices are not inconsistent with public order or public morals.

Art. 3.—Poland admits and declares to be Polish nationals *ipso facto* Hungarian or Russian nationals habitually resident, at the date of the coming into force of the present treaty, in territory which is or may be recognized as forming part of Poland under the treaties with Germany,

Austria, Hungary, or Russia, respectively, but subject to any provisions in the said treaties relating to persons who became resident in such territory after a specified date. Nevertheless, the persons referred to above who are over 12 years of age will be entitled under the conditions contained in the said treaties to opt for any other nationality which may be open to them. Option by a husband will cover his wife and option by parents will cover their children under 18 years of age. Persons who have exercised the above right to option must, except where it is otherwise provided in the treaty of peace with Germany, transfer within the succeeding twelve months their place of residence to the State for which they have opted. They will be entitled to retain their immovable property in Polish territory. They may carry with them their movable property of every description. No export duties may be imposed upon them in connection with the removal of such property.

Art. 4.—Poland admits and declares to be Polish nationals, *ipso facto* and without the requirement of any formality, persons of German, Austrian, Hungarian, or Russian nationality who were born in the said territory of parents habitually resident there, even if at the date of the coming into force of the present treaty they are not themselves habitually resident there. Nevertheless, within two years after the coming into force of the present treaty, these persons may make a declaration before the competent Polish authorities in the country in which they are resident, stating that they abandon Polish nationality, and they will then cease to be considered as Polish nationals. In this connection a declaration by a husband will cover his wife, and a declaration by parents will cover their children under 18 years of age.

Art. 5.—Poland undertakes to put no hindrance in the way of the exercise of the right which the persons concerned have, under the treaties concluded or to be concluded by the allied and associated powers with Germany, Austria, Hungary, or Russia, to choose whether or not they will acquire Polish nationality.

Art. 6.—All persons born in Polish territory who are not born nationals of another State shall *ipso facto* become Polish nationals.

Art. 7.—All Polish nationals shall be equal before the law and shall enjoy the same civil and political rights without distinction as to race, language, or religion. Differences of religion, creed, or confession shall not prejudice any Polish national in matters relating to the enjoyment of civil or political rights, as for admission to public employments, functions, and honors, or the exercise of professions and industries. No restriction shall be imposed on the free use by any Polish national of any language in private intercourse, in commerce, in religion, in the press, or in publications of any kind, or at public meetings. Notwithstanding any establishment by the Polish Government of an official language, adequate facilities shall be given to Polish nationals of non-Polish speech for the use of their language, either orally or in writing, before the courts.

Art. 8.—Polish nationals who belong to racial, religious, or linguistic minorities shall enjoy the same treatment and security in law and in fact as the Polish nationals. In particular they shall have an equal right to establish, manage, and control at their own expense charitable, religious, and social institutions, schools and other educational establishments, with the right to use their

own language and to exercise their religion freely therein.

Art. 9.—Poland will provide, in the public educational system in towns and districts in which a considerable proportion of Polish nationals of other than Polish speech are residents, adequate facilities for insuring that in the primary schools instruction shall be given to the children of such Polish nationals through the medium of their own language. This provision shall not prevent the Polish Government from making the teaching of the Polish language obligatory in the said schools.

In towns and districts where there is a considerable proportion of Polish nationals belonging to racial, religious, or linguistic minorities, these minorities shall be assured an equitable share in the enjoyment and application of the sums which may be provided out of public funds under the State, municipal, or other budgets, for educational, religious, or charitable purposes. The provisions of this article shall apply to Polish citizens of German speech only in that part of Poland which was German territory on Aug. 1, 1914.

Art. 10.—Educational committees appointed locally by the Jewish communities of Poland will, subject to the general control of the State, provide for the distribution of the proportional share of public funds allocated to Jewish schools in accordance with Article 9, and for the organization and management of these schools. The provision of Article 9 concerning the use of language in schools shall apply to these schools.

Art. 11.—Jews shall not be compelled to perform any act which constitutes a violation of their Sabbath, nor shall be placed under any disability by reason of their refusal to attend courts of law or to perform any legal business on their Sabbath. This provision, however, shall not exempt Jews from such obligations as shall be imposed upon all other Polish citizens for the necessary purposes of military service, national defense, or the preservation of public order. Poland declares her intention to refrain from ordering or permitting elections, whether general or local, to be held on a Saturday, nor will registration for electoral or other purposes be compelled to be performed on a Saturday.

Art. 12.—Poland agrees that the stipulations in the foregoing articles, so far as they affect persons belonging to racial, religious, or linguistic minorities, constitute obligations of international concern, and shall be placed under the guarantee of the League of Nations. They shall not be modified without the assent of a majority of the Council of the League of Nations. The United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan hereby agree not to withhold their assent from any modification in these articles which is in due form assented to by a majority of the Council of the League of Nations. Poland agrees that any member of the Council of the League of Nations shall have the right to bring to the attention of the Council any infraction of any of these obligations, and that the council may thereupon take such action and give such direction as it may deem proper and effective in the circumstances. Poland further agrees that any difference of opinion as to question of law or fact arising out of these articles, between the Polish Government and any of the principal allied and associated powers, or any other power a member of the Council of the League of Nations, shall be held to be a dispute of an international character under Article 14 of the Covenant of the League

of Nations. The Polish Government hereby consents that any such dispute shall, if the other party thereof demands, be referred to the Permanent Court of International Justice. The decision of the Permanent Court shall be final and shall have the same force and effect as an award under Article 13 of the covenant.

Chapter II

Art. 13.—Each of the principal allied and associated powers, on the one part, and Poland on the other shall be at liberty to appoint diplomatic representatives to reside in their respective capitals, as well as Consul Generals, Consuls, Vice Consuls, and Consular Agents, to reside in the towns and ports of their respective territories. Consul Generals, Consuls, Vice Consuls, and Consular Agents, however, shall not enter upon their duties until they have been admitted in the usual manner by the Government in the territory of which they are stationed. Consul Generals, Consuls, Vice Consuls, and Consular Agents shall enjoy all the facilities, privileges, exemptions, and immunities of every kind which are or shall be granted to Consular offices of the most favored nation.

Art. 14.—Pending the establishment of a permanent tariff by the Polish Government, goods originating in the allied and associated States shall not be subject to any higher duties on importation into Poland than the most favorable rates of duty applicable to goods of the same kind under either the German, Austro-Hungarian, or Russian customs tariffs on July 1, 1914.

Art. 15.—Poland undertakes to make no treaty, convention, or arrangement, and to take no other action, which will prevent her from joining in any general agreement for the equitable treatment of the commerce of other States that may be concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations within five years from the coming into force of the present treaty. Poland also undertakes to extend to all the allied and associated States any favors or privileges in customs matters which they may grant during the same period of five years to any State with which, since August, 1914, the Allies have been at war, or to any State which may have concluded with Austria special customs arrangements as provided for in the treaty of peace to be concluded with Austria.

Art. 16.—Pending the conclusion of the general agreement referred to above, Poland undertakes to treat on the same footing as national vessels, or vessels of the most favored nation, the vessels of all the allied and associated States which accord similar treatment to Polish vessels. By way of exception from this provision, the right of Poland or any other allied or associated State to confine her maritime coasting trade to national vessels is expressly reserved.

Art. 17.—Pending the conclusion, under the auspices of the League of Nations, of a general convention to secure and maintain freedom of communications and of transit, Poland undertakes to accord freedom of transit of persons, goods, vessels, carriages, wagons, and mails in transit to or from any allied or associated State over Polish territory, including territorial waters, and to treat them at least as favorably as the persons, goods, vessels, carriages, wagons, and mails respectively of Polish or of any other more favored nationality, origin, importation, or ownership, as re-

gards facilities, charges, restrictions, and all other matters. All charges imposed in Poland on such traffic in transit shall be reasonable, having regard to the conditions of the traffic. Goods in transit shall be exempt from all customs or other duties. Tariffs for transit traffic across Poland and tariffs between Poland and any allied or associated power, involving through tickets or waybills, shall be established at the request of that allied or associated power. Freedom of transit will extend to postal, telegraphic, and telephonic services. It is agreed that no allied or associated power can claim the benefit of these provisions on behalf of any part of its territory in which reciprocal treatment is not accorded with respect to the same subject matter. If within a period of five years from the coming into force of the present treaty no general convention as aforesaid shall have been concluded under the auspices of the League of Nations, Poland shall be at liberty at any time thereafter to give twelve months' notice to the Secretary General of the League of Nations to terminate obligations of this article.

Art. 18.—Pending the conclusion of a general convention on the international régime of waterways, Poland undertakes to apply to the river system of the Vistula (including the Bug and the Narew) the régime applicable to international waterways set out in Articles 332 to 337 of the treaty of peace with Germany. . . .

Art. 19.—[Relates to certain existing international conventions—telegraphic and radio-telegraphic, railway, sanitary and other—as to which Poland is to take action.]

Art. 20.—[Extends the rights and privileges accorded in the foregoing articles to all States members of the League of Nations.]

Art. 21.—Poland agrees to assume responsibility for such proportion of the Russian public debt and other Russian public liabilities of any kind as may be assigned to her under a special convention between the principal allied and associated powers on the one hand and Poland on the other, to be prepared by a commission appointed by the above States. In the event of the commission not arriving at an agreement, the point at issue shall be referred for immediate arbitration to the League of Nations.

—J. S. Guernsey, *Reference history of the war*, pp. 363-366.

1919 (June-August 1).—**Reception and ratification of the treaties.**—"The Poles were far from being satisfied with the terms of the Peace Treaty affecting Poland, or with the special Polish treaty guaranteeing protection to national minorities within the new Polish State, especially to the Jews. The Poles, first of all, were dissatisfied at what they considered the loss of the City of Danzig, made an autonomous commune by the treaty terms; they were also displeased by the decision to hold a plebiscite in Polish Silesia, forcibly colonized by the Germans. . . . Concerning the Polish treaty, the Diet on June 11 passed a resolution which denied that Poland had ever countenanced religious persecution, and which declared that the rights of religious minorities would continue to be respected. Special objection was made to Article 93 of the German treaty, which placed Poland under international engagements concerning the just claims of minorities; these measures were declared to be a restriction on the sovereign rights of the Polish Republic and an indication of an unmerited lack of confidence on

the part of the allied powers."—*New York Times Current History*, Aug., 1919.

1919 (September).—**Settlement of boundaries by the treaty of St. Germain.**—**Eastern Galicia allotted to Poland.**—Eastern Galicia "was originally settled by a population historically known, and still commonly known as Ruthenians. They are a branch of that little Russian race for which the general name Ukrainian is now coming into use. After belonging to various Ruthenian principalities in the early middle ages, Eastern Galicia was conquered by Poland in 1340; it remained a part of the Polish state down to 1772; and even under the Austrian rule the Poles . . . continued to be the dominant nation. . . . Socially and intellectually there is a striking contrast between the two rival races. [See also GALICIA: Agriculture.] The Ruthenians are almost entirely a peasant population, with only a small educated class of priests, lawyers, doctors, etc. The Poles are fairly evenly and normally divided among the various occupations and social classes. . . . In other words, the Poles are socially, economically, and intellectually the strongest element in the country, although in numbers they are considerably inferior to their rivals. . . . In the nineteenth century, . . . a nationalist movement grew up among the Ruthenians, which assumed a marked anti-Polish tendency and . . . led to a rather bitter racial feud. . . . At the moment of Austria's spontaneous dissolution, one Ruthenian party hastened to set up a 'Republic of the Western Ukraine,' and, with the aid of certain Ruthenian units in the old Austrian army, attempted to seize possession of all Eastern Galicia. This led to a prolonged and unhappy struggle with the Poles, who were not disposed to submit to such a settlement of the question. For many months the fighting centered around the city of Lemberg, which long defended itself almost single-handed and with great heroism against superior Ukrainian forces. When at last the Polish government was in a position to send large reinforcements, the issue was quickly decided. In June, 1919, the Ukrainian resistance collapsed, and the Poles occupied the whole country as far as the Zbrucz. . . . The Ruthenian majority was not at all agreed as to what it wanted. The Ukrainophiles among them were for an independent Ukrainian state; but the other party was altogether opposed to such an idea. This second party, however, had no more practicable program to offer than that the Allied governments should occupy and administer Eastern Galicia until such time as Russia was on her feet again and in condition to take over the country. . . . It was rather doubtful, moreover, whether the Ruthenians were capable of taking over the government of the country. They had had no independent state for nearly six hundred years, and their national development had been so retarded and unsatisfactory that it was not easy to believe that they were fitted for independent statehood today. The intellectuals had already given the measure of their ability: for six months they had tried to run a government; and the result—nearly all the many Allied officers who were sent in to study the situation were unanimous in the opinion that this Ukrainian government had been, . . . a sorry failure; and that the majority of the population—Poles, Jews, and Ruthenians alike—were relieved when this government collapsed and the Polish troops came in."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*, pp. 189-

190, 192-194.—"In spite of the protest of the Ukrainian National Committee the Supreme Council allotted the province of Eastern Galicia to Poland as a mandate for a 25-year period; a subsequent modification gave Poland control for an unlimited time."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, 194-195.

1919-1920.—Paderewski's acquiescence in boundary terms.—Dispute with Czecho-Slovakia.—Resignation of Paderewski.—"Although Premier Paderewski, in addressing the Polish Diet on July 31, on the occasion of the ratification of the Peace Treaty, painted an optimistic picture for the future, Poland . . . passed through a stormy year. Strikes, unemployment, shortage of food, and resultant starvation, lack of transport, currency depreciation and fever epidemics, coupled with critical boundary disputes and almost ceaseless warfare, sapped the energies of the reborn state. The strained relations with Czecho-Slovakia for possession of the rich Teschen mineral region [were] continued."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, p. 127.—"Poland had an unhappy dispute with Czecho-Slovakia over the duchy of Teschen and the small territories of Złoty and Arva, which lie south of the Carpathians. After two weeks of fighting and nine months of negotiation, it was settled [Sept. 11] that the populations of these districts . . . [should] decide by plebiscite to which of the two new republics they . . . [were] to belong."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*, pp. 188.—"Inability to cope with the pressing internal problems and failure to maintain the support of the Diet resulted in the resignation of the Paderewski government on December 7. After various attempts to form another ministry, a coalition cabinet, with N. Skulski as Premier, was announced on December 15. . . . Grave labor troubles in Galicia and Warsaw during March 1920, culminated in a demand for a general revolutionary strike, provoked by the alleged imperialism of the government. The danger, although narrowly averted by the efforts of the Socialist party, was not eliminated, and protests against the existing order continued; finally the government resigned on June 10. After a cabinet crisis of fifteen days, during which several leaders, including former Premier Skulski, failed in their efforts to bring about a reorganization of the old ministry, a new Cabinet was announced on June 24 . . . non-political in character and [to] be directed by resolutions accepted by the Diet."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, p. 129.

1919-1920.—War with Russia.—Armistice negotiations.—In 1919 "the Bolshevik forces advanced almost to the borders of Congress Poland: [in 1920] after a certain amount of fighting, the Poles . . . [had] thrust them back almost to the Dnieper . . . and were in possession of most of the old Russian provinces of Grodno, Wilna, Minsk, and Volhynia: i. e., of a very large part of those eastern territories which belonged to the old Polish republic and which have been the object of an age-long dispute between Poland and Russia."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*, pp. 195-196.—"Against Soviet Russia the Poles with Allied sanction waged almost incessant war; by September 18 they had driven the Bolsheviks to the Dvina and had advanced northward approximately 100 miles into Russian territory; at the same time

they had penetrated into Lithuania, in some instances to a depth of six miles. To the east they had advanced on a wide front of 200 miles. Believing that the Bolsheviks had been pushed back to a safe distance, and perhaps alarmed at Poland's apparent desire for additional territory, the Supreme Council attempted to check the Poles from further invasion of Russian territory. With the withdrawal of General Denikine from the Ukraine, the Polish government announced on January 9 that it would send troops to occupy the evacuated territory and thus prevent Bolshevism from gaining a foothold there. Meanwhile M. Tchitcherin, Bolshevik Minister of Foreign Affairs, had on December 22 made a proposal to the Polish government for immediate peace negotiations. This was renewed during the last week in January [1920], when the Soviet authorities expressly stated that their government had from the first recognized the independence and sovereignty of the Polish republic and further declared that there was no question, territorial, economic or otherwise, which could not be solved peacefully by negotiation. In answer to these proposals the Polish government on February 24 submitted the terms upon which it would undertake peace; these included self-determination for all peoples west of the frontier of 1772, and a demand for war indemnity for devastations committed by the Russian army in Poland as well as for damages done to Polish citizens in Russia during the Bolshevik régime. Poland's insistence upon embodying in her peace terms control of the territories as they existed prior to the first Polish partition of 1772 elicited a protest from the Supreme Council on February 28, in which the Warsaw government was reminded that Poland's eastern boundary as agreed upon on November 25, 1919 [the "Curzon line"], lay far to the westward of the districts over which she now endeavored to establish permanent claim. Failing to agree on the question of an armistice, military operations were renewed with vigor early in March, 1920. The Poles, while victorious at first, became more exacting in their peace demands, and finally negotiations were broken off."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, p. 128.—"The conclusion of Pilsudski's spring offensive, undertaken to anticipate a Bolshevik blow which was known to be in preparation for the early summer, saw the Polish front advanced to the line of the Dnieper, the Beresina and the Dvina, with a bridgehead covering Kiev. On this front, far more favourable for defensive purposes than that formerly held in the middle of the White Russian plains, which had been buttressed by no natural obstacle, the Poles from the middle of May to the end of June resisted all their adversary's efforts to advance, and threw back in complete defeat a counter-offensive on a large scale against the northern sector of the line between the Dvina and the Pripiet marshes. By this time, however, the Soviet Higher Command had assembled on its Western front overwhelmingly superior forces and renewed the attack on a large scale. The operation as planned by them was to be in two parts—the prelude, a holding attack by the crack cavalry corps of Budienny in the gap between the Dnieper and the Dniester; the main act, a drive by two armies against the already weakened sector of the Polish battlefield north of the Pripiet marshes. The actual course of events fell out rather differently. . . . Budienny managed to work his way into the rear of the Polish lines southwest of Kiev; those units which

held firm had to be withdrawn in conformity with those going back, and presently the whole front in the south melted away westwards. Kiev was evacuated . . . and though the forces holding it were successfully extricated, all the gains of the recent offensive had to be abandoned, and the Polish units were not able to regroup themselves for a renewed stand until fresh reinforcements reached them on the eastern frontier of Galicia. Meanwhile, to the north the Polish High Command had decided that to await the imminent Red attack in their ill-prepared advanced positions south of the Dvina would be folly, and a 'Hindenburg retreat' was planned, which should bring them back onto the old German lines of defence covering Vilna, Lida and Pinsk. This movement was actually commenced a day before the Grand Soviet attack was timed to open, and the latter thus became a blow in the air. For some days the retreating Polish columns lost contact with their pursuers and regrouped themselves in the German entrenchments as they had intended. But the prolonged retreat, for which there seemed at the moment no need, demoralized the troops, disorganized the supply services, and caused the commanders of the higher formations to lose touch with the situation. In fact, the army had proved itself unequal to the physical and moral strain of the withdrawal, and was in no fit state to make a serious stand in its new positions. . . . [On July 14, Vilna] fell into the hands of the Reds with little resistance; a treaty of peace signed a few days before with Lithuania assigned it to that country, but the Lithuanian army was not strong enough to be a match for the Reds, who settled themselves in Vilna for the present and pushed their advance guards and cavalry at full speed upon Grodno [which was captured on July 22]. The Polish line being now entirely outflanked, . . . the army streamed away to the westward. . . . By the middle of July the Polish armies in the north were no longer a fighting force, as we understand the term, and the Bolshevik advance was being carried out practically without opposition. In the south, however, . . . Poles and Ukrainians, fighting shoulder to shoulder, had checked the attacks of the Bolsheviks and inflicted heavy losses on them, first on the Zbrucz, then on the Sereth, then on the Strypa; . . . and it became clear to the Bolsheviks . . . that they had not the forces at their command both to carry through their main attack against Warsaw in the north and to break the resistance of the reinforced Polish armies in East Galicia. Accordingly, the Soviet Higher Command decided to push on with the first of these two operations. Their plan was an ambitious one enough, for it involved not only the capture of Warsaw by direct assault, but also the severance of the communications between Poland and the outside world by the blocking of the Danzig corridor, so as at once to deal her a knockdown blow and to destroy any possibility of the arrival of reinforcements or material which might enable her to retrieve her desperate position. The Bolshevik right wing, reinforced by cavalry, which had already gained a favourable advantage by its outflanking of the Polish left, was therefore pushed out along the East Prussian frontier towards Thorn, while the centre drove straight upon Warsaw. Little resistance was met with; by the end of July the Bolshevik right had cut the eastern railway to Danzig by its occupation of Mława, and was continuing its advance without halt.

Their centre, after some stiff fighting for the passages of the Lower Bug and in front of Brest Litovsk, had forced their way forward and were approaching the north-eastern suburbs of the enemy's capital. To the Bolsheviks, as to the rest of the world, their complete triumph, in a few days, seemed as inevitable as sunrise after dawn; the Polish armies appeared so broken and demoralized as to be unable to stand even behind impassable rivers and powerful fortifications; the attitude of the Danzig workmen had cut off any hope of assistance coming from outside. . . . Yet even at this moment of triumph and rejoicing, the fate of the battle had trembled and fallen against the invaders. The Polish people, united in the hour of danger as they had never been in the days of good fortune, had rallied to their flag in unprecedented numbers and with boundless enthusiasm, old as well as young; women as well as men . . . enrolled themselves in the ranks of the new volunteer regiments."—K., *How Poland saved herself* (National Review, Oct., 1920).—The British, French and Italian missions kept in constant touch with the Polish authorities. French officers, including General Weygand arrived; but at first their advice was not accepted by the Polish command. General Haller, who had been placed in command, was being steadily pushed back on Warsaw. Meantime, sorely needed munitions were arriving from France and England, at Danzig, where the British high commissioner compelled the dock laborers to unload them, and forwarded them to Warsaw as rapidly as possible. But the fork between the Bug and the Narew, the key to the capital, had been lost, and the city itself seemed doomed. Almost too late, General Weygand was asked to take command, and even as the enemy came in sight of the towers of Warsaw an heroic attempt to save it was made. Unexpectedly, the attempt proved successful. "The Poles massed their forces around Warsaw and organized counter attacks on both the left and right wings. The offensive on the left wing was led by the French generals, Henry and Billotte. By Aug. 18 it had placed the Poles again in possession of the key to the Warsaw defenses—the fork between the Narew and Bug Rivers. Other forces marching toward Mława at this time made considerable headway toward reopening the direct railway line to Danzig and drove the Bolsheviks eastward from the Fortress of Thorn. Meantime the offensive on the right wing, between the Vistula and the Bug, threatened the communications of the main Bolshevik forces. This movement gained rapid headway and drove the Bolsheviks back from twenty five to fifty miles all along the line."—*Poland's military crisis* (New York Times Current History, Sept., 1920).—By the last of September the Bolsheviks had been completely defeated. General Wrangel's drive northward from the Crimea was continued with success and by September 27 Kharkov and Ekaterinoslav had been captured, while, with the aid of the Ukrainian leader General Makno, Wrangel controlled the Donetz coal basin and the wheat fields of southern Ukraine. (See RUSSIA: 1920 [October-November].) Early in July while the Bolsheviks were still advancing victoriously into Poland, Great Britain proposed an armistice, through the agency of the allies, which the Russians refused; but stated their willingness to treat direct with Poland. Poland consented, and a delegation was appointed to meet the Bolshevik commissioners. The date of the armistice was three times deferred, and

finally when the representatives met the Russians declined to enter into negotiations until the Polish delegates had received full power to sign a treaty of peace. This necessitated further delays; but at length the delegates met at Minsk, and peace negotiations were resumed on August 17 with a much better outlook for Poland.

1919-1920.—Status of Jews.—An internal problem peculiar to Poland arises from "the concentration in her towns and villages during many generations . . . before the war of large numbers of Jews. . . . This created a problem by reason of the relatively few occupations permitted to them under the old imperial governments. While relieved of these disabilities since the restoration of the Polish Republic, the Jews can hardly be expected to change suddenly from their long established occupations."—A. B. Barber, *Problems of Polish reconstruction* (Poland, Sept., 1923).—In 1919 and 1920 the problem was much more than an economic one. Reports of systematized persecution of the Jews by the Poles were widely circulated. These reports were strenuously denied by the government, and requests were made to the United States and Great Britain to investigate the matter. "A Mission consisting of Mr. Henry Morgenthau, Brigadier General Edgar Jadwin, and Mr. Homer H. Johnson was appointed by the American Commission to Negotiate Peace to investigate Jewish matters in Poland. . . . On June 30, 1919, Secretary Lansing wrote to the mission: 'It is desired that the Mission make careful inquiry into all matters affecting the relations between the Jewish and non-Jewish elements in Poland. This will, of course, involve the investigation of the various massacres, pogroms and other excesses alleged to have taken place, the economic boycott and other methods of discrimination against the Jewish race.' . . . The Mission reached Warsaw on July 13, 1919, and remained in Poland until September 13, 1919. All the places where the principal excesses had occurred were visited. . . . Investigations of the excesses were made mostly in the presence of representatives of the Polish Government and of the Jewish communities. There were also present in many cases military and civil officials, and wherever possible officials in command at the time the excesses occurred were conferred with and interrogated. . . . The Jews entered Poland in large numbers during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, when they migrated from Germany and other countries as the result of severe persecutions. Their language was German, which subsequently developed into a Hebrew-German dialect, or Yiddish. As prior to this immigration only two classes or estates had existed in Poland (the owners and the tillers of the soil) the Jewish immigrant became the pioneer of trade and finance, settling in the towns and villages. As time went on it became generally known throughout Europe that Poland was a place of refuge for the Jews, and their numbers were augmented as the result of persecutions in Western Europe. Still more recently as a result of the expulsion of the Jews from Russia on account of the enforcement of the Pale of Settlement and of the May laws of 1882, their number was further increased. . . . [It has been stated that at one time nine-tenths of the Jewish people lived in Poland.] When in November, 1918, the Austrian and German armies of occupation left Poland there was no firm government until the arrival of General Pilsudski, . . . and it was during this period, before the Polish Republic came

into being, that the first of the excesses took place. The use of the word 'pogrom' has purposely been avoided, as the word is applied to everything from petty outrages to premeditated and carefully organized massacres. . . . [According to the report there were eight principal excesses committed; at Kielce, November 11, 1918; Lemberg, November 21-23, 1918; Pinsk, April 5, 1919; Lida, April 17, 1919; Wilna, April 19-21, 1919; Kolbuszowa, May 7, 1919; Czeszochowa, May 27, 1919; Minsk, August 8, 1919.] . . . These excesses were apparently not premeditated, for if they had been part of a preconceived plan, the number of killed would have run into the thousands instead of amounting to about 280. It is believed that these excesses were the result of a widespread anti-Semitic prejudice aggravated by the belief that the Jewish inhabitants were politically hostile to the Polish State. . . . Besides these excesses there have been reported to the Mission numerous cases of other forms of persecutions. Thus, in almost every one of the cities and towns of Poland, Jews have been stopped by the soldiers and have had their beards either torn out or cut off. As the Orthodox Jews feel that the shaving of their beards is contrary to their religious belief, this form of persecution has a particular significance to them. . . . Whereas it has been easy to determine the excesses which took place and to fix the approximate number of deaths, it was more difficult to establish the extent of anti-Jewish discrimination. This discrimination finds its most conspicuous manifestation in the form of the economic boycott. The National Democratic Party has continuously agitated the economic strangling of the Jews. Through the press and political announcements, as well as by public speeches, the non-Jewish elements of the Polish people are urged to abstain from dealing with the Jews. Landowners are warned not to sell their property to the Jews, and in some cases where such sales have been made the names of offenders have been posted within black bordered notices, stating that such venders were 'dead to Poland.' . . . [In 1919 this campaign was still] being waged by most of the non-Jewish press, which constantly . . . [advocated] that the economic boycott be used as a means of ridding Poland of its Jewish element. Non-Jewish laborers . . . in many cases refused to work side by side with Jews. The percentage of Jews in public office, especially those holding minor positions, such as railway employees, firemen, policemen, and the like, has been materially reduced since the present Government has taken control. . . . In considering the causes for the anti-Semitic feeling, which has brought about the manifestations described above, it must be remembered that ever since the partition of 1795 the Poles have striven to be reunited as a nation and to regain their freedom. This continual effort to keep alive their national aspirations has caused them to look with hatred upon anything which might interfere with their aims. This has led to a conflict with the nationalist declarations of some of the Jewish organizations which desire to establish cultural autonomy financially supported by the States. In addition, the position taken by the Jews in favor of Article 93 of the Treaty of Versailles, guaranteeing protection to racial, linguistic, and religious minorities in Poland, has created a further resentment against them. Moreover, Polish national feeling is irritated by what is regarded as the 'alien' character of the great mass of the

Jewish population. . . . Since the Jews form separate political groups, it is probable that some of the Polish discrimination against them is political rather than anti-Semitic in character. The dominant Polish parties give to their supporters Government positions and Government patronage."—H. Morgenthau, *Morgenthau Report on Poland* (*American Hebrew*, Jan. 30, 1920, pp. 295, 302, 304, 325).—This report was objected to by many Jews, on the ground that it did not lay a sufficient amount of blame at the door of the Polish authorities. The report of Sir Stuart Samuel, head of the English mission is much more severe in its indictment. It says, in part: "In England, the word 'pogrom' has become associated with excesses organised by the Government against a portion of the population, or when the authorities took no steps to restrain those perpetrating the excesses, or intervened at a period too late to be effective in preventing the loss of human life. The result of my enquiries brought me to the conclusion that the occurrences at Lemberg, Lida and Vilna come under the head of pogroms in the sense generally understood in England. The awful massacre at Pinsk partook more of the character of a military murder. During the outbreaks which took place in the two other towns a certain number of Jews were assaulted and plundered, but the military authorities endeavoured to restrict the action of the soldiers as much as possible. . . . The Polish Government has been confronted with the problem of maintaining order in those portions of the German, Russian and Austrian Empires which have been incorporated within the present Republic of Poland. The establishment of order was entrusted to a semi-military force known as the field gendarmerie, corresponding somewhat to a military police force. This body was recruited from a not very desirable class, and is practically independent of any but the highest civil authority. The gendarmerie has almost unlimited powers, and is in the habit of entering the houses, chiefly of the Jews, at any time of the day or night upon the pretext of searching for arms, and robs and beats the Jews. This is done quite openly, and the Jews may be said to have no means of redress. . . . There is thus really no security for the Jewish population. . . . In addition, the junior authorities of justice and of civil administration are also of inferior standing and *moral*, taking advantage of their position not only to persecute the Jews, but also to exact bribes upon an astonishing scale. . . . Almost as soon as the Polish Government was established, ill-feeling became manifest against the Jews. Public opinion had been aroused against them by the institution of a virulent boycott. This boycott dates from shortly after the bye-election for the Duma, which took place in Warsaw in 1912. . . . [The defeated candidate, M. Dmowski] set out on a campaign to break the Jewish influence, and . . . pursued a policy with the object of driving the Jews from Poland, a step which can only be fraught with disaster to the country. During the war, owing to the scarcity of almost everything, the boycott diminished, but with the armistice it revived with much of its original intensity. . . . [In concluding Sir Stuart said] it is very difficult to ascertain the number of lives lost through these painful occurrences, but, taking the lowest figure in cases of doubt, the total cannot be less than 348. These figures, terrible though they be, fail to convey an impression of the terrible condition of apprehension and anxiety under which the Jews

labour. . . . On several occasions the resentment of the soldiery and civil population was aroused by the Zionists' claim to Jewish nationality as opposed to Polish nationality. The same claim was declared to me by Government officials to be the reason for the non-admission of Jews into the Post Office and other Government offices, but no evidence was adduced to me that Jews not so declaring themselves of separate nationality were able to secure appointments. . . . At present the Jews are considerably under represented in the Polish Parliament (Sejm), having only 11 out of 390 seats." A minority report was presented by Captain Peter Wright, a member of the English mission, who, in an effort to explain the cause of the trouble traced the history of the Jews in Poland, and their distinctive language which he states is not, as claimed, a debased jargon, but a mediæval German dialect comparable to the English of Chaucer. He states that Polish Jews from their advent in Poland have been a nation within a nation. "From the documents of the thirteenth century, which do not create new but register existing conditions, they are seen at their first real appearance as a semi-autonomous corporation or community. . . . Even in the twelfth century they are evidently an independent political organism in mediæval Poland, and as Poland remained mediæval till it perished, . . . so the mediæval organisation of the Jews lasted to the end. The Jews were ruled by their commissioners (*waadim*), and the Polish kings dealt only with those commissioners and not directly with the individual Jews. . . . Economically, the Jews appear at the very outset as dealers; . . . in course of time the whole business and commerce of Poland became theirs, and they did nothing else. The Poles were knights and ploughmen who fought and tilled, and the merchants were Jews, and this monopoly lasted till the present generation. . . . Mediæval men, seeing this independence, this prosperity . . . called Poland the Paradise of the Jews. . . . This mediæval autonomy, enduring as it did through modern times . . . was the shell within which the Orthodox Jews . . . preserved their ancient and peculiar civilisation untouched by the flow and change of the world until the nineteenth century. And this is why they are so different, even now, to the Poles. . . . The Polish Government says it will admit Jews as field officers if they will sign a declaration that they are of Polish nationality. This they refuse to do. Various causes have contributed to make this difference, which is fundamental and deserving of the fullest analysis. French, English, and American Jews are, or protest they are, French, English, or American (100 per cent. American, as they say). Polish Jews [who number about a seventh of the population] protest they are not Poles; they are only Jews, but Polish subjects. This is not only a legal point: the legal attitude expresses the real attitude. . . . At present [1919] the doctrine of the Zionists or Nationalists (the names are interchangeable) is 'We Jews have race, religion and language . . . therefore we are a nation. All we need is a country. Our country is Palestine and until we can have it as a national home we want to be organised as a nation in Poland.' . . . Their party programme in Poland is to have all Jews on a separate register. The Jews thus registered are to elect a representative body of Jews, with extensive powers of legislation and taxation; e.g., it could tax for purposes of emigration, this body to be handed over by the Polish State a pro-

portionate amount of money to spend on Jewish charitable and financial institutions. Besides this separate organisation, a number of seats proportionate to their numbers to be set aside in every local and in the national legislature. A sixth or a seventh of the Polish Diet to be occupied only by Jews to be elected only by Jews. Some Jews also demand separate law courts, or at least the right to use Yiddish as well as Polish in legal proceedings. . . . A sort of boycott still continues, and undoubted instances were laid before the Commission. But now the Poles are in power they have other arms to attack them with, and therefore rely less or little on the boycott as it was. . . . It was with Jews that Germans set up their organisation to squeeze and drain Poland—Poles and Jews included—of everything it had. . . . [The Poles declare] that all the troubles between them and the Jews are tricks and inventions of the Germans. They have no more loyalty to Germany—the home of anti-Semitism—than to Poland. The East Jews are Jews and only Jews. But this is too fine a distinction for the ordinary Pole, who looks on all Jews as the allies of his worst enemy—‘once a Jew, always a German.’ But the Jewish political leaders never went to Berlin to pay their court to the Kaiser like so many Polish party leaders and grandees, lay and clerical. The Jews, and especially those to whom it was so profitable, naturally welcomed the arrival of the Germans, and at the Armistice there were Jewish demonstrations in favour of the Germans and against the ‘Polish goose,’ as they termed the newly-arisen Polish White Eagle. The very day the German garrison was disarmed, in November, 1918, the excesses against the Jews began all over Warsaw; everywhere assaults on them took place.”—See also *Jews: Poland: 1914-1920; 1920-1922.*

1919-1921.—*Land laws.*—The Witos government began in 1919 to pass drastic legislation to provide for division of the land among the rural population. “Polish laws on land reform are the following: a first law of 10th July 1919 sets forth the fundamental principles of the reform; a law of 15th July 1920 which regulates the execution; one of 16th July 1920 regarding the organization of land offices; and finally one of 17th December 1920 which provides for the grant of a certain quantity of land to ex-soldiers. Land destined for agriculture must be divided and distributed to farmers, and for providing such lots various categories of land are assigned; viz., State land, land belonging to the members of the late dynasty; mortmain property, but only in agreement with the Holy See; property acquired during the war through usurious gain, and that belonging to persons given to land speculation; and finally property belonging to private individuals through expropriation and against compensation in accordance with the provisions of the law. The present landed proprietors have the right to retain of the land belonging to them, only sufficient to form a medium sized farm that is of varying size, according to the district, of from sixty to a hundred and eighty hectares. The land divided into lots is granted by preference to those agricultural labourers who, in consequence of the division of large estates, find themselves without occupation, to cultivators of farms so small as to be insufficient for the needs of their families; to soldiers of the Polish army freed from military service; and finally to people who do not possess land, who have no profession, but who are capable of devoting themselves to agriculture. The opera-

tions for the carrying out of land reform are confided to special district land offices. Before proceeding to expropriation, the competent land office will advise the proprietor concerned, who within a period of thirty days has the faculty to voluntarily cede his land on payment of compensation to be arranged according to the rules for compulsory expropriation. . . . The division of estates is carried out by the care of the district land officers who will prepare the relative projects and establish the sale price of each parcel taking into account the value of the land, calculated on the base of the expropriation indemnity, and value of buildings and other improvements of the land. If the holders of the land are men disabled by war or ex-soldiers without means, the State will furnish them with means through long term loans to acquire the land and for the necessary works. For the formation of the fund necessary to this end the State will deduct from the expropriation indemnity a varying percentage of from 5 to 30% according to the total. Lots ceded to private individuals can neither be transferred, nor divided, even in case of death, until they have been freed from the mortgage guarantee for the price of purchase and in any event not within 25 years of their formation. The law of the 17th December 1920 contains the rules and arranges the form for the concession of land in the form of grants to soldiers of the Polish army who have rendered themselves worthy during the war.”—*International Yearbook of Agricultural Legislation*, Aug., 1920, pp. xl, xli.—“According to a report . . . published by the Polish Chief Statistical Office on the progress that had been made in carrying out the Land Reform provisions adopted by the Constituent Assembly in 1920, a total of 650,000 acres of land (not including the eastern provinces) had been parceled out before the end of 1921. Of this total, 270,000 acres were assigned to the Polish Land Distribution Offices, while the remaining 380,000 acres were distributed by private individuals and private institutions. In addition, 295,000 acres of land had been distributed among 5,000 war settlers, who took up their homes in the eastern provinces.”—*Polish economic conditions in March, 1923 (Poland, June, 1923, p. 277)*.—“The Witos Ministry in Poland resigned in September, 1921. The new Cabinet, headed by Antoni Ponikowski, was appointed on Sept. 23, and on Sept. 27 the Premier made a statement of his program before the Diet, at the same time announcing that Dr. Michalski had accepted the all-important office of Minister of Finance.”—F. E. Ackerman, *Poland's financial dictator (New York Times Current History, Apr., 1922, p. 53)*.

1920.—*Zeligowsky takes Vilna.*—In July, 1920, when Vilna was evacuated by the Poles, in the course of their retreat before the Bolshevik forces, it was taken possession of by Lithuania. In a few days, however, it was surrendered to the Russians, who held it until in turn they were compelled to retreat before the Polish army. Lithuanian troops then took possession of the city which was claimed as Lithuanian territory. These troops were driven out on October 7, by General Zeligowski, with a force of White Russians. Zeligowski, who was ostensibly acting independently of the Polish government, refused to evacuate. To prevent further dispute, the League of Nations proposed a plebiscite, pending which an armistice was arranged, and an international force of occupation was sent to keep order. At this time, Zeligowski's troops, numbering about 200,000 occupied the region around Vilna, a region which

was claimed by the Poles as essentially Polish. The Lithuanian government, in a cablegram sent from Kovno stated their fear that Zeligowski's troops would find a way to participate in the plebiscite. "The Lithuanian government," the cable ran, "feels the serious disadvantage of its position as compared with that of Poland. Lithuania is not a member of the League of Nations . . . is not even recognized by the United States. . . . The Lithuanian government therefore fears that the choice placed before the voters . . . will be . . . 'Do you wish to be under the Polish government, or will you go back to Russia.'"—See also LITHUANIA: 1920-1922.

ALSO IN: *Cementing Russo-Polish peace* (*New York Times Current History*, Jan., 1921).

1920.—Treaty of Sèvres. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF (1920).

1920.—Act providing for instruction in agriculture. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Poland.

1920.—Statistics of trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922.

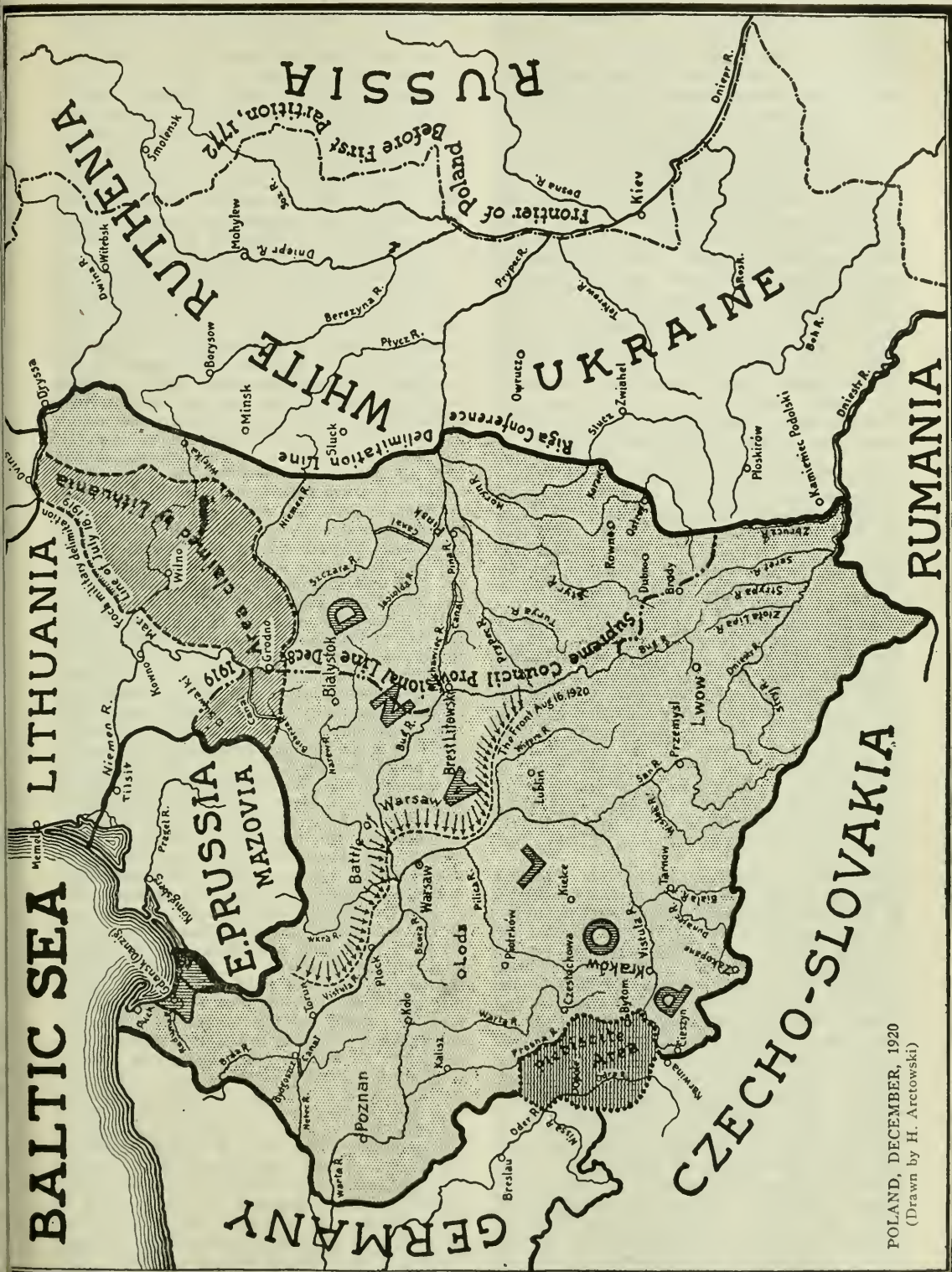
1920.—Resumption of peace negotiations with Russia.—"Russian terms, presented on the 19th and refused on the 23rd, included recognition of the independence of the Poles and their right to their own form of government; a frontier following the Supreme Council's line of December 3, 1919,—the so-called Curzon line—but with more territory east of Cholm and Bielsk; the reduction of the Polish army and the formation of a civil militia, made up of workers organized to preserve order and the security of the population. In a response to a note from Lloyd George and Giolitti from Lucerne, August 23, informing the Soviet Government that its demand for a civic militia could not be approved, Moscow announced its willingness to withdraw this condition. On August 21, a note from the United States to Poland set forth the view that offensive action against Soviet Russia beyond Poland's ethnographic frontier would not be approved; Poland's reply [to this] on September 1, was evasive. . . . On August 25, Poland asked for the transfer of negotiations to neutral territory and on September 21, her representatives met M. Joffe with the Soviet delegation at Riga. On the 24th Joffe announced armistice terms, based on a frontier east of the Curzon line and allowing eastern Galicia to Poland. The same day Dombbski presented his terms, which were accepted by Russia and which included the recognition of Poland's sovereignty; no interference in domestic affairs; the determination of boundaries on a basis of just consideration and vital interests; renunciation of restitution in any form by Poland of the expenses of the Polish-Soviet war; no obligations to devolve upon Poland because of its former connection with the Russian Empire; and reciprocal renouncement of rights of government property. On the 26th four commissions—territorial, legal, economic and financial, and general—were chosen from the delegations to prepare the armistice and preliminary peace terms, which were signed October 12, and which went into effect October 18, being ratified by Poland on the 25th and by Soviet Russia on the 26th. The conference for the settlement of the final peace . . . resumed its negotiations at Riga by November, and agreed that the withdrawal of Polish troops to the new frontier should be begun not later than midnight, November 19. . . . The terms of the peace . . . [defined] the frontier between Poland, Russia and the Ukraine, giving Poland a corridor between Lithuania and Russia to the border of Lettonia; and . . .

[obliged] each party to refrain from interference in the internal affairs of the other."—*Journal of International Relations*, Jan., 1921, pp. 482-483.

1921.—Peace treaty with Russia.—German-Polish convention.—Polish-Rumanian treaty.—Commercial treaty with Czecho-Slovakia.—"Poland's long negotiations at Riga for a permanent peace treaty with Soviet Russia [which were begun in 1920] were rewarded on Feb. 10, [1921] when, according to a Moscow announcement, the treaty was completed to the satisfaction of both sides. The negotiations had been marked by many disagreements, chiefly over the question of how much of the Russian gold reserves should be handed over to compensate Poland for war damages. The Polish demand was for 300,000,000 gold rubles. . . . Other questions involved were: The return of prisoners, amnesty for political offenders and the return of equipment taken from Polish factories [during the World War]. . . . It was announced from Riga, on Jan. 18, that all the political clauses had been finally determined, including mutual recognition of sovereignty and Soviet pledges not to conduct propaganda. Vice Minister Dombbski, chief of the Polish Peace Delegation, reported to the Warsaw Foreign Office toward the end of January that the work of the conference was proceeding rapidly and that the final treaty would be signed early in February. M. Dombbski was to go to Moscow at the head of his commission to complete arrangements for the execution of the treaty after it was signed."

—*Poland on a firmer footing* (*New York Times Current History*, Mar., 1921).—"The treaty of peace . . . with the Soviet Ukrainian Government as a minor signatory, was signed at Riga, the capital of Latvia, on March 18, 1921. . . . Moscow ratified the document on March 22. The Polish Diet formally ratified it on April 15, thus coming within the thirty days' time limit set for ratification. The ratification of the Ukraine was included in that of the Soviet Government . . . and the Moscow Government ceded to Poland some 3,000,000 square kilometers of territory near Minsk, and also the Ukrainian district of Polesia, by the signing of peace with Soviet Russia. . . . Over and above the Curzon line established by the Peace Conference [Poland secured] fifteen counties of the Provinces of Volhynia, Grodno, Vilna and Minsk in their entirety, and also portions of eleven counties in the Provinces of Volhynia, Minsk, Vilna and Vitebsk. . . . M. Dombbski, the chief of Polish delegates to Riga, declared after the signing of the treaty that it would be Poland's aim to give freedom and the exercise of all civic rights to the people of non-Polish stock to be incorporated with Poland under the Riga Treaty."

—*Peace treaty between Poland and Russia* (*New York Times Current History*, June, 1921).—"One important settlement affecting relations between Poland and Germany reached by the Polish-German Commission sitting in Paris on Jan. 20, . . . concerned German transit to East Prussia across the so-called Danzig corridor. The terms under which Germany was to have such a right of way were finally drafted. Germany gains the right to use two types of trains, one 'privileged,' the other ordinary. 'Privileged' trains carrying both passengers and goods are to be permitted to cross from Germany to East Prussia without Polish inspection, but the trains are to be sealed before entering Poland, and must proceed through to East Prussia without stopping. Ordinary trains are to be subjected to customs and passport regulations at the frontier. . . . [By February 1] the



POLAND, DECEMBER, 1920
(Drawn by H. Arcetowski)

Poles were encouraged by news from Paris that Germany had agreed before the Polish-German Commission to return to Poland 1,000 locomotives and 100,000 freight and passenger cars which the Germans took when Posen and other former German districts were incorporated with re-established Poland."—*Poland on a firmer footing* (*New York Times Current History*, Mar., 1921).—Polish and Rumanian delegates met at Bucharest on March 3, 1921, to draw up a treaty for the defense of their boundaries. By this agreement, which was ratified by the Polish diet on July 1, each of the two contracting nations pledged itself to come to the aid of the other in case of any attack from a third nation on its eastern frontier. Though not specifically stated, this alliance was directed against the possibility of any sudden onslaught from Bolshevik Russia, on the one hand, and from Bulgaria, on the other. (See also RUMANIA: 1920-1921.) The first payment "from the Russian Soviet Government under the Riga Peace Treaty signed in March [1921, was received in December]. The payment was in the form of gold and jewels to the value of 50,000,000,000 Polish marks, . . . [and] gave Poland its first substantial gold reserve. . . . Polish foreign trade (in 1921) improved month by month. Trade with the Ukraine became active, and a special commission composed of Polish economic leaders was formed in Warsaw for the double purpose of developing trade relations between Poland and Soviet Russia and improving the transportation conditions between them. . . . The political and economic treaty concluded by Poland with Czecho-Slovakia (Nov. 7) was communicated to the League of Nations toward the middle of December. Under this treaty, all future disputes are to be settled by compulsory arbitration under an appeal to the Permanent Court of International Justice recently set up by the League. . . . The inter-allied commission for the division of former German property in Danzig . . . assigned virtually all the material of the arms factories to Poland. . . . The Free City [of Danzig gave] . . . all Germans one year in which to exercise their option of citizenship under the Danzig-German Treaty, which Poland refused to ratify."—*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1922, p. 873.

1921.—Upper Silesian complication.—German plebiscite victory.—Polish invasion of Silesia by Korfanty.—Danzig question.—Repatriates.—"It was expected by the allied Premiers that the plebiscite held in Upper Silesia under the auspices of the League of Nations in March would bring a solution to the vexed problem of apportioning this rich mining territory between Germany and Poland. The returns from the plebiscite showed that although the district, in general, had voted to remain with Germany, the richest coal-mining areas of the Southeast had elected to unite with Poland. This complicated the situation, the Germans at once demanding, on the ground of the general result, that all Upper Silesia be allotted to them, the Poles insisting that the districts which had voted for Poland be incorporated in the Polish boundaries. The granting of this demand, however, meant to Germany that she had lost rather than won the plebiscite, inasmuch as she especially desired to gain possession of the coal fields. While the Plebiscite Commission was still considering in Paris the most equitable policy of reconciling the vote in full justice to both parties, the whole situation was thrown into confusion by the irruption across the Polish frontier into Silesia of a large Polish force, directed by Adalbert Kor-

fanty, who had but recently given up his post as Polish High Commissioner of the Plebiscite. This force, estimated at 50,000 men, was highly organized, and possessed machine guns, bombs, firethrowers and even airplanes. The allied forces, outnumbered and outthought, retreated, and the Polish adventurers, acting on the conviction that the Allies intended to give the mining districts to Germany, moved forward and occupied the whole of the mining area, even spreading toward the North."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1921, p. 389.—It was the "intention of the Poles to gain absolute possession of Upper Silesia before the ratification of the Peace Treaty. The elections which took place in November, 1919, resulted in a sweeping victory for the Poles; on the basis of this result, the Polish Government asked the Supreme Council to accept this as decisive, without the holding of a plebiscite. This solution the allied Ministers rejected. It was decided on Nov. 4 that the Chairmanship of the Interallied Plebiscite Commission should be given to France, and General Lerond was ultimately appointed to this post. The Commission, including the British and Italian members, reached Upper Silesia on Feb. 12. . . . The Commission took over all the German and Prussian powers, and issued a proclamation declaring its firm intention to maintain peace and order and to insure a free vote upon both sides. . . . The date of the plebiscite, long deferred, was at first fixed for March 20. Mutual complaints from both elements against the acts and attitude of others drew from the Council of Ambassadors on March 18 an official note to both Governments, reminding them that the task of keeping order in Upper Silesia during the plebiscite period was solely the affair of the Interallied Commission, and that any intervention by troops of either side would be undertaken at the responsibility of the offending party. The plebiscite occurred at the date set, and was attended with no disorders, though the Poles bitterly complained that the Germans, availing themselves of the allied sanction, had imported fully 200,000 Germans from Germany and from all corners of the earth on the ground that they had been born in Silesia and had the right to participate in the vote. The result, as Germany expected, was a victory for the Germans. Fully two-thirds of the district had elected to remain with Germany. The area on the Polish border, however, including most of the coal mines, cast an estimated vote of 53 per cent. for Poland, notwithstanding the German vote given by the towns. . . . Early in May, while the decision was still pending, the Polish workmen who form the population of the mining districts of Rybnik and Pless, misled by a false announcement, . . . that the Allies had decided to give these as well as other coal-mining districts to Germany, declared a general strike. This was followed by news that lawless Polish bands had appeared and were terrorizing the country. These uprisings had resulted in fighting between the French and the Polish rebels at Beuthen, Kattowitz and Tarnowitz. The conflagration spread, and on May 4 came the news that organized Polish forces numbering many thousands had occupied all of Upper Silesia south of a line running from Kosel to Tarnowitz, with the exception of a few large towns, and were moving further northward. Colonel Bond, the British control officer at Gross Strehlitz, opened fire on some 3,000 Polish insurgents who were striving to take the city. Italian troops at Rybnik were surrounded, but were putting up a spirited fight against superior numbers.

The fighting continued for four days, during which the allied forces, numbering about 15,000, found themselves impotent to stem the tide, and the Polish rebels, directed by Korfanty in person, attained all their objectives. Korfanty, who, the Germans declared, had been preparing this coup for months, at once set up a government of his own, and issued proclamations defending the movement, and stating that he had taken over full power as Governor. . . . Though both the Inter-allied Commission and the Council of Ambassadors issued statements assuring the Polish elements that no decision of any kind had been reached, the situation remained disquieting in the extreme. . . . At this date it developed that the German Government on May 5 had sent an identical note to Paris, London and Rome charging that the Polish hands were committing wholesale murder and other atrocities, that the allied powers were responsible for maintaining order, and demanding that more allied troops be sent to control the situation. It then made a formal offer to aid the Allies in this task by sending its own troops, composed of German Reichswehr. To this suggestion the French Government returned a categorical refusal. Premier Lloyd George, speaking before the House of Commons on May 13, declared that the situation created by the Korfanty coup was menacing in the extreme. He declared for fair play for Germany, even to the point of allowing her to offer armed resistance if the Poles insisted on defying the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles and the plebiscite held under it. He censured the Polish Government bitterly for not restraining Korfanty and his 'insurgents,' and declared that the Polish population under Korfanty had tried to rush the allied decision and to confront the Supreme Council with a *fait accompli*. Upper Silesia, as a matter of fact, he declared, had not been Polish for 600 years, and the Polish claim was based wholly upon the mining population. This speech created a commotion in Paris and greatly disturbed the French Premier [M. Briand], who in a public interview outlined the French position. France, he implied, was taking no orders from any other power regarding her policy. He defended Poland, saying that she had fulfilled her duty and had closed her frontier to prevent further Polish recruits from joining the insurgents. He also asserted that France had likewise done her full duty, and registered a formal protest against Lloyd George's statements."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1921, pp. 389-391.—On November 18 "the Danzig problem was definitely settled. . . . At the request of the Council of Ambassadors, measures were taken by both Poles and Germans to avoid demonstrations on Nov. 15, the day when the Constitution was declared. Meanwhile the joint discussions interrupted in Paris, were resumed in Warsaw and rapid progress toward an agreement was made. The joint commission finally drew up a new convention. It modified the former agreement, which the Poles had refused to sign, in a manner satisfactory to both sides. The convention was signed in Paris by M. Paderewski—acting for Poland—on Nov. 18; it had already been signed by the representatives from Danzig. The Council of Ambassadors decided to appoint a commission, composed of British, French and Italian delegates, to divide between Poland and Danzig—in conformity with Article 107 of the Versailles Treaty—the German property in the free city. The Constituent Assembly of Danzig on Dec. 7 proclaimed itself the Parliament of the free city under the title of

'Folkstag,' with powers to enact legislation until 1923."—*Cementing the Russo-Polish peace* (*New York Times Current History*, Jan., 1921, p. 80.)—See also SILESIA: 1919-1921.—The number of Polish refugees from Russia who arrived daily at Baranowicze after the signing of the Riga treaty was estimated in December, 1921, to be 6,000. They continued to pour over the frontier all the next year, and "when one pictures hundreds of thousands of repatriates swarming across the Russian frontier in Poland, for the most part from the famine-stricken areas of Russia, it should not be hard to understand their lot. They returned with no money, weak from hunger and disease, to find their homes destroyed and their lands a waste. . . . Up to June 1, 1922, about 1,000,000 repatriates . . . [had come] to Poland before the Riga treaty and 491,649 after it. From 25 to 30 per cent. are children under 15 years of age. . . . Practically all the repatriates are Polish citizens."—P. S. Baldwin, *Poland's refugee problem* (*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1922).

1921.—Support of the United States refused in Silesian controversy. See U.S.A.: 1921 (May): Hughes rejects Polish appeal.

1921.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Modern: Political map of Europe.

1921.—Distribution of Poles in the Balkans. See BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities.

1921.—Represented at Portorosa conference. See PORTOROSA CONFERENCE (1921).

1921.—Result of 1920 agricultural reform program.—In 1920 a "far-reaching program of agricultural reform was drawn up at a meeting of representatives of Polish agricultural organizations held in Warsaw under the auspices of the Minister of Agriculture. The meeting was opened on September 20th [1920] by Mr. Witos, President of the Cabinet. . . . After two sessions an agreement was reached on questions of a financial nature affecting the future of agriculture, and a number of definite measures were recommended to the government. It was agreed that all the economic policies of the state should be adapted to the demands of agricultural production. . . . For the reconstruction of agriculture the labor supply was declared to be sufficient. There was reported, however, a lack of capital, and it was urged that expenditures be restricted to those aims which assure the most certain speedy results in agriculture. . . . In constructing plans for the increase of production in the whole of Poland, it was recommended that a special commission of experts should supervise the division of the country into agricultural districts based on differences of natural and economic conditions. . . . A special sitting was devoted to the matter of the cultivation of ground lying fallow, and the maintenance of the existing productive standard."—M. P. Ewen, *Agricultural reform in Poland* (*Journal of American-Polish Chamber of Commerce and Industry*, Nov., 1920).—"As agriculture is the most important industry in Poland, approximately two-thirds of the agricultural population being engaged in it, its improvement is of basic importance for the general betterment of economic conditions. Before the war the territories now united in the Polish State produced a surplus of food, exporting particularly large quantities of potatoes, potato alcohol, and sugar, chiefly to Germany. The World War resulted in a great reduction of agricultural output. Extensive areas were devastated, the number of work animals was

reduced, and the country was almost entirely deprived of artificial fertilizers, which had formerly been used very extensively in Prussian Poland and to some extent in other parts of the country. The requisitions by the German and Austrian armies tended to discourage production. These conditions resulted in a serious food shortage in Poland and necessitated the importation of large quantities of breadstuffs during the first three years of the existence of the new Polish State. The war with the Bolsheviks hindered the restoration of agriculture. . . . During 1919 and the first half of 1920 the grain imports were largely furnished on credits from the United States Government. The acreage planted for the crop of 1920 showed a considerable increase over the two preceding years; but the Bolshevik invasion, which occurred just about the time of harvest and covered more than one-third of the area of Poland, materially reduced the output. . . . The grain crop which . . . [was] harvested in Poland . . . [in 1921 was] decidedly larger than that of 1920. The area planted, according to official statistics, was about 10 per cent greater than [1921].”—E. D. Durand, *Survey of economic conditions in Poland* (*Journal of American-Polish Chamber of Commerce and Industry*, Oct., 1921).

1922.—Polish-Danzig convention.—Internal affairs.—Occupation of Upper Silesia.—New constitution.—In October, 1921, an agreement was reached with the free city of Danzig, which provided for a customs union. The convention was ratified on January 11, 1922, and went into effect immediately. “This executive Treaty is the true Polish-Danzig Convention, for it alone determines the means of executing the Treaty of Versailles. . . . [See above: 1919 (June).] The most important financial provisions of the Treaty are the creation of a Money Exchange in Danzig, the agreement with regard to establishing a Polish State Bank in Danzig, and, most important of all, an equalization of Polish marks with the Danzig currency within the confines of the Free City of Danzig in all liabilities incurred in Polish marks. For the time being Danzig . . . [retained] the German currency. [Under the treaty customs frontiers between Poland and Danzig were abolished in April 1922.] . . . From the moment that the customs frontiers were abolished, the Polish Customs tariff and regulations, as applied by the Danzig Customs Board under the control of Polish authorities . . . [became] valid. Nevertheless, if the Free City of Danzig does not concur in certain import and export restrictions that Poland imposes in joint relations with a foreign country, Danzig has the right to inform Poland, within 20 days, of the quantity of goods she deems it necessary to import within the confines of the Free City of Danzig or to export across its frontiers in order to supply the needs of its own inhabitants, industry, agriculture or trade. Poland . . . [must] acknowledge the validity of such a statement.”—*Latest Polish international treaties* (*Polish Economic Bulletin*, v. 3, no. 1, Jan., 1922, pp. 5-6).—“Under the treaty of Versailles the ancient city of Danzig was constituted a Free State. She was to be independent henceforth both of her former mistress Germany and, to a lesser degree, of Poland, to fly her own flag, and to regulate her internal affairs in accordance with the terms of a constitution approved by the League of Nations. A British Commissioner, moreover, was to take up his residence within her walls to superintend the working of the new administration as well as to act as a connecting link between . . . the Dan-

zig Senate, the Government of the Polish Republic, and Geneva. . . . Economically, Danzig has become a part of Poland. Her customs certificates are printed in both German and Polish. German goods . . . are subject to import duty. . . . [Poland] . . . represents the Free City abroad, her own interests are . . . safeguarded in the new Danzig constitution, the port of Danzig is to be at her disposal (on certain conditions), she . . . nominates one half of the ‘harbour commissioners’ (Hafenausschuss) . . . as well as . . . shares the control of the railway and transport services with the Danzig Senate. . . . Leaving out of consideration affairs of this minor character there remain several issues deserving of fuller treatment. One of these concerns the control of the railway and transport facilities centred in and serving the Free State. Under the terms of the Peace Treaty these are . . . equally divided between Danzig and Poland. An arrangement has accordingly been sanctioned by the High Commissioner under which the main lines, including the stations belonging thereto, i.e., the bulk of the long-distance traffic, are to be administered by Poland while the local lines known as the Kleinbahn and the electric tramways service fall to the Free City.”—M. F. Liddell, *Danzig in 1922* (*Contemporary Review*, Dec., 1922).—See also DANZIG: 1920.—George Michalski “consented to take over the management of the finances of Poland as Minister of Finance on conditions which gave him an arbitrary power probably never before possessed by a Minister of Finance; in fact . . . he was the nearest approach to a dictator . . . extant in Europe outside of Russia. Dr. Michalski’s powers . . . [were] conferred on him by the Polish Diet, and the progress which he . . . made toward withdrawing Poland’s huge issue of paper currency and creating new taxes . . . [was] amazing. He . . . accomplished what the best-informed experts declared to be impossible. He . . . [wrote] and obtained the passage of laws imposing huge taxes on capital, and, what is more, he . . . collected these taxes. He . . . reduced Government bureaus and the number of employees in the remaining bureaus. Under his direction an inventory of the resources of the country . . . [was] undertaken, and committees of bankers, manufacturers, merchants and agriculturists in the provinces, cities and hamlets . . . coöperated in reducing national expenditures. . . . The Diet, at his request, . . . passed legislation which placed in his hands full control of all national expenditures and of Government bureaus and their functions. He had the power of veto over all appropriation measures, and in his hands rested full responsibility for the imposition and collection of taxes.”—F. E. Ackerman, *Poland’s financial dictator* (*New York Times Current History*, Apr., 1922, pp. 53-54).—“Polish troops . . . completed their occupation of the second and third zones of Upper Silesia by June 24, [1922] including Beuthen and Gleiwitz. The transfer of authority . . . [was] affected without disorders. The Polish Government on July 4 pledged itself to return to the United States all Polish-Americans of General Haller’s army still remaining in Poland. These men were recruited in the United States, took part in the World War, and later fought in the Polish campaigns against Russia.”—*Poland’s new cabinet crisis* (*New York Times Current History*, Aug., 1922).—“The union of Upper Silesia in the second half of June, 1922, within the Polish customs boundaries . . . had a deciding influence on the figures relating to Poland’s foreign trade. . . . Instead of being a coun-

try importing coal, the union of Upper Silesia . . . brought an entire change in this respect and Poland now . . . [in 1922 exported] this commodity, besides exporting petroleum, cotton, woolen textures, and metal goods."—*Polish Economic Bulletin*, Jan., 1923.—"The Constitution, although adopted in May, 1921, was not put completely into effect until the following year. Before the Government contemplated in the Constitution could be installed, it was necessary to erect an administrative system for the selection of representatives to the bi-cameral legislature created in the Constitution. This Legislature under the Constitution was to elect the President, who in turn was to select the cabinet. The Electoral Law was enacted in July, 1922, and the Constituent Assembly gave way, on November 27th, to the first regular constitutional Polish Parliament. With the election of the first President in due form, a few days later, Poland seemed on the eve of achieving a normal parliamentary government. But before the new President, Gabriel Narutowicz, could form a parliamentary cabinet, he was shot down by an irresponsible maniac. At this time, when there was naturally a fear of political excitement and national strain, the acting President, Rataj, Speaker of the Chamber, felt it advisable, pending the regular election of a second President, to call to the Premiership General Sikorski, Chief of the Polish General Staff. . . . Poland proceeded in orderly fashion to follow the method prescribed in the Constitution for the election of its second President. The National Assembly (the two chambers sitting as one) elected Stanislaw Wojciechowski as the successor of the martyred Narutowicz. The reasons which had dictated the temporary placing of power in the hands of General Sikorski still seemed to prevail as the new President took office within a week of the assassination of his predecessor. The Sikorski Cabinet was asked to retain the executive reins. . . . To understand Polish political developments [at this time], it must be borne in the mind that the 444 members of the Chamber of Deputies are divided into nearly a score of parties which in turn [1922] are grouped into three main divisions. Roughly, the parties of the Right count 163 members; those of the Left, 185; while the seven non-Polish (Jews, Germans, etc.) parties form a national minority bloc totaling 88 members. Of these three large groups the Right is by far the most homogeneous. . . . For five months, therefore, the Sikorski Cabinet continued in power as an extra-parliamentary government, holding over from the crisis attendant upon the assassination of President Narutowicz and the transition to a Constitutional Government. From December on, the Right Bloc consistently opposed the Sikorski Government as a gesture of its own ambition to form a cabinet. In the alignments after debates on particular government bills, the Sikorski Cabinet was sustained in general by the Left and by all of the minority racial clubs except the Jews. . . . Ever since the first sessions of the Constituent Assembly in 1919, politicians had been searching for a parliamentary combination which would give a stable majority on which a cabinet might rest. . . . During May the efforts of the Right Bloc to ally with itself the Polish Populist Party headed by Witos, former coalition premier, were successful. The Witos Party, representing the more prosperous peasants, should really be classified as a Center Party. . . . Without Witos the Right was helpless to form a government, a fact which the peasant leader, with the experience of more than a year of premiership

behind him, was naturally quick to capitalize by attaining for himself the headship of the new Cabinet. . . . The Witos Ministry, therefore, resting upon parliamentary support of the three parties of the Right (163), the Polish Populist Party less than 13 seceding members under Dombiski (56), and the National Workers Party (18), may be considered as a Right Center Government. . . . Perhaps it was inevitable that the non-Polish representatives should organize in the Diet entirely on racial lines, but . . . [having done so they could] hardly expect to be asked to help form a base for a Polish cabinet. It would not help the status of national minorities in Poland to have their parliamentary clubs holding the balance of power between two main Polish groups. If the racial minorities have a right to representation, the right of the great Polish majority to control the Polish government is beyond question."—W. J. Kelley, *Poland entering upon normal parliamentary life* (Poland, July, 1923).—"After several stormy months of struggle the government of M. Witos resigned on September 9, 1921. . . . The new ministry, headed by M. Ponikowski, Director of the Warsaw Polytechnical College, was as follows: Foreign Affairs, M. Skirmunt; Finance, M. Michalski; Transportation, M. Sikorski; Public Works, M. Narutowicz; War, M. Sosnkowski; Commerce and Industry, M. Strasburger; Agriculture, M. Raczynski; Posts and Telegraphs, M. Steslowicz; Health, M. Chodsko; Justice, M. Sobolewski; Provisions, M. Wyczolkowski; Internal Affairs, M. Downarowicz; Public Welfare, M. Darowski; German Poland, Dr. Trzcinski. The new government made excellent progress in stabilizing the economic conditions of the country and its withdrawal, in connection with the Vilna episode, proved to be only temporary, all the former ministers being recalled with three exceptions: M. Zagorny-Marynowski became Minister of Transportation; M. Ossowski, Minister of Commerce and Industry, and M. Kamienski, Minister of Internal Affairs. Serious differences of opinion within the cabinet itself over the question of procedure to be adopted in forthcoming elections for a new and regular parliament, together with the feeling that it had completed its task in the field of international affairs, led to the resignation of the Ponikowski government on June 6. It was succeeded on June 29 by a new government headed by Arthur Sliwinski."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, Supplement, pp. 112, 113, 114.

1922.—Relief work among Jews. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: Jewish relief.

1922.—Represented at Genoa conference. See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).

1922-1923.—Reconstruction of industries.—Financial situation in 1922.—Recognition of northern and eastern frontiers.—Budget for 1923.—Change of ministry.—"The Armistice found Polish industry flat on its back, its transportation system disorganized and many railway bridges destroyed, its supply of live-stock depleted. . . . The country is primarily agricultural. It is therefore remarkable that [reports in 1922 showed] . . . that practically 100 per cent. of the pre-war acreage . . . [had] been restored to cultivation. The coal production . . . [was] well over 80 per cent. of pre-war production, and the Poles . . . [had] undertaken with energy and success the operation of the Upper Silesian district given to them by the Peace Treaty . . . [and were] amalgamating some of the German-owned enterprises in the district with related Polish industries. The Peace Treaty also gave Poland some of the rich salt

mines of Galicia which were formerly in Austrian territory. The salt production in 1922 was apparently 160 per cent. of that before the war, and aggregated nearly 300,000 tons. . . . At the end of 1922 [Poland was not only self-sufficing; but was exporting food stuffs]. . . . The weakness in the present situation is that hitherto, in the face of the staggering burdens and enormous obstacles it had to face, the Polish Government has failed to cope with the financial situation. The present government has apparently decided to face the music, and has already outlined a fiscal program which promises to balance the budget in six years and establish a sound and extensive system of taxation. The process will no doubt be painful, and its success or failure will have a very great influence on Poland's future development."—B. Miles, *Revival of Poland (Poland, July, 1923)*.—The production of crude oil in Poland during the year 1922 exceeded 700,000 tons, or approximately 5,000,000 barrels. In 1921, 704,874 tons had been produced, representing 63.3 per cent. of the 1913, or last normal pre-war year, production. In the eastern part of the country which had been crossed and recrossed ten times by the imperial Russian army, Germans, Poles and the Bolshevik Russian army, over 7,000 bridges and culverts had been destroyed. Of these over forty per cent. had been replaced by the close of 1922. "The cotton industry, centered at Lodz and Bielsk, is the most important branch of the Polish textile industry. . . . War operations, which took place on the territory of former Russian Poland, naturally suspended the activity of textile plants, but it was not until the occupational period under German troops that the situation became almost desperate. Through requisitions and expropriations carried out in a systematic way, the forces of occupation succeeded in carrying away every stock of raw material as well as a large part of the technical and mechanical equipment. Much of the machinery was crippled through the removal of copper parts. . . . Every attempt made since the war, aiming to reconstruct Poland's textile industry and to restore it to normal production, was bound to be confronted with immense difficulties. . . . State assistance became indispensable owing to the inability of the manufacturers to effect large purchases abroad. . . . Stocks of raw cotton were soon acquired by the Government, and on May 9, 1919, the Diet voted a law providing for a 20 million mark State guarantee to cover the purchase of raw materials and technical equipment to re-start operation. This, and other energetic moves intended to rehabilitate this practically ruined branch of the Polish industry, resulted towards the end of 1919, in the operation of 34 per cent. of the total number of the country's cotton spindles, of 20.5 per cent. of the looms; and in the employment of 25.4 per cent. of the pre-war force of cotton mill workers. . . . [In April, 1922, 87 per cent. of the pre-war workers were employed. . . . According to reports in 1922 wool spinners were operating 48 per cent. of the pre-war spindling, and weavers were operating 31 per cent. of the pre-war number of looms.]"—P. L. Tallac, *Polish textile industry (Poland, Jan., 1923)*.—According to a report issued by the Department of Reconstruction of the Ministry of Public Works in Warsaw for 1922, 52.7 per cent. of the houses destroyed during the war had been rebuilt, in spite of the lack of capital which retarded the progress of reconstruction. During the years 1919-1921, 674,037 buildings were rebuilt (46.3 per cent. of the total destroyed), and by the end of 1922 the total

was 881,660. "(The Government finances of Poland during the first half of 1922 showed a great improvement over the preceding year, but this was due chiefly to the collection of an extraordinary tax. The deficit rose to large proportions throughout the second half of the year, necessitating great issues of paper currency, with consequent great decline in the exchange value and the purchasing power of the Polish mark.) . . . The ordinary receipts in 1921 . . . amounted to 71,048,000,000 Polish marks, or 31 per cent of the expenditures. For the first six months of 1922 they amounted to 191,458,000,000 marks, while for the first six months of 1922 it fell to 70,343,000,000. . . . This decided improvement in the budget situation was due chiefly to the collection of the extraordinary direct taxes known as the 'budget balancing contribution.' Of the total receipts from all sources (191,458,000,000 marks) about three-fourths (146,864,000,000) were from taxes, and of these taxes two-fifths (58,473,000,000) were from the extraordinary contribution. However, there was also a considerable increase in the revenues from indirect taxes and monopolies. The revenue from these sources during 1921 had been 41,386,000,000 marks, while during the first six months of 1922 it amounted to 67,781,000,000—or, after allowing for the decline in the value of the currency, a sum equal to about four-fifths of that for the 12 months preceding. . . . The Polish financial situation during the latter six months of 1922 was extremely unsatisfactory. Internal political conditions prevented the passage of needed tax legislation. The extraordinary contribution had been once-for-all levy, with no provision for repetition. While about 80 per cent of the entire sum expected from this source was actually collected, the bulk of the collections had fallen during the first half year."—E. D. Durand, *Eastern Europe and Levant (United States Weekly Commerce Reports, Feb. 26, 1923, no. 9, pp. 575-576)*.—In March, 1922, official recognition was made "by the Great Powers of the . . . [existing] northern and eastern frontiers of Poland, resulting in the final inclusion of Wilno and Eastern Galicia within the Republic's boundaries. [See LITHUANIA: 1920-1922.] . . . In the meantime the Polish Government had sent to the Council of Ambassadors a note requesting official recognition, on the part of the Great Powers, of the actual frontiers of Poland in the north and the east. Following the dispatch of the note, the Allied Ministers in Warsaw declared to the Polish Minister of Foreign Affairs that the Council of Ambassadors at its meeting, on February 21st, had examined the question of the recognition of Poland's frontiers, both between Poland and Lithuania and between Poland and Russia. The Council had also taken up the matter with the various Allied Governments. On March 14th, the Council of Ambassadors finally rendered its decision, in the name of the Allied Powers, formally recognizing the borders as already laid down. This includes the boundary between Poland and Russia as originally fixed by the Treaty of Riga with Soviet Russia, signed in 1921. As to the line between Poland and Lithuania, drawn by the League of Nations on February 2, which definitely placed Wilno in Poland, it also received the Ambassadors' approval [and this officially ended one of the most bitter feuds which had disturbed eastern Europe]. . . . Much satisfaction was evinced by the Polish people when it was, at last, announced that those two irritating problems had finally been settled. The approval of the Ambassadors' Council of the . . . [existing] Polish-

Russian boundary means that Eastern Galicia is definitely awarded to Poland."—*Recent administrative and political developments in Poland* (Poland, Apr., 1923).—"Mr. Grabski, the . . . Minister of Finance early in March [1923] introduced into the Polish Diet measures looking to a general reorganization of the budget and ultimate balancing of it, which it . . . [was] aimed to achieve in the course of three years. . . . The State budget . . . [was] to be divided into an administrative budget and a series of budgets for Government enterprises and monopolies. For the years 1924 and 1925 the ordinary expenditures in the administrative budget . . . [was not to] exceed 90 per cent. of the sums voted for 1923, except in the case of elementary school expenditures. . . . For the purpose of assuring that the income of the Treasury . . . [should] not shrink as a consequence of a fall in the value of Polish currency a nominal gold unit . . . [was to be] used as a standard of expenditures and receipts—this to be known as the 'zloty,' equivalent to the Swiss franc (19.3c). . . . One of the most important proposals . . . [was that government enterprises and monopolies must operate on separate budgets as independent business entities, paying their own way; that each of them be required to produce a fixed standard amount of clear income, which it was expected] to turn into the State Treasury during each of the three years. . . . The project . . . [provided] for an increase of direct and indirect taxes and charges for Government services to the pre-war level. As an important means of balancing the budget, the general State property tax commonly called 'capital levy,' [was] to be renewed. A tax of this character was collected during 1922, but without provision for continuance. In order to make sure that this tax [should] produce the required sum, it . . . [was] not fixed as a percentage on the value of property but as a specified sum—totaling 600,000,000 zloties [to be collected] in three years."—*Polish economic conditions in March, 1923* (Poland, June, 1923).—"The re-grouping of parties in the Polish Parliament resulted, on May 27, [1923] in the resignation of Premier Sikorski and of his cabinet. The new cabinet officially formed under the premiership of Vincent Witos, on May 29, again included Ladislas Grabski, as Minister of Finance. It was announced that his budget-balancing programme would be carried out.—See also BALANCE OF POWER; Modern application; EDUCATION; AGRICULTURE: Poland; FLAGS: Poland; GALICIA; JEWS: Poland; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 36; PHILOLOGY: 21; PRESIDENT: Comparative: SLAVS. ALSO IN: J. C. Welliver, *Poland's story* (Century Magazine, May, 1915).—N. O. Winter, *Poland of to-day and yesterday*.—W. A. Phillips, *Poland*.—F. E. Whitton, *History of Poland*.

POLAND, Constitution of.—"The new Polish constitution was adopted in its final form on March 17, 1921, after the Constituent Assembly had been sitting with intervals for two years. The document which sets up the framework of the government for the new Republic embodies most of the liberal features of western European and American constitutions while at the same time steering clear of all taint of bolshevism or communism. The Constitution declares that Poland is a Republic and that the sovereign power belongs to the nation of which the organs are, in legislation, the Sejm (Assembly), and the Senate; in matters of executive power, the President and the Ministers; and in the administration of justice, the courts. The Sejm is elected on the basis of proportional representation by universal suffrage,

and the Senate mainly by electors of thirty years or more. *President Not Elected by Regular Vote:* The President is elected by the National Assembly for seven years by both houses in joint sessions and subject to their impeachment. The government is conducted by Ministers responsible to the legislature, but appointed by the President. Although sovereign power rests in the national government a large degree of local self-government is provided for. The independence of the judiciary is safeguarded although they are not permitted to pass on the legality of statutes. *Extensive Bill of Rights:* The bill of rights follows that of other western nations. Freedom of conscience is granted and the rights of the racial, religious, and linguistic minorities are assured. Foreigners in Poland enjoy on condition of reciprocity rights equal to those of citizens of the Polish state. *Private Property Protected:* On the subject of property the constitution declares that Poland recognizes all property as one of the most important bases of social organization and guarantees to all citizens protection to their property, permitting only in case provided by law the abolition and limitation of property for reasons of general welfare in which case the owners must be compensated. The regulation of the exploitation of the natural resources of the country is left for statutes to determine. Other clauses of special interest are Article 118, which makes elementary instruction of children compulsory; Article 105, which guarantees freedom of the press and forbids the closing of the mails to newspapers or printed matter, and Article 96 in which titles of nobility and coats of arms are deprived of recognition by the state."—*Poland adopts new constitution* (Journal of American-Polish Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Apr., 1921).

The following is the text of the constitution:

Prologue

In the name of Almighty God!

We, the Polish Nation, thankful to Providence for freeing us from a servitude of a century and a half; remembering gratefully the courage and steadfastness of the self-sacrificing struggle of generations which have unceasingly devoted their best efforts to the cause of independence; taking up the glorious tradition of the memorable Constitution of the Third of May; having in mind the weal of our whole united and independent mother-country, and desiring to establish her independent existence, power, safety and social order on the eternal principles of right and liberty; desirous also of ensuring the development of all her moral and material forces for the good of the whole of renescent humanity, and of securing to all citizens of the republic, equality, and to Labor, respect, due rights and the special protection of the State—do enact and establish in the Legislative Sejm [Diet or Assembly] of the Republic of Poland, this constitutional law.

Section I.—The Republic

Article 1.—The Polish State is a republic.

Art. 2.—Sovereignty in the Republic of Poland belongs to the nation. The legislative organs of the nation are: in the domain of legislation, the Sejm and the Senate; in the domain of executive power, the President of the republic, jointly with the responsible Ministers; in the domain of the administration of justice, independent courts.

Section II.—Legislative Power

Art. 3—The domain of State legislation comprises the establishment of all public and private laws and the manner of their execution.

There can be no statute without the consent of the Sejm, expressed in a manner conforming to standing orders.

A statute voted by the Sejm comes into force at the time determined in the statute itself.

The Republic of Poland, basing its organization on the principle of broad territorial self-government, will delegate to the bodies representing this self-government the proper domain of legislation, especially in administrative, cultural and economic fields, to be defined more fully by statutes of the State.

Ordinances by public authorities, from which result rights or duties of citizens, have binding force only if issued by the authority of a statute and with a specific reference to the same.

Art. 4—A statute of the State will determine annually the budget of the State for the ensuing year.

Art. 5—The establishment of the numerical strength of the army, and permission for the annual draft of recruits, can be determined only by statute.

Art. 6—The contracting of a State loan, the alienation, exchange or pledging of improvable property of the State, the imposition of taxes and public dues, the determination of customs duties and monopolies, the establishment of the monetary system and the taking over by the State of a financial guarantee can take place only by the authority of a statute.

Art. 7—The Government will present annually, for parliamentary consideration, the accounts of the State for the last year.

Art. 8—The manner of exercising parliamentary control over the debts of the State will be defined by a special statute.

Art. 9—The control of the whole State Administration as regards finances: the examination of the accounts of the State; the annual submission to the Sejm of its motion for the granting or refusing of its absolutism to the Government, are in the hands of the Supreme Board of Control, which is organized on the basis of collegiality and judicial independence of its members, the latter being removable only by a vote of the Sejm representing a majority of three-fifths of those actually voting. The organization of the Supreme Board of Control and its method of procedure will be defined in detail by a special statute.

The President of the Supreme Board of Control enjoys a position equal to that of a Minister, but is not a member of the Council of Ministers and is directly responsible to the Sejm for the exercise of his office and for the officials who are his subordinates.

Art. 10—Measures can originate either with the Government or with the Sejm. Motions and bills which involve expenditure from the State Treasury must state the manner of their raising and expenditure.

Art. 11—The Sejm is composed of deputies elected for a term of five years, to be counted from the day of the opening of the Sejm, by secret, direct, equal and proportional voting.

Art. 12—The right to vote belongs to every Polish citizen without distinction of sex, who, on the day of the proclamation of the elections, is 21 years of age, is in full possession of civil rights, and is a resident of the electoral district at least

from the day preceding the proclamation of the elections in the Journal of Laws. The right to vote can be exercised only in person. Members of the army in active service do not possess the right to vote.

Art. 13—Every citizen having the right to vote is eligible for election to the Sejm, independently of his place of residence, if he is at least 25 years of age, not excepting members of the army in active service.

Art. 14—Citizens convicted of offenses which the Law of Elections may define as involving temporary or permanent loss of the right to vote, eligibility, or of being a Deputy, may not enjoy the electoral right.

Art. 15—Administrative, revenue and judicial officials of the State may not be elected in the districts in which they are performing their official duties. This rule does not apply to officials employed in the Central Departments.

Art. 16—State and self-government employes obtain leaves of absence at the moment of being elected Deputies. This rule does not apply to Ministers, Under Secretaries of State and Professors in academic schools. The years spent in the exercise of the duties of a Deputy are considered as years of service.

Art. 17—A Deputy loses his seat on being appointed to a paid office of the State. This rule does not apply to appointment as Minister, Under Secretary of State or Professor in an academic school.

Art. 18—The Law of Elections will define the manner of electing Deputies to the Sejm.

Art. 19—The validity of unprotected elections is verified by the Sejm. The validity of protested elections is decided upon by the Supreme Court.

Art. 20—The Deputies are representatives of the whole nation and are not bound by any instructions given by the voters.

The Deputies make to the Marshal the following vow in the presence of the Chamber: "I do solemnly vow, as Deputy to the Sejm of the Republic of Poland, to work honestly, according to the best of my understanding and in conformity with my conscience, for the sole good of the Polish State as a whole."

Art. 21—Deputies cannot be made responsible, either during their term of office or after it has expired, for their activities in or out of the Sejm appertaining to the exercise of their office as Deputies. For their speeches, utterances and manifestations in the Sejm, Deputies are responsible only to the Sejm. For violation of the rights of a third person, they may be made to answer before a court of law, if the judicial authority obtains the consent of the Sejm thereto.

Criminal, penal-administrative or disciplinary proceedings instituted against a Deputy before his election may, at the demand of the Sejm, be suspended until the expiration of his term of office.

Prescription in criminal proceedings against a Deputy does not run while he retains his office. While he retains his office, a Deputy may not, without the permission of the Sejm, be made to answer before a criminal court, penal-administrative authority or a disciplinary court, or be deprived of his freedom. If a Deputy is caught in the act of committing a common felony, and if his arrest is necessary to insure the administration of justice, or to avert the consequences of the offense, the court is bound to notify immediately the Marshal of the Sejm in order to obtain the consent of the Sejm to his arrest and to further criminal

proceedings. Upon demand of the Marshal, the arrested Deputy must be liberated at once.

Art. 22—A Deputy may not, either in his own name or in the name of another, buy, or acquire the lease of any real property of the State, contract for public supplies or Government works, or obtain from the Government any concessions or other personal benefits.

A Deputy is also debarred from receiving from the Government any decorations other than military.

Art. 23—A deputy may not be the responsible editor of a periodical publication.

Art. 24—The Deputies receive compensation, the amount of which is determined by the standing orders, and are entitled to the free use of the State means of communication for traveling over the whole territory of the republic.

Art. 25—The President of the republic convokes, opens, adjourns and closes the Sejm and Senate. The Sejm must be convoked to assemble on the third Tuesday after election day, and every year, *at the latest in October*, to an ordinary session for the purpose of voting the budget, the numerical strength and recruiting of the army, and other current affairs.

The President of the republic may, at his own discretion, convoke the Sejm to an extraordinary session at any time, and is bound to do this within two weeks upon request of one-third of the total number of Deputies.

Other cases in which the Sejm assembles in extraordinary session are determined by this Constitution.

An adjournment requires the consent of the Sejm if a previous adjournment has taken place during the same ordinary session, or if the interruption is to last for more than thirty days.

The Sejm, when convoked in October for its ordinary session, may not be closed before the budget has been voted.

Art. 26—The Sejm may be dissolved by its own vote, passed by a majority of two-thirds of those voting. The President of the republic may dissolve the Sejm with the consent of three-fifths of the statutory number of members of the Senate in the presence of at least one-half of the total membership. In both cases the Senate is automatically dissolved at the same time.

Elections will take place within forty days from the date of dissolution, the precise date to be determined either in the resolution of the Sejm or in the message of the President, on the dissolution of the Sejm.

Art. 27—The Deputies exercise all their rights and duties in person.

Art. 28—The Sejm elects from among its members, the Marshal, his Deputies, the secretaries and committees.

The Marshal and his Deputies continue in office after the dissolution of the Sejm until the new Sejm shall have elected its officers.

Art. 29—The standing rules of the Sejm define the mode and order of the proceedings of the Sejm, the type and number of the committees, the number of Marshals and secretaries, the rights and duties of the Marshal. The employés of the Sejm are appointed by the Marshal, who is responsible to the Sejm for their actions.

Art. 30—The meetings of the Sejm are public. On the motion of the Marshal, of a Government representative, or of thirty Deputies, the Sejm may vote the secrecy of its meetings.

Art. 31—No one may be called to account for

a truthful report of an open meeting of the Sejm or a committee of the Sejm.

Art. 32—A vote is valid only when carried by an ordinary majority in the presence of at least one-third of the total statutory number of Deputies, in so far as provisions of this Constitution do not contain other rules.

Art. 33—The Deputies have the right of addressing interpellations to the Government or to individual Ministers, in the manner prescribed by the standing rules. A Minister is bound to answer, within six weeks, orally or in writing, or submit a statement wherein he justifies his failure to give an answer to the point. At the request of those addressing the interpellation, the answer must be communicated to the Sejm. The Sejm may make the answer the subject of debate and vote.

Art. 34—The Sejm may form and appoint, for the investigation of individual cases, extraordinary committees empowered to hear the interested parties, as well as to summon witnesses and experts. The competence and powers of such committees will be determined by the Sejm.

Art. 35—Every bill passed by the Sejm will be submitted to the Senate for consideration. If the Senate, within thirty days from the day on which a passed bill has been delivered to it, does not raise any objections to the bill, the President of the republic will direct the publication of the statute. Upon the motion of the Senate, the President of the republic may direct the publication of the statute before the lapse of the thirty days.

If the Senate decides to alter or reject a bill passed by the Sejm, it must announce this to the Sejm within the aforesaid thirty days, and must return the bill to the Sejm with the proposed changes within the following thirty days.

If the Sejm votes by an ordinary majority, or by a majority of eleven-twentieths of those voting, the changes proposed by the Senate, the President of the republic will direct the publication of the statute in the wording determined by the second vote of the Sejm.

Art. 36—The Senate is composed of members elected by the individual Voyevodships, by universal, secret, direct, equal and proportional voting. Every Voyevodship forms one constituency, and the number of Senators is equal to one-fourth of the number of members of the Sejm, in proportion to the number of inhabitants. The right of electing to the Senate is enjoyed by every elector for the Sejm who, on the day of the proclamation of the elections, is thirty years of age and has on that day been a resident of the electoral district for at least one year; the right of voting is not lost by newly settled colonists who have left their former place of residence, availing themselves of the agrarian reform; neither is that right lost by workmen who have changed their place of residence as a result of changing their place of occupation, or by State officials transferred by their superior authorities. Eligibility is enjoyed by every citizen who has the right of voting for the Senate, not excluding members of the army in active service, provided that citizen is 40 years of age on the day of the proclamation of the elections.

The term of the Senate begins and ends with the term of the Sejm.

No one may be at the same time a member of the Sejm and of the Senate.

Art. 37—The provisions contained in Articles 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32 and 33 have analogous application to the Senate and to its members, respectively.

Art. 38—No statute may be in opposition to this Constitution or violate its provisions.

Section III.—Executive Power

Art. 39—The President of the republic is elected for seven years by the absolute majority of the votes of the Sejm and the Senate united in National Assembly. The National Assembly is convoked by the President of the republic in the last three months of his seven years' term of office. If the convocation has not taken place thirty days before the end of the seven years' term, the Sejm and the Senate, upon the invitation of the Marshal of the Sejm and under his Chairmanship, unite automatically in National Assembly.

Art. 40—Should the President of the republic be unable to perform the duties of his office, or should the office of the President of the republic become vacant through death, resignation, or some other reason, the Marshal of the Sejm will act as his Deputy.

Art. 41—In case the office of the President of the republic becomes vacant, the Sejm and the Senate, upon the invitation of the Marshal of the Sejm and under his Chairmanship, at once unite automatically in a National Assembly for the purpose of electing a President.

Should the Sejm be dissolved at the moment when the office of President of the republic becomes vacant, the Marshal of the Sejm will direct without delay new elections to the Sejm and the Senate.

Art. 42—If the President of the republic does not perform the duties of his office for three months, the Marshal will without delay convoke the Sejm and submit to its decision the question whether the office of the President of the republic is to be declared vacant.

The decision to declare the office vacant is taken by a majority of three-fifths of the votes in the presence of at least one-half of the statutory number of Deputies; that is, the number prescribed by the Law of Elections.

Art. 43—The President of the republic exercises the executive power through Ministers responsible to the Sejm and through officials subordinated to the Ministers.

Every official of the republic must be subordinate to a Minister, who is responsible to the Sejm for the former's actions.

The President of the Council of Ministers countersigns the appointment of officials of the civil Cabinet of the President of the republic, and is responsible for their actions to the Sejm.

Art. 44—The President of the republic signs the statutes jointly with the competent Ministers, and directs the publication of the statutes in the Journal of the Laws of the republic.

The President of the republic has the right to issue, for the purpose of executing the statutes and with reference to the statutory authorization, executive ordinances, directions, orders and prohibitions, and to insure their execution by the use of force.

The Ministers and the authorities subordinate to them have the same right in their respective fields of jurisdiction.

Every governmental act of the President of the republic requires for its validity the signature of the President of the Council of Ministers and of the competent Minister, who, by countersigning the act, assume the responsibility therefor.

Art. 45—The President of the republic appoints and recalls the President of the Council of Min-

isters; on the latter's motion he appoints and recalls Ministers, and on the motion of the Council of Ministers makes appointments to the civil and military offices reserved by statutes.

Art. 46—The President of the republic is at the same time the supreme head of the armed forces of the State, but he may not exercise the chief command in time of war.

The Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces of the State, in case of war, is appointed by the President of the republic, on the motion of the Council of Ministers, presented by the Minister of Military Affairs, who is responsible to the Sejm for the acts connected with the command in time of war, as well as for all affairs of military direction.

Art. 47—The right to reprieve and to mitigate punishment, and to abolish the consequences of criminal conviction in individual cases, belongs to the President of the republic.

The President may not exercise this right in the case of Ministers convicted upon impeachment by the Sejm.

Amnesty may be granted only by statute.

Art. 48—The President of the republic, in foreign relations, receives diplomatic representatives of foreign States and sends diplomatic representatives of the Polish State to foreign States.

Art. 49—The President of the republic makes treaties with other States and brings them to the notice of the Sejm.

Commercial and customs treaties, as well as treaties which impose a permanent financial burden on the State, or contain legal rules binding on the citizens, or change the frontiers of the State, also alliances, require the consent of the Sejm.

Art. 50—The President of the republic may declare war and conclude peace only after obtaining the consent of the Sejm.

Art. 51—The President of the republic is not responsible either to Parliament or at civil law.

For betraying the country, violating the Constitution, or for criminal offenses, the President of the republic may be made responsible only by the Sejm by a vote of a majority of three-fifths in the presence of at least one-half of the statutory number of Deputies. The cause is heard and the sentence given by the Court of State, according to the rules of a special statute. Immediately upon his impeachment before the Court of State, the President of the republic is suspended from office.

Art. 52—The President of the republic receives a salary according to the rules of a special statute.

Art. 53—The President of the republic may not hold any other office or be a member of the Sejm or the Senate.

Art. 54—Before assuming office the President of the republic takes his oath in the National Assembly, in the following terms:

"I swear to Almighty God, One in the Holy Trinity, and I vow to Thee, Polish nation, that while holding the office of President of the republic I will keep and defend faithfully the laws of the republic and above all the constitutional law; that I will serve devotedly, with all my power, the general good of the nation; that I will avert, watchfully, from the State all evil and danger; that I will guard steadfastly the dignity of the name of Poland; that I will hold justice toward all citizens without distinction as the highest virtue; that I will devote myself undividedly to the duties of office and service. So help me God and the Holy Martyrdom of His Son. Amen."

Art. 55—The Ministers form the Council of

Ministers under the Chairmanship of the President of the Council of Ministers.

Art. 56—The Council of Ministers bears the joint constitutional and parliamentary responsibility for the general direction of the activities of the Government.

Apart from that, each Minister is individually responsible, in his domain, for his activities in office; that is, as well for their conformity with the Constitution and the other statutes of the State, and for the activities of the subordinate organs, as for the direction of his policies.

Art. 57—Within the same limits, the Ministers are jointly and individually responsible for the governmental acts of the President of the republic.

Art. 58—The parliamentary responsibility of the Ministers is enforced by the Sejm by an ordinary majority. The Council of Ministers or any individual Minister will resign at the request of the Sejm.

Art. 59—The constitutional responsibility of the Ministers and the way of its realization will be determined by a special statute.

The decision to impeach a Minister can be made only in the presence of at least one-half the statutory number of Deputies and by a majority of three-fifths of the votes cast.

The causes are heard and judgment is passed by the Court of State. A Minister cannot evade his constitutional responsibility by resigning his office. Immediately upon his impeachment, the Minister is suspended from office.

Art. 60—The Ministers and officials delegated by them, have the right to take part in the meetings of the Sejm, and to speak out of the turn of those figuring on the list of speakers; they may take part in the vote if they are Deputies.

Art. 61—The Ministers may not hold any other office or participate in the governing or controlling bodies of societies and institutions which work for profit.

Art. 62—Should the office of a Minister be held by a provisory head of the Ministry, he will be subject to all the rules concerning the office of a Minister.

The President of the Council of Ministers will, in case of need, appoint one of the Ministers his deputy.

Art. 63—A special statute will determine the number, competence, and mutual relation of the Ministers, as well as the competence of the Council of Ministers.

Art. 64—The Court of State is composed of the First President of the Supreme Court as Chairman, and of twelve members, eight of whom are elected by the Sejm and four by the Senate from outside their own membership.

To membership in the Court of State are eligible persons who do not hold any State office and are in full possession of civil rights.

The election of the members of the Court of State is carried out by the Sejm and the Senate immediately upon the election of their officers for the whole term of the Sejm.

Art. 65—For administrative purposes, the Polish State will be divided by statute into Vojevods, districts, and urban and rural communes, which will at the same time be the units of territorial self-government.

The units of self-government may combine into unions in order to accomplish tasks which belong to the domain of self-government.

Such unions may obtain the character of bodies of public law only by special statute.

Art. 66—The administration of the State will

be organized on the principle of decentralization, organs of State administration in the individual territorial units being, as far as possible, joined in one official body under one superior, and on the principle that within the limits determined by statutes, citizens elected for this purpose shall participate in the discharge of the duties of such official bodies.

Art. 67—The right of determining affairs belonging to the domain of self-government rests with elected councils. The executive functions of Vojevodship and district self-government rest with organs formed by adding to boards elected by representative bodies, representatives of State administrative authorities, under the Chairmanship of the latter.

Art. 68—A special statute will create, in addition to territorial self-government, economic self-government, for the individual fields of economic life—namely, Chambers of Agriculture, Commerce, Industry, Arts and Crafts, Hired Labor, and others, united into a Supreme Economic Council of the republic, the collaboration of which with State authorities, in directing economic life and in the field of legislative proposals, will be determined by statutes.

Art. 69—The sources of revenue of the State and of self-government organizations respectively will be strictly delimited by statutes.

Art. 70—The State will exercise supervision over self-government activities through superior self-government boards; such supervision may, however, be partially delegated by statute to administrative courts.

Statutes will determine the cases in which decisions of self-government organs may exceptionally require confirmation by superior self-government organs or by Ministries.

Art. 71—An appeal from decisions of State and self-government organs will be allowed only to one superior body, unless other provisions are made by statutes.

Art. 72—Statutes will put into effect the principle that from penal decisions of administrative authorities, made in the first instance, the parties concerned will have the right to appeal to the competent court.

Art. 73—For the purpose of passing upon the legality of administrative acts in the field of State, as well as of self-government administration, a special statute will create Administrative Courts, basing their organization on the co-operation of (lay) citizens and (professional) Judges, and culminating in a Supreme Administrative Court.

Section IV.—Judiciary

Art. 74—The courts administer justice in the name of the Republic of Poland.

Art. 75—The organization, jurisdiction and procedure of all courts will be defined by legislation.

Art. 76—The President of the republic appoints the Judges, unless a different provision is made by statute, but Justices of the Peace are as a rule elected by the population.

Judicial office is accessible only to persons who possess the qualifications required by law.

Art. 77—In the exercise of their judicial office, the Judges are independent and subject only to statutes.

Judicial decisions may not be changed either by the legislative power or by the Executive power.

Art. 78—A Judge may be removed from office, suspended from office, transferred to a different place of office, or pensioned, against his own will,

by judicial decision only, and only in cases provided by statute.

This rule does not apply in the case of the transfer of a Judge to a different place, or his pensioning owing to a change in the organization of the courts decided upon by statute.

Art. 79—Judges may not be criminally prosecuted or be deprived of their freedom without the previous consent of the court assigned by statute, unless they are caught in the act, but even in this last case the court may demand that the arrested Judge be freed without delay.

Art. 80—A special statute will define the peculiar position of the Judges, their rights and duties, as well as their compensation.

Art. 81—The courts have not the right to inquire into the validity of duly promulgated statutes.

Art. 82—The hearings before a determining court, as well in civil as in criminal cases, are public, except when statutes provide otherwise.

Art. 83—Courts with juries will be called upon to determine cases of felonies entailing more severe punishment, and cases of political offenses. Statutes will define in detail the jurisdiction of courts with juries, the organization of such courts, and their procedure.

Art. 84—A Supreme Court for judicial causes, civil and criminal, is hereby created.

Art. 85—Special statutes will define the organization of military courts, their jurisdiction, procedure, and the rights and duties of the members of such courts.

Art. 86—A special Competence Court [Tribunal of Conflicts] will be created by a statute to determine conflicts of jurisdiction between the administrative authorities and the courts.

Section V.—General Duties and Rights of Citizens

Art. 87—A Polish citizen may not be at the same time a citizen of another State.

Art. 88—Polish citizenship is acquired: (a) by birth if the parents are Polish citizens; (b) by naturalization granted by the competent State authority. Special statutes define other rules as to Polish citizenship, its acquisition and loss.

Art. 89—Fidelity to the Republic of Poland is the first duty of a citizen.

Art. 90—Every citizen has the duty of respecting and obeying the Constitution of the State and other valid laws and ordinances of the State and self-government authorities.

Art. 91—All citizens are subject to military service; the character and manner, order and term of service, exemption from such duty, and any duties, contributions or services for military purposes, will be defined by legislation.

Art. 92—It is the duty of all citizens to submit to any public burdens services and duties imposed by virtue of statute.

Art. 93—All citizens are bound to respect legitimate authority and to facilitate the performance of its duties, as well as to perform conscientiously public duties to which they may be appointed by the nation or the proper authority.

Art. 94—It is the duty of citizens to bring up their children as righteous citizens of the mother country, and to secure to them at least elementary education.

This duty will be defined more in detail by a special statute.

Art. 95—The Republic of Poland guarantees on its territory, to all, without distinction of extrac-

tion, nationality, language, race or religion, full protection of life, liberty and property.

Foreigners enjoy, on condition of reciprocity, rights equal to those of citizens of the Polish State, and have duties equal to those of such citizens, unless statutes expressly require Polish citizenship.

Art. 96—All citizens are equal before the law. Public offices are accessible in equal measure to all, on conditions prescribed by the law.

The Republic of Poland does not recognize privileges of birth or of estate, or any coats of arms, family or other titles, with the exception of those of learning, office or profession. A Polish citizen may not accept foreign titles or orders without the permission of the President of the republic.

Art. 97—Limitations of personal liberty, especially search of person and arrest, are admissible only in cases prescribed by law, and in the manner defined by statutes, by virtue of an order from judicial authorities.

In case a judicial order cannot be issued immediately, it should be served, at the latest, within forty-eight hours, with a statement of the reasons of the search or arrest.

Arrested persons who have not been served within forty-eight hours with a written statement of the cause of arrest, signed by a judicial authority, regain their freedom at once.

The means of compulsory serving by which the administrative authorities may enforce their orders are determined in statutes.

Art. 98—No one may be deprived of the court to which he is subject by law. Exceptional courts are admissible only in cases determined by statutes, which statutes must have been issued before the offense was committed. A citizen may be prosecuted and punishment inflicted only by virtue of a statute actually in force. Punishment involving physical suffering is not permitted and no one may be subjected to such punishment.

No statute may deprive a citizen of access to the courts for the purpose of demanding reparation for injury or damage.

Art. 99—The Republic of Poland recognizes all property, whether belonging personally to individual citizens or collectively to associations of citizens, institutions, self-government organizations, and the State itself, as one of the most important bases of social organization and legal order, and guarantees to all citizens, institutions and associations protection of their property, permitting only in cases provided by a statute the abolition or limitation of property, whether personal or collective, for reasons of higher utility, against compensation. Only a statute may determine what property—and to what extent, for reasons of public utility—shall form the exclusive property of the State, and in how far rights of citizens and of their legally recognized associations to use freely land, waters, minerals and other treasures of nature, may be subject to limitations for public reasons.

The land, as one of the most important factors of the existence of the nation and the State, may not be the subject of unrestricted transfer (commerce). Statutes will define the right of the State to buy up land against the will of the owners, and to regulate the transfer of land, applying the principle that the agrarian organizations of the Republic of Poland should be based on agricultural units capable of regular production, and forming private property.

Art. 100—The home and hearth of the citizen

are inviolable. Infringements of this right by entering the home, searching it and taking papers or movables may, apart from the necessity of executing administrative orders based on a specific statutory authorization, take place only by order of judicial authorities, in the manner and in the cases prescribed by the statute.

Art. 101—Every citizen has the liberty of selecting on the territory of the State his place of residence and abode, to move about and to emigrate, as well as to choose his occupation and profession, and to transport his property.

These rights may be restricted only by statute.

Art. 102—Labor is the main basis of the wealth of the republic, and should remain under the special protection of the State.

Every citizen has the right to State protection for his labor, and in case of lack of work, illness, accident or debility, to the benefits of special insurance which will be determined by a special statute.

The State has the duty of making accessible also moral guidance and religious consolation to citizens under its immediate care in public institutions, such as educational institutions, barracks, hospitals, prisons and charitable homes.

Art. 103—Children without sufficient parental care, neglected with respect to education, have the right to State aid within the limits to be determined by statute.

Parents may not be deprived of authority over their children except by judicial decision.

Special statutes determine the protection of motherhood.

Children under 15 years of age may not be wage earners; neither may women be employed at night, or young laborers be employed in industries detrimental to their health.

Permanent employment of children and young people of school age for wage earning purposes is forbidden.

Art. 104—Every citizen has the right to express freely his ideas and convictions in so far as he does not thereby violate legal provisions.

Art. 105—Freedom of the press is guaranteed. Censorship of the system of licensing printed matter may not be introduced. Daily papers and other matter printed in the country may not be debarred from the mails nor may their dissemination on the territory of the republic be restricted.

A special statute will define the responsibility for the abuse of this freedom.

Art. 106—The secrecy of letters and other correspondence may be infringed upon only in cases provided by law.

Art. 107—Citizens have the right of presenting individual or collective petitions to all State and self-government representative bodies and public authorities.

Art. 108—Citizens have the right of combining, meeting and forming associations and unions. The exercise of these rights is defined by statutes.

Art. 109—Every citizen has the right of preserving his nationality and developing his mother-tongue and national characteristics.

Special statutes of the State will guarantee to minorities in the Polish State the full and free development of their national characteristics, with the assistance of autonomous minority unions, endowed with the character of public law organizations, within the limits of unions of general self-government.

The State will have in regard to their activity the right of control and of supplementing their financial means in case of need.

Art. 110—Polish citizens belonging to national, religious or linguistic minorities, have the same right as other citizens of founding, supervising and administering at their own expense, charitable, religious and social institutions, schools and other educational institutions, and of using freely therein their language, and observing the rules of their religion.

Art. 111—Freedom of conscience and of religion is guaranteed to all citizens. No citizen may suffer a limitation of the right enjoyed by other citizens, by reason of his religion and religious convictions.

All inhabitants of the Polish State have the right of freely professing their religion in public as well as in private, and of performing the commands of their religion or rite, in so far as this is not contrary to public order or public morality.

Art. 112—Religious freedom may not be used in a way contrary to statutes. No one may evade the performance of public duties by reason of his religious beliefs. No one may be compelled to take part in religious activities or rites unless he is subject to parental or guardian's authority.

Art. 113—Every religious community recognized by the State has the right of organizing collective and public services; it may conduct independently its internal affairs; it may possess and acquire movable and immovable property, administer and dispose of it; it remains in possession and enjoyment of its endowments and funds, and of religious, educational and charitable institutions. No religious community may, however, be in opposition to the statutes of the State.

Art. 114—The Roman Catholic religion, being the religion of the preponderant majority of the nation, occupies in the State the chief position among enfranchised religions. The Roman Catholic Church governs itself, under its own laws. The relation of the State to the Church will be determined on the basis of an agreement with the Apostolic See, which is subject to ratification by the Sejm.

Art. 115—The churches of the religious minorities and other legally organized religious communities govern themselves by their own laws, which the State may not refuse to recognize unless they contain rules contrary to law.

The relation of the State to such churches and religions will be determined from time to time by legislation after an understanding with their legal representatives.

Art. 116—The recognition of a new or hitherto not legally recognized religion may not be refused to religious communities whose institutions' teachings and organizations are not contrary to public order or public morality.

Art. 117—Learned investigations and the publication of their results are free. Every citizen has the right to teach, to found a school or educational institution and to direct it if he complies with the requirements laid down by statute concerning the qualifications of teachers, the safety of the child intrusted to him, and a loyal attitude toward the State. All schools and educational institutions, public as well as private, are subject to supervision by State authorities within the limits prescribed by statutes.

Art. 118—Within the limits of the elementary school, instruction is compulsory for all citizens of the State. A statute will define the period, limits and manner of acquiring such education.

Art. 119—Teaching in State and self-government schools is gratuitous.

The State will insure to pupils who are exceptionally able, but not well-to-do, scholarships for

their maintenance in secondary and academic schools.

Art. 120—Instruction in religion is compulsory for all pupils in every educational institution, the curriculum of which includes instruction of youth under 18 years of age, if the institution is maintained wholly or in part by the State, or by self-government bodies. The direction and supervision of religious instruction in schools belongs to the respective religious community, reserving to the State educational authorities the right of supreme supervision.

Art. 121—Every citizen has the right to compensation for damage inflicted upon him by civil or military organs of State authorities, by an official act not in accordance with the right or duties of the service. The State is responsible for the damage, jointly with the guilty organs; action may be brought against the State and against officials, independently of any permission by public authority. Communes and other self-government bodies, as well as their organs, are responsible in the same manner. Special statutes will define the application of this principle.

Art. 122—The rules as to citizens' rights apply also to persons belonging to the armed force. Special military statutes define exceptions to this principle.

Art. 123—Armed force may be used only by request of a civil authority under strict obedience to statutes, for the purpose of putting down disturbances or of enforcing the execution of legal rules. Exceptions to this principle are admissible only by virtue of statutes on the state of siege and of war.

Art. 124—A temporary suspension of citizens' rights; of personal liberty (Article 97), of inviolability of home and hearth (Article 100), of freedom of the press (Article 105), of secrecy of correspondence (Article 106), of the right of combining, meeting and forming associations (Article 108), may take place for the whole territory of the State or for localities in which it may prove necessary for reasons of public safety.

Such suspension may be directed only by the Council of Ministers, by permission of the President of the republic, during a war or when an outbreak of war threatens, as well as in case of internal disturbances or of widespread conspiracies which bear the character of high treason and threaten the Constitution of the State or the safety of the citizens.

Such a decision of the Council of Ministers, if made while the Sejm is in session, must be immediately submitted to the Sejm for confirmation. If such a decision, to apply on a territory which comprises more than one Voyerodship be issued during an interval between meetings of the Sejm, the Sejm meets automatically within eight days from the publication of the decision in order to take the proper step.

Should the Sejm refuse confirmation, the state of siege immediately loses its binding force. If the Council of Ministers directs a state of siege after the expiration of the term of the Sejm, or after dissolution of the Sejm, the decision of the Government must be submitted to the newly elected Sejm without delay, at its first meeting.

These principles will be defined more in detail by a statute on the state of siege.

A statute on the state of war will define the principles of a temporary suspension of the above enumerated rights of citizens in time of war on the territory affected by war operations.

Art. 125—A change in the Constitution may

be voted only in the presence of at least one-half the statutory number of Deputies or Senators respectively, by a majority of two-thirds of the votes.

The motion to change the Constitution must be signed by at least one-fourth of the total statutory number of Deputies and notice of such a motion must be given at least fifteen days in advance.

The second Sejm, which will meet on the basis of this Constitution, may revise this constitutional law by its own vote, taken by a majority of three-fifths in the presence of at least one-half the statutory number of Deputies.

Art. 126—This Constitution has binding force from the day of its publication, or in so far as the realization of its individual provisions is dependent on the issuing of special statutes on the day of their going into force. All legal rules and institutions now in force which do not agree with the rules of this Constitution, will, within a year from the voting of this Constitution, be submitted to the legislative body in order to be brought into harmony with the Constitution by legislation.

POLAR REGIONS. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION; ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION.

POLAR STAR, Order of the, Swedish order of knighthood, the date of the founding of which is uncertain.

POLARIS, vessel in Hull's Arctic expedition of 1871. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1850-1883.

POLAVEJA, or Polavieja, Camilo Garcia de (b. 1838-), Filipino general. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1896-1898.

POLE, Reginald (1500-1558), English Roman Catholic prelate. Became cardinal, 1536; legate-president of the Council of Trent, 1545; archbishop of Canterbury, 1557-1558. See EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Catholic Reformation.

POLEMARCH, official of ancient Athens, with the special duty of safeguarding the rights of resident aliens. See ATHENS: B.C. 753-650.

POLESIA, county of eastern Poland. Formerly a part of the Russian empire, it was ceded to Poland in 1921. The population in 1921 was 865,035. See POLAND: 1921: Peace treaty with Russia.

POLETÆ, POLETERIUM.—"Every thing which the state [Athens] sold, or leased; revenues, real property, mines, confiscated estates, in which is to be included also the property of public debtors, who were in arrear after the last term of respite, and the bodies of the aliens under the protection of the state, who had not paid the sum required for protection, and of foreigners who had been guilty of assuming the rights of citizenship, or of the crime called apostasy; all these, I say, together with the making of contracts for the public works, at least in certain cases and periods, were under the charge of the ten poletæ, although not always without the coöperation of other boards of officers. Each of the tribes appointed one of the members of this branch of the government, and their sessions were held in the edifice called the Poleterium."—A. Boeckh, *Public economy of Athens* (tr. by Lamb), bk. 2, ch. 3.

POLETERIUM. See POLETÆ.

POLI, early kingdom on the island of Borneo. See BORNEO: 518-1374.

POLICE. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Police defined.

POLICE JURY, administrative and legislative body of the Louisiana parish or county. See LOUISIANA: 1874-1921.

POLICE STRIKE, Boston. See BOSTON: 1919.

POLIOMYELITIS. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern; 20th century: Infantile paralysis.

POLISH GREY SAMARITAN COMMITTEE. See YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1918: Continuation war work.

POLISH LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY: 21.

POLISH LEGION, body of troops made up largely of Americans of Polish extraction, which fought in France in the World War on the side of the Allies. See POLAND: 1914-1917.

POLISH-DANZIG CONVENTION. See POLAND: 1922.

POLITICAL ECONOMY. See ECONOMICS.

POLITICAL SCIENCE. See CIVICS.

POLITIQUES, French moderate party during the reign of Charles IX. See FRANCE: 1573-1576.

POLITIS, Nicolas, Greek statesman. Minister of foreign affairs, 1917-1921; representative at the Paris Peace Conference, 1919. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

POLIZIANO, or Politianus, Angelo (Angelo Ambrogini) (1454-1494), Italian scholar and poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1595.

POLK, Frank Lyon (1871-), American lawyer. Counsellor of the state department of the United States, 1915-1919; became under-secretary of state, 1919. See U.S.A.: 1919-1920.

POLK, James Knox (1795-1849), eleventh president of the United States. Member of the House of Representatives, 1825-1839; speaker, 1835-1839; governor of Tennessee, 1839-1841; president of the United States, 1845-1849. See TENNESSEE: 1834-1856; U.S.A.: 1844; 1845: Polk's cabinet meetings; 1845-1846.

Attitude on Monroe Doctrine. See MONROE DOCTRINE: 1827-1867.

Instrumental in conquest of California. See CALIFORNIA: 1846; 1846-1847.

War with Mexico. See MEXICO: 1846; 1846-1847; 1848.

POLKI, Cossack troops. See UKRAINE: 1700-1721.

POLKOS, Mexican political faction. See MEXICO: 1846-1847.

POLL TAX, direct per capita or head tax. It was a source of considerable revenue in colonial days, and is still levied in some states, though its use is decreasing. See TAXATION: Local taxation in the United States.

POLLAIUOLO, Antonio (1429-1498), Florentine painter and sculptor. See PAINTING: Italian: Early Renaissance.

POLLARD, William Jefferson (1860-1913), American lawyer and prohibition advocate. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: International movements.

POLLENTIA, Battle of (402). See GOTHs: 400-403.

POLLICES.—The Roman unit of measurement, the pes, or uncia (whence our word "inch"), was divided into twelve pollices, or thumb-joint lengths.

POLLOCK, Sir George (1786-1872), British field marshal. Fought in Mahratta and Burmese Wars, 1803-1805, 1824-1826; commanded British forces in Afghanistan, 1842; became field marshal, 1870. See AFGHANISTAN: 1838-1842; 1842-1860.

POLLOCK VS. FARMERS' LOAN AND TRUST COMPANY. See U.S.A.: 1895 (April-May).

POLO, Marco (c. 1254-1324), Venetian traveler. Entered the service of Kublai Khan, 1275; left China, 1292, and after traveling through Sumatra, India and Persia, arrived in Venice, 1295; taken prisoner by the Genoese in the battle of Curzola, 1298; dictated during his imprisonment an account of his adventures which became widely popular. See TRAVELS OF MARCO POLO.

POLONNA, Battle of (1792). See POLAND: 1791-1792.

POLOTSK, Battle of (1811). See AUSTRIA: 1809-1814.

POLOTSKY, or Polotzki, Simeon (1628-1680), Russian dramatist. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1400-1689; 1650-1800.

POLTAVA, or Pultova, government and capital of the same name in the Ukraine. The city is located on the Vorskla, 88 miles southwest of Kharkov. See RUSSIA: 1918-1920.

POLYBIUS (c. 204-122 B.C.), Greek historian. See GREEK LITERATURE: First part of Greco-Roman period; HISTORY: 15; 16.

POLYCLITUS, or Polycleitos (fl. latter half of 5th century B.C.), Greek sculptor. See SCULPTURE: Greek: B.C. 5th century.

POLYCLITUS, or Polycleitos (fl. 4th century B.C.), Greek sculptor and architect. Built the famous theater of Epidauros.

POLYCRATES, tyrant of Samos, c. 535-515 B.C. See SAMOS.

POLYGAMY: Babylonia. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B.C. 2250-538.

Egypt. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B.C. 2000-500.
United States. See MORMONISM: 1830-1846; 1847-1920; UTAH: 1882-1893; 1895-1896; 1915.

POLYGNOTUS (fl. middle of 5th century B.C.), Greek painter. See PAINTING: Greek; EDUCATION, ART: Greece.

POLYGON WOOD, position four miles east of Ypres, Belgium. It was taken by the Allies in 1917 during the Allied offensive. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: d, 18; d, 19.

POLYNESIA, term applied to all the islands of the central and western Pacific, particularly to the eastern of the three divisions, comprising Hawaii, Ellice, Phoenix, Union, Manihiki, Marquesas, Cook, Society, Tubuai and Tuamotu groups, Samoa, Tonga, and lesser islands. See PACIFIC OCEAN: Geographical description; People; B.C. 2500-A.D. 1500; HAWAIIAN ISLANDS; TONGA, OR FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

Art. See ART: Distribution.

Language. See PHILOLOGY: 27.

Mythology. See MYTHOLOGY: Oceanic: Polynesian myths.

POLYPOTAMIA, Proposed state of. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES: 1784.

POLYSPERCHON, or Polyperchon (died c. 303 B.C.), Macedonian general. Served under Alexander the Great; became regent of Macedonia, 319 B.C.; expelled by Cassander, 317 B.C. See MACEDONIA: B.C. 323-316; GREECE: B.C. 321-312.

POMAKS.—"Many of the Bulgars who inhabited the wildest parts of the Rhodope mountains became converts to the Moslem religion during the reign of Mahommed IV (1648-1687). They retained the habits, customs, and language of the Bulgars, but were henceforth known as Pomaks. The adoption of the Creed of Islam made them a privileged class in the conquered country."—W. S. Monroe, *Bulgaria and her people*, p. 30. See BULGARIA: 1913: Attempted conversion of Pomaks; THRACE: 1918-1921.

POMARE, name given to the kings of Tahiti. See TAHITI.

POMBAL, Sebastião José de Carvalho e Mello, Marquess of (1699-1782), Portuguese statesman. Envoy extraordinary to London, 1738-1745; to Vienna, 1745-1749; minister for foreign affairs and war, 1749-1756; prime minister, 1756-1777; reduced the power of the Inquisition, reorganized education, finance, the army and navy, ex-

pelled the Jesuits from the land, and freed the Indians from slavery. See PORTUGAL: 1656-1777; JESUITS: 1757-1773.

POMERANIA, province of Prussia, on the Baltic, east of Mecklenburg. (See GERMANY: Map.) It has an area of 11,654 square miles, and the population, in 1919, was 1,787,193. Originally occupied by the Vandals, it passed into the possession of the Slavic Wends, who divided it into several principalities. In 1170 two of the ruling princes took the title of duke, which Frederick Barbarossa recognized in 1181. Shortly after, the margrave of Brandenburg was given suzerainty over Pomerania. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

1243.—Bishopric formed. See PRUSSIA: 13th century.

14th century.—Conquest by Boleslav of Poland. See POLAND: Beginnings of national existence.

behind the wall, where the city auspices were taken, over which the augurs had full right, and which could never be moved without their first consulting the will of the gods. The pomerium which encircled the Palatine appears to have been the space between the wall and the foot of the hill." —H. M. Westropp, *Early and imperial Rome*, p. 40.

POMEROY, Seth (1706-1777) American soldier. Served in the French and Indian Wars, 1745-1760; in the American Revolution. See U. S. A.: 1774-1775; 1775 (May-August).

POMMERN, German battleship. It was sunk on May 31, 1916, at the battle of Jutland.

POMPADOUR, Jeanne Antoinette Poisson le Normant d'Étiolles, Marquise de (1721-1764), mistress of Louis XV and a most influential figure in the politics of her time. She was a patron of arts and numbered among her circle Voltaire and Quesnay. See FRANCE: 1723-1774; 1745-1763.



STRADA DELLA FORTUNA, POMPEII

1627.—Occupied by Wallenstein. See GERMANY: 1627-1629.

1630.—Occupied by Gustavus Adolphus. See GERMANY: 1630-1631.

1648.—Divided between Brandenburg and Sweden by Treaty of Westphalia. See WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF (1648); GERMANY: Map: At Peace of Westphalia; 1648: Peace of Westphalia; BRANDENBURG: 1640-1688.

1675-1679.—Controlled by Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 1640-1688.

1679.—Recovered by Sweden at Peace of St. Germain. See SWEDEN: 1644-1697.

1720.—Part ceded to Prussia.

1812.—Extent. See EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

1815.—Remainder ceded to Prussia by Congress of Vienna. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

POMERIUM, Roman.—"The pomerium was a hallowed space, along the whole circuit of the city,

POMPÆ, solemn processions of the ancient Athenians, on which they expended great sums of money.

POMPEII, situated in Campania, overlooking the Bay of Naples. "Pompeii was a maritime city at the mouth of the river Sarnus, the most sheltered recess of the Neapolitan Crater. Its origin was lost in antiquity, and the tradition that it was founded by Hercules, together with the other spot [Herculaneum] which bore the name of the demigod, was derived perhaps from the warm springs with which the region abounded. The Greek plantations on the Campanian coast had been overrun by the Oscans and Samnites; nevertheless the graceful features of Grecian civilization were still everywhere conspicuous, and though Pompeii received a Latin name, and though Sulla, Augustus, and Nero had successively endowed it with Roman colonists, it retained the manners and to a great extent the language of the settlers from beyond the sea."

C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 60.—Pompeii, and the neighboring city of Herculaneum, were overwhelmed by a volcanic eruption from Mount Vesuvius, on August 23, 79 A.D. They were buried, but did not perish; they were death-stricken, but not destroyed; and by excavations, which began at Pompeii, 1748, they have been extensively uncovered, and made to exhibit to modern times the very privacies and secrets of life in a Roman city of the age of Titus.—Pliny the Younger, *Letters*, bk. 6, *epistles* 16 and 20.

Painting. See PAINTING: Roman.

Libraries. See LIBRARIES: Ancient: Greece.

ALSO IN: T. H. Dyer, *Pompeii*.—A. Mau, *Pompeii: Its life and art* (tr. by F. W. Kelsey).—G. Boissier, *Rome and Pompeii* (tr. by D. H. Fisher).

POMPEIUS, Gnaeus Magnus (Pompey the Great) (106-48 B.C.), Roman general and statesman. Entered military profession at seventeen; conspicuous in campaigns with Sulla against the Marians in Italy, Sicily and Africa, 83-81 B.C.; assumed the surname "Magnus" on his return to Rome, 81 B.C.; commanded against the Marians in Spain, 76-72 B.C.; crushed the Spartacus uprising, 71 B.C.; subdued Mediterranean pirates, 67 B.C.; placed in command of the provinces of the East, 66 B.C.; successfully ended the war with Mithradates VI, 66-65 B.C.; conquered Syria and Palestine, 64-63 B.C.; member of the First Triumvirate with Cæsar and Crassus, 60 B.C.; consul, 55 B.C.; allied with Cæsar both privately and politically; after the death of his wife, Cæsar's daughter, Pompey turned to the aristocrats; began civil war with Cæsar, 49 B.C.; defeated at Pharsalia, 48 B.C.; fled to Egypt and was there murdered by one of his old centurions.—See also **ROME: Republic: B.C. 78-68; B.C. 69-63; B.C. 63-58, to B.C. 48; CILICIA, PIRATES OF; JEW: B.C. 166-40; SELEUCIDÆ: B.C. 64; ALEXANDRIA: B.C. 48-47.**

POMPELLE, one of the defenses of Rheims, southeast of the city. See **WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: b, 2, iv.**

POMPOSA, abbey of Emilia, Italy, in the province of Ferrara. See **LIBRARIES: Medieval: Monastic libraries.**

PONAPE, one of the Caroline islands in the Pacific, east of the Philippines. See **CAROLINE ISLANDS.**

PONCAS, Ponkas, or Puncas, North American Indian tribe. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; PAWNEE FAMILY; SIOUAN FAMILY.**

PONCE DE LEON, Juan. See **LEON, JUAN PONCE DE.**

PONCE DE LEON, Luis. See **LEON, LUIS PONCE DE.**

PONCE DE LEON, Pedro (c. 1520-1584), Spanish monk. Noted as a teacher of the deaf. See **EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Deaf mutes.**

PONDICHERY, capital of the French possession of the same name, in India, on the Coromandel coast, 122 miles south of Madras. In 1921 the population was 46,849. It was founded by the French in 1683, seized by the Dutch in 1693 and restored in 1699. During the wars for the control of India, it was several times taken by the British, but finally restored to the French in 1814.—See also **INDIA: 1665-1743; 1743-1752; 1758-1761.**

PONIATOWSKI, Josef Anton, Prince (1763-1813), Polish general and marshal of France. Became commander-in-chief of the army of the south and defeated superior Russian forces, 1792; joined

the French, 1800; after the erection of the duchy of Warsaw, appointed minister of war, 1807; in the war between France and Austria, drove the Austrians out of Polish territory, 1809; distinguished himself in the Napoleonic campaign against Russia, 1812; killed at the battle of Leipzig. See **GERMANY: 1813 (October).**

PONIATOWSKI, Stanislaus Augustus. See **STANISLAUS II, AUGUSTUS PONIATOWSKI.**

PONKAS. See **PONCAS.**

PONS SUBLICIUS. See **SUBLICIAN BRIDGE.**

PONT ACHIN, Battle of. See **FRANCE: 1794 (March-July).**

PONT D'ARCY, town in France, on the Aisne, about twenty miles northwest of Rheims. It was captured by the Germans in 1918. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: f, 1.**

PONTCHARRA, Battle of (1591). See **FRANCE: 1591-1593.**

PONTE NUOVO, Battle of (1769). See **COR-SICA: 1729-1769.**

PONTHIEU, ancient counship of northern France, in the government of Picardy, forming part of the department of the Somme. See **FRANCE: 1337-1360.**

PONTIAC (c. 1720-1769), chief of the Ottawa Indians, and leader of the "Conspiracy of Pontiac," 1763-1764. See **PONTIAC'S WAR; OSWEGO: 1728-1839.**

PONTIAC'S WAR (1763-1764).—"With the conquest of Canada and the expulsion of France as a military power from the continent, the English colonists were abounding in loyalty to the mother country, were exultant in the expectation of peace, and in the assurance of immunity from Indian wars in the future; for it did not seem possible that, with the loose system of organization and government common to the Indians, they could plan and execute a general campaign without the co-operation of the French as leaders. This feeling of security among the English settlements was of short duration. A general discontent pervaded all the Indian tribes from the frontier settlements to the Mississippi, and from the great lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. The extent of this disquietude was not suspected, and hence no attempt was made to gain the good-will of the Indians. There were many real causes for this discontent. The French had been politic and sagacious in their intercourse with the Indian. They gained his friendship by treating him with respect and justice. They came to him with presents, and, as a rule, dealt with him fairly in trade. They came with missionaries, unarmed, heroic, self-denying men. . . . Many Frenchmen married Indian wives, dwelt with the native tribes, and adopted their customs. To the average Englishman, on the other hand, Indians were disgusting objects; he would show them no respect, nor treat them with justice except under compulsion. . . . The French had shown little disposition to make permanent settlements; but the English, when they appeared, came to stay, and they occupied large tracts of the best land for agricultural purposes. The French hunters and traders, who were widely dispersed among the native tribes, kept the Indians in a state of disquietude by misrepresenting the English, exaggerating their faults, and making the prediction that the French would soon recapture Canada and expel the English from the Western territories. Pontiac, the chief of the Ottawas, was the Indian who had the motive, the ambition, and capacity for organization which enabled him to concentrate and use all these elements of discontent for his own malignant and selfish purposes. After the defeat of the French, he professed for a time to be friendly

with the English, expecting that, under the acknowledged supremacy of Great Britain, he would be recognized as a mighty Indian prince, and be assigned to rule over his own, and perhaps a confederacy of other tribes. Finding that the English government had no use for him, he was indignant, and he devoted all the energies of his vigorous mind to a secret conspiracy of uniting the tribes west of the Alleghenies to engage in a general war against the English settlements. ["The tribes thus banded together against the English comprised, with a few unimportant exceptions, the whole Algonquin stock, to whom were united the Wyandots, the Senecas, and several tribes of the lower Mississippi. The Senecas were the only members of the Iroquois confederacy who joined in the league, the rest being kept quiet by the influence of Sir William Johnson."—F. Parkman, *Conspiracy of Pontiac*, v. 1, p. 187.] . . . His scheme was to make a simultaneous attack on all the Western posts in the month of May, 1763; and each attack was assigned to the neighboring tribes. His summer home was on a small island at the entrance of Lake St. Clair; and being near Detroit, he was to conduct in person the capture of that fort. On the 6th of May, 1763, Major Gladwin, in command at Detroit, had warning from an Indian girl that the next day an attempt would be made to capture the fort by treachery. When Pontiac, on the appointed morning, accompanied by 60 of his chiefs, with short guns concealed under their blankets, appeared at the fort, and, as usual, asked for admission, he was startled at seeing the whole garrison under arms, and that his scheme of treachery had miscarried. For two months the savages assailed the fort, and the sleepless garrison gallantly defended it, when they were relieved by the arrival of a schooner from Fort Niagara, with 60 men, provisions, and ammunition. Fort Pitt, on the present site of Pittsburg, Pa., was in command of Captain Ecuyer, another trained soldier, who had been warned of the Indian conspiracy by Major Gladwin in a letter written May 5th. Captain Ecuyer, having a garrison of 330 soldiers and backwoodsmen, immediately made every preparation for defence. On May 27th, a party of Indians appeared at the fort under the pretence of wishing to trade, and were treated as spies. Active operations against Fort Pitt were postponed until the smaller forts had been taken. Fort Sandusky was captured May 16th; Fort St. Joseph (on the St. Joseph River, Mich.), May 25th; Fort Ouatanon (now Lafayette, Ind.), May 31st; Fort Michillimackinac (now Mackinaw, Mich.), June 2d; Fort Presqu' Isle (now Erie, Pa.), June 17th; Fort Le Bœuf (Erie County, Pa.), June 18th; Fort Venango (Venango County, Pa.), June 18th; and the posts at Carlisle and Bedford, Pa., on the same day. No garrison except that at Presqu' Isle had warning of danger. The same method of capture was adopted in each instance. A small party of Indians came to the fort with the pretence of friendship, and were admitted. Others soon joined them, when the visitors rose upon the small garrisons, butchered them, or took them captive. At Presqu' Isle the Indians laid siege to the fort for two days, when they set it on fire. At Venango no one of the garrison survived to give an account of the capture. On June 22d, a large body of Indians surrounded Fort Pitt and opened fire on all sides, but were easily repulsed. . . . The Indians departed next day and did not return until July 26th," when they laid siege to the fort for five days and nights, with more loss to themselves than to the garrison. They "then disappeared, in order to intercept the expedition of Colonel Bouquet,

which was approaching from the east with a convoy of provisions for the relief of Fort Pitt. It was fortunate for the country that there was an officer stationed at Philadelphia who fully understood the meaning of the alarming reports which were coming in from the Western posts. Colonel Henry Bouquet was a gallant Swiss officer who had been trained in war from his youth, and whose personal accomplishments gave an additional charm to his bravery and heroic energy. He had served seven years in fighting American Indians, and was more cunning than they in the practice of their own artifices. General Amherst, the commander-in-chief, was slow in appreciating the importance and extent of the Western conspiracy; yet he did good service in directing Colonel Bouquet to organize an expedition for the relief of Fort Pitt. The promptness and energy with which this duty was performed, under the most embarrassing conditions, make the expedition one of the most brilliant episodes in American warfare. The only troops available for the service were about 500 regulars recently arrived from the siege of Havana, broken in health." At Bushy Run, 25 miles east of Fort Pitt, Bouquet fought a desperate battle with the savages, and defeated them by the stratagem of a pretended retreat, which drew them into an ambushade. Fort Pitt was then reached in safety. "On the 29th of July Detroit was reinforced by 280 men under Captain Dalzell, who in June had left Fort Niagara in 22 barges, with several cannon and a supply of provisions and ammunition. The day after his arrival, Captain Dalzell proposed, with 250 men, to make a night attack on Pontiac's camp and capture him. Major Gladwin discouraged the attempt, but finally, against his judgment, consented. Some Canadians obtained the secret and carried it to Pontiac, who waylaid the party in an ambushade [at a place called Bloody Bridge ever since]. Twenty of the English were killed and 39 wounded. Among the killed was Captain Dalzell himself. Pontiac could make no use of this success, as the fort was strongly garrisoned and well supplied. . . . Elsewhere there was nothing to encourage him." His confederation began to break, and in November he was forced to raise the siege of Detroit. "There was quietness on the frontiers during the winter of 1763-64. In the spring of 1764 scattered war parties were again ravaging the borders. Colonel Bouquet was recruiting in Pennsylvania, and preparing an outfit for his march into the valley of the Ohio. In June, Colonel Bradstreet, with a force of 1,200 men, was sent up the great lakes," where he made an absurd and unauthorized treaty with some of the Ohio Indians. He arrived at Detroit on the 26th of August. "Pontiac had departed, and sent messages of defiance from the banks of the Maumee." Colonel Bouquet had experienced great difficulty in raising troops and supplies and it was not until September, 1764, that he again reached Fort Pitt. But before two months passed he had brought the Delawares and Shawnees to submission and had delivered some 200 white captives from their hands. Meantime, Sir William Johnson, in conjunction with Bradstreet, had held conferences with a great council of 2,000 warriors at Fort Niagara, representing Iroquois, Ottawas, Ojibways, Wyandots and others, and had concluded several treaties of peace. By one of these, with the Senecas, a strip of land four miles wide on each side of Niagara River, from Erie to Ontario, was ceded to the British government. "The Pontiac War, so far as battles and campaigns were concerned, was ended; but Pontiac was still at large and as untamed as ever. His last hope was the

Illinois country, where the foot of an English soldier had never trod [and there he schemed and plotted without avail until 1765. In 1769 he was assassinated, near St. Louis].—W. F. Poole, *The West, 1763-1783 (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 6, ch. 9)*.

ALSO IN: S. Farmer, *History of Detroit and Michigan, ch. 38.—Historical account of Bouquet's expedition.—A. Henry, Travels and adventures in Canada, pt. 1, ch. 9-23.—W. L. Stone, Life and times of Sir William Johnson, v. 2, ch. 9-12.—J. R. Brodhead, Documents relative to colonial history of New York, v. 7.*

PONTIC MASSACRE. See DELOS: B. C. 88.

PONTIFEX MAXIMUS, highest ecclesiastical official of Rome. See AUGURS; ROME: Empire: B. C. 31—A. D. 14.

PONTIFF, Roman.—The pope is often alluded to as the Roman pontiff, the term implying an analogy between his office and that of the Pontifex Maximus of the ancient Romans.

PONTIFICAL INDICTIONS. See INDICATIONS.

PONTIFICES, priesthood of Rome. See AUGURS; ANNALS: Roman.

PONTIUS, Gaius, Samnite chieftain. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 343-290.

PONTOPPIDAN, Erik (1698-1764), Danish historian. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1479-1750.

PONTOPPIDAN, Henrik (1857-), Danish novelist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1917.

PONTS-DE-CÉ, Peace of (1620). See FRANCE: 1620-1622.

PONTUS, in ancient geography, a tract of country in northeastern Asia Minor. Originally a Persian province, it acquired independence about 400 B. C., which it held until 63 B. C., when its king, Mithradates the Great, was conquered by the Romans.—See also GREECE: B. C. 3rd century; MITHRADATIC WARS.

PONTUS EUXINUS, or Euxinus pontus, Greek name for the Black sea.

PONY EXPRESS.—"The Pony Express was the first rapid transit and the first fast mail line across the continent from the Missouri River to the Pacific Coast. It was a system by means of which messages were carried swiftly on horseback across the plains and deserts, and over the mountains of the far West. It brought the Atlantic Coast and the Pacific slope ten days nearer to each other. It had a brief existence of only sixteen months and was supplanted by the trans-continental telegraph. Yet it was of the greatest importance in binding the East and West together at a time when overland travel was slow and cumbersome, and when a great national crisis made the rapid communication of news between these sections an imperative necessity. The Pony Express marked the highest development in overland travel prior to the coming of the Pacific railroad, which it preceded nine years. . . . The operation of the Pony Express was a supreme achievement of physical endurance on the part of man and his ever faithful companion, the horse. . . . While a majority of the people of California were loyal to the Union, there was a vigorous minority intensely in sympathy with the southern cause and ready to conspire for, or bring about by force of arms if necessary, the accession of their state. As the Civil War became more and more imminent, it became obvious to Union men in both East and West that the existing lines of communication were untrustworthy. Just as soon as trouble should start, the Confederacy could, and most certainly would, gain control of the southern mail routes. Once in con-

trol, she could isolate the Pacific Coast for many months and thus enable her sympathizers there the more effectually to perfect their plans of secession. Or she might take advantage of these lines of travel, and, by striking swiftly and suddenly, organize and reinforce her followers in California, intimidate the Unionists, many of whom were apathetic, and by a single bold stroke snatch the prize away from her antagonist before the latter should have had time to act. To avert this crisis some daring and original plan of communication had to be organized to keep the East and West in close contact with each other; and the Pony Express was the fulfillment of such a plan, for it made a close coöperation between the California loyalists and Federal Government possible until after the crisis did pass. . . . It was organized and operated by a private corporation after having been encouraged in its inception by a United States Senator who later turned traitor to his country. . . . All this happened early in the year 1860. The first step was to form a corporation, the more adequately to conduct the enterprise; and to that end the Central Overland California and Pike's Peak Express Company was organized under a charter granted by the Territory of Kansas."—G. D. Bradley, *Story of the Pony Express, pp. 1-2, 16-18, 21.*—The new corporation laid out the route, established relay stations, hired riders, and bought ponies. Early in April, 1860, the Pony Express started. From St. Joseph, Missouri, to Sacramento, California, the first trip took nine days and twenty-three hours. But within a year the coast to coast telegraph system had put an end to the Pony Express. The company failed in 1861.—See also U. S. A.: 1865-1885.

PONZA, Naval battle of (1435). See ITALY: 1412-1447.

POOH-POOH THEORY, of origin of language. See PHILOLOGY: 1.

POONA, or Puna, district and city in British India. (See INDIA: Map.) The district was a part of the Mohammedan kingdom of Ahmednagar during the seventeenth century. Holkar was reinstated as ruler in 1802, after he had put himself under British protection, but lost his kingdom when he attacked the British at Kirkee in 1817. (See INDIA: 1816-1819.) The city of Poona is situated near the juncture of the Mutha and Mula rivers. In 1921 it had a population of 214,796. The first mention of it is in the 16th century. In 1750 Poona became the capital of the Maharrattas. It was taken and destroyed by Nizan Ali thirteen years later.

Treaty of (1817). See AHMEDNAGAR.

POOR, Enoch (1736-1780), American general. Served in the American Revolution. See U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October).

POOR CLARES, or Poor Claires, Franciscan nuns. See CLARISSES; FRANCISCAN FRIARS.

POOR CONRAD, League of, revolutionary league of peasants in Würtemberg, 1514. See GERMANY: 1524-1525.

POOR LAWS. See CHARITIES.

POOR MEN OF LYONS, POOR MEN OF LOMBARDY. See WALDENSES.

POOR RELIEF. See CHARITIES.

POPE, Alexander (1688-1744), English poet. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1660-1780.

POPE, John (1822-1892), American general. Served in the Mexican War, 1846-1847; in the Civil War, 1861-1862; in campaigns against the Sioux Indians, 1862-1865. See U. S. A.: 1862 (March-April: On the Mississippi); (April-May: Tennessee-Mississippi); (July-August: Virginia): Beginning of Pope's campaign; 1862 (August: Virginia); (August-September: Virginia).

POPE, Juan, revolutionary leader of the Moqui Indians against the Spaniards, 1680. See **NEW MEXICO**: 1679-1800.

POPES. See **PAPACY**; also under specific names as **ALEXANDER**; **LEO**; **PIUS**; etc.

POPHAM, George (c. 1550-1608), English colonist. Associated with Sir Ferdinando Gorgas in colonization in New England; established Popham Colony in 1607. See **MAINE**: 1607-1608.

POPHAM, Sir John (c. 1531-1607), English jurist. Member of Parliament, 1571, 1572-1583; attorney-general, 1581-1592; lord chief justice, 1592-1607; one of the founders of the London and Plymouth companies; instrumental in securing the grant of land for Popham Colony. See **COMMON LAW**: 1592; **MAINE**: 1607-1608.

POPHAM COLONY, settlement at the mouth of the Kennebec river in what is now the State of Maine, founded in 1607. See **MAINE**: 1607-1608.

POPIISH PLOT, so-called Catholic plot for the assassination of Charles II of England, for the purpose of elevating to the throne James, duke of York. See **ENGLAND**: 1678-1679.

POPOL VUH, national legend of the Quiche Indians of Guatemala. See **QUICHES**.

POPOLANI, Florentine political party. See **FLORENCE**: 1408-1500.

POPOLOCAS, term for certain Indian tribes of Central America. See **CHONTALS**.

POPULAR PARTY, Italy. See **ITALY**: 1919: Significance of post-bellum elections; Internal affairs; **PAPACY**: 1919.

"POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY." See **U.S.A.**: 1853-1854.

POPULARES, Roman party. See **ROME**: Republic: B.C. 159-133; **OPTIMATES**.

POPULATION, Theory of. See **MALTHUSIAN DOCTRINE**.

POPULIST PARTY, United States. See **U.S.A.**: 1900 (May-November); **NEBRASKA**: 1871-1910: Political changes; **NORTH CAROLINA**: 1870-1892.

PORCIAN LAW. See **ROME**: Republic: B.C. 133-121.

PORK BARREL, American political expression, referring to national money used for minor or local appropriations, such as harbor or river improvements or public buildings, money which is often made the object of log-rolling by congressmen or senators.

PORPHYRIUS, or **Porphyry** (233-c. 304), Greek Neoplatonist philosopher and disciple of Plotinus. See **NEOPLATONISM**.

PORRAS-ANDERSON TREATY. See **COSTA RICA**: 1910.

PORT ARTHUR, fortified seaport at the southern end of the Liao-tung peninsula in Manchuria. (See **CHINA**: Map.) The population in 1912 was 17,884.

1894-1895.—Captured by Japan during Chino-Japanese War.—Restored to China through intervention of the Powers. See **CHINA**: 1894-1895.

1898.—Leased to Russia. See **CHINA**: 1898 (March-July).

1904-1905.—Besieged and captured by Japanese in Russo-Japanese War. See **JAPAN**: 1902-1905.

PORT BILL, Boston. See **BOSTON**: 1774: **U.S.A.**: 1774 (March-April).

PORT GIBSON, Battle of. See **U.S.A.**: 1863 (April-July: On the Mississippi).

PORT HUDSON, Siege and capture of. See **U.S.A.**: 1863 (May-July: On the Mississippi).

PORT MAHON, capital and principal seaport

of Minorca, Balearic islands. It was in possession of the English during most of the eighteenth century, but now belongs to Spain. See **SPAIN**: 1707-1710.

Siege of. See **MINORCA**: 1708.

PORT OF ENTRY ACT, Liberia (1913). See **LIBERIA**: 1911-1913.

PORT OF LONDON ACT. See **LONDON**: 1908.

PORT PHILLIP, harbor of Melbourne, Victoria, Australia. The colony of Victoria was formerly called Port Phillip District. See **AUSTRALIA**: 1787-1840; 1830-1855.

PORT REPUBLIC, Battle of. See **U.S.A.**: 1862 (May-June: Virginia).

PORT ROYAL, Jamaica, chief British naval station in the Caribbean, at the entrance to Kingston harbor, Jamaica. See **JAMAICA**: 1692.

PORT ROYAL, Nova Scotia, name originally given to Annapolis, Nova Scotia, on the Bay of Fundy.

1603-1613.—Settled by the French, and destroyed by the English. See **CANADA**: 1603-1605; 1606-1608; 1610-1613.

1690.—Taken by an expedition from Massachusetts. See **CANADA**: 1689-1690.

1691.—Recovered by the French. See **CANADA**: 1692-1697.

1710.—Final conquest by the English and change of name to Annapolis Royal. See **NEW ENGLAND**: 1702-1710.

1713.—Relinquished to Great Britain by Treaty of Utrecht. See **NEWFOUNDLAND**: 1713.

PORT ROYAL, South Carolina, town about fifty miles southwest of Charleston, South Carolina, sixteen miles from the Atlantic coast.

1670.—Founding. See **NORTH CAROLINA**: 1663-1670; **U.S.A.**: 1607-1752.

1680.—Settlement of Scotch Presbyterians. See **SOUTH CAROLINA**: 1680.

1861.—Battle of. See **U.S.A.**: 1861 (October-December: South Carolina-Georgia).

PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS: 1602-1700.—Monastery under Mère Angélique.—Hermits of Port Royal valley.—Acceptance of doctrines of Jansenius.—Conflict with the Jesuits.—"The monastery of Port Royal . . . was founded in the beginning of the 13th century, in the reign of Philip Augustus; and a later tradition claimed this magnificent monarch as the author of its foundation and of its name. . . . But this is the story of a time when, as it has been said, 'royal founders were in fashion.' More truly, the name is considered to be derived from the general designation of the fief or district in which the valley lies, Porrois—which, again, is supposed to be a corruption of Porra or Borra, meaning a marshy and woody hollow. The valley of Port Royal presents to this day the same natural features which attracted the eye of the devout solitary in the seventeenth century. . . . It lies about eighteen miles west of Paris, and seven or eight from Versailles, on the road to Chevreuse. . . . The monastery was founded, not by Philip Augustus, but by Matthieu, first Lord of Marli, a younger son of the noble house of Montmorency. Having formed the design of accompanying the crusade proclaimed by Innocent III. to the Holy Land, he left at the disposal of his wife, Mathilde de Garlande, and his kinsman, the Bishop of Paris, a sum of money to devote to some pious work in his absence. They agreed to apply it to the erection of a monastery for nuns in this secluded valley, that had already acquired a reputation for sanctity in connection with the old chapel dedicated to St. Lawrence, which attracted large num-

bers of worshippers. The foundations of the church and monastery were laid in 1204. They were designed by the same architect who built the Cathedral of Amiens, and ere long the graceful and beautiful structures were seen rising in the wilderness. The nuns belonged to the Cistercian order. Their dress was white woollen, with a black veil; but afterwards they adopted as their distinctive badge a large scarlet cross on their white scapulary, as the symbol of the 'Institute of the Holy Sacrament.' The abbey underwent the usual history of such institutions. Distinguished at first by the strictness of its discipline and the piety of its inmates, it became gradually corrupted with increasing wealth, till, in the end of the sixteenth century, it had grown notorious for gross and scandalous abuses. . . . But at length its revival arose out of one of the most obvious abuses connected with it. The patronage of the institution, like that of others, had been distributed without any regard to the fitness of the occupants, even to girls of immature age. In this manner the abbey of Port Royal accidentally fell to the lot of one who was destined by her ardent piety to breathe a new life into it, and by her indomitable and lofty genius to give it an undying reputation. Jacqueline Marie Arnauld—better known by her official name, La Mère Angélique—was appointed abbess of Port Royal when she was only eight years of age. She was descended from a distinguished family belonging originally to the old noblesse of Provence, but which had migrated to Auvergne and settled there. Of vigorous healthiness, both mental and physical, the Arnaulds had already acquired a merited position and name in the annals of France. In the beginning of the sixteenth century it found its way to Paris in the person of Antoine Arnauld, Seigneur de la Mothe, the grandfather of the heroine of Port Royal. . . . Antoine Arnauld married the youthful daughter of M. Marion, the Avocat-général. . . . The couple had twenty children, and felt, as may be imagined, the pressure of providing for so many. Out of this pressure came the remarkable lot of two of the daughters. The benefices of the Church were a fruitful field of provision, and the avocat-général, the maternal grandfather of the children, had large ecclesiastical influence. The result was the appointment not only of one daughter to the abbey of Port Royal, but also of a younger sister, Agnès, only six years of age, to the abbey of St. Cyr, about six miles distant from Port Royal. . . . At the age of eleven, in the year 1602, Angélique was installed Abbess of Port Royal. Her sister took the veil at the age of seven. . . . The remarkable story of Angélique's conversion by the preaching of a Capucin friar in 1608, her strange contest with her parents which followed, the strengthening impulses in different directions which her religious life received, first from the famous St. Francis de Sales, and finally, and especially, from the no less remarkable Abbé de St. Cyran, all belong to the history of Port Royal."—J. Tulloch, *Pascal*, ch. 4.—"The numbers at the Port Royal had increased to eighty, and the situation was so unhealthy that there were many deaths. In 1626 they moved to Paris, and the abbey in the fields remained for many years deserted. M. Zamet, a pious but not a great man, for a while had the spiritual charge of the Port Royal, but in 1634 the abbé of St. Cyran became its director. To his influence is due the position it took in the coming conflict of Jansenism, and the effects of his teachings can be seen in the sisters, and in most of the illustrious recluses who attached themselves to the

monastery. St. Cyran had been an early associate of Jansenius, whose writings became such a fire-brand in the Church. As young men they devoted the most of five years to an intense study of St. Augustine. It is said Jansenius read all of his works ten times, and thirty times his treatises against the Pelagians. The two students resolved to attempt a reformation in the belief of the Church, which they thought was falling away from many of the tenets of the father. Jansenius was presently made bishop of Ypres by the Spanish as a reward for a political tract, but he pursued his studies in his new bishopric. . . . In 1640, the Augustinus appeared, in which the bishop of Ypres sought, by a full reproduction of the doctrines of St. Augustine, to bring the Church back from the errors of the Pelagians to the pure and severe tenets of the great father. The doctrine of grace, the very corner-stone of the Christian faith, was that which Jansenius labored to



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revive. Saint Augustine had taught that, before the fall of our first parents, man, being in a state of innocence, could of his own free will do works acceptable to God; but after that his nature was so corrupted, that no good thing could proceed from it, save only as divine grace worked upon him. This grace God gave as He saw fit, working under his eternal decrees, and man, except as predestined and elected to its sovereign help, could accomplish no righteous act, and must incur God's just wrath. But the Pelagians and semi-Pelagians had departed from this doctrine, and attributed a capacity to please God, to man's free will and the deeds proceeding from it—a belief which could but foster his carnal pride and hasten his damnation. The Jesuits were always desirous to teach religion so that it could most easily be accepted, and they had inclined to semi-Pelagian doctrines, rather than to the difficult truths of St. Augustine. Yet no one questioned his authority. The dispute was as to the exact interpretation of his writings. Jansenius claimed to have nothing in his great book save the very word of Augustine, or its legitimate result. The

Jesuits replied that his writings contained neither the doctrine of Augustine nor the truth of God. They appealed to the Pope for the condemnation of these heresies. Jansenius had died before the publication of his book, but his followers, who were soon named after him, endeavored to defend his works from censure."—J. B. Perkins, *France under Mazarin*, v. 2, ch. 20.—"The syndic Cornet laid before the Sorbonne seven theses from the *Augustinus* (1649). Eight-and-eighty bishops now demanded a condemnation of the first five, whilst eleven bishops requested a delay, or at least that the theses should receive due consideration. The five theses were ultimately condemned as heretical by Innocent X in the Bull *Cum occasione*.

The five propositions read as follows:—(1) Some of God's commandments, owing to the absence of the needful Grace, cannot be fulfilled even by the just. (2) Man is unable to withstand inward Grace. (3) Merit and demerit presuppose freedom from physical compulsion, but not freedom from necessity. (4) The Semi-Pelagians erred in teaching that the human will is able to resist or to follow Grace. (5) It is Semi-Pelagian to hold that Christ died for all men. It had been hoped that the Pope's decision would end the controversy; as a matter of fact it made it more acute. The Jansenists themselves, indeed, respected the judgment to the extent of admitting the falsehood of the censured propositions, but they did not hold themselves defeated. Arnauld, for instance, denied that the propositions really represented the teaching of Jansenius; in other words, whilst admitting that the *quaestio iuris* was definitely solved, he raised the *quaestio facti*, justifying his conduct by the assertion that in questions of fact the Church's decisions could lay no claim to inward assent, but only to a respectful silence. Simultaneously an assault was led on the Jesuits' system of morality, to which Pascal devoted the larger portion of his *Lettres provinciales* (1656-57). Alexander VII indeed rejected the subterfuge (1656), but without bringing the controversy to an end. A formulary, which was offered for subscription by the General Assembly of the Clergy (1657), was rejected by many on the pretext that it was disapproved by Rome. Even the formulary drawn up by the Holy See (1665) was not accepted everywhere unconditionally, though the king had again threatened to withdraw their benefices from all who refused to sign it. Four bishops (of Alet, Angers, Beauvais, and Pamiers) issued pastoral letters in which they recommended the observance of a discreet silence on the question of fact. Their manifesto threatened further complications, but soon after the accession of Clement IX (1667-69) a compromise was reached. The four bishops signed the formulary, at the same time giving private expression to their own convictions in a separate protocol, and the Pope declared himself satisfied. The peace was generally kept until the end of the century, though trifling conflicts were not wanting. The edition of the works of St. Augustine, undertaken by the Benedictines of St. Maur (1679-1700), was made a subject of severe strictures by the Jesuits and their allies, but the quarrel did not spread, for the attention of the French was then concentrated on the question of the Regalia (182)."—F. X. Funk, *Manual of church history*, pp. 156-157.—"The members of the Port Royal adopted the Jansenist cause. Saint Cyran had been a fellow worker with Jansenius, and he welcomed the *Augustinus* as a book to revive and purify the faith of the Church. . . . The rigid predestinarianism of Jansen had a natural attraction for the

stern zeal of the Port Royal. The religion of the convent and of those connected with it bordered on asceticism. They lived in the constant awe of God, seeking little communion with the world, and offering to it little compromise. . . . An intense and rigorous religious life adopts an intense and rigorous belief. The Jansenists resembled the English and American Puritans. They shared their Calvinistic tenets and their strict morality. A Jansenist, said the Jesuits, is a Calvinist saying mass. No accusation was more resented by those of the Jansenist party. They sought no alliance with the Protestants. Saint Cyran and Arnauld wrote prolifically against the Calvinists. They were certainly separated from the latter by their strong devotion to two usages of the Catholic Church which were especially objectionable to Protestants—the mass and the confessional. . . . In 1647, Mother Angelique with some of the sisters returned to Port Royal in the Fields. The convent at Paris continued in close relations with it, but the abbey in the fields was to exhibit the most important phases of devotional life. Before the return of the sisters, this desolate spot had begun to be the refuge for many eminent men, whose careers became identified with the fate of the abbey. 'We saw arrive,' writes one of them, 'from diverse provinces, men of different professions, who, like mariners that had suffered shipwreck, came to seek the Port.' M. le Maitre, a nephew of Mother Angelique, a lawyer of much prominence, a counsellor of state, a favorite of the chancellor and renowned for his eloquent harangues, abandoned present prosperity and future eminence, and in 1638 built a little house, near the monastery, and became the first of those who might be called the hermits of the Port Royal. Not taking orders, nor becoming a member of any religious body, he sought a life of lonely devotion in this barren place. . . . Others gradually followed, until there grew up a community, small in numbers, but strong in influence, united in study, in penance, in constant praise and worship. Though held together by no formal vows, few of those who put hand to the plough turned back from the work. They left their beloved retreat only when expelled by force, and with infinite regret. The monastery itself had become dilapidated. It was surrounded by stagnant waters, and the woods near by were full of snakes. But the recluses found religious joy amid this desolation. . . . As their numbers increased they did much, however, to improve the desolate retreat they had chosen. . . . Some of the recluses cultivated the ground. Others even made shoes, and the Jesuits dubbed them the cobblers. They found occupation not only in such labors and in solitary meditation, but in the more useful work of giving the young an education that was sound in learning and grounded in piety. The schools of the Port Royal had a troubled existence of about fifteen years. Though they rarely had over fifty pupils, yet in this brief period they left their mark. Racine, Tillemont, and many others of fruitful scholarship and piety were among the pupils who were watched and trained by the grave anchorites with a tender and fostering care. . . . The judicious teachers of the Port Royal taught reading in French, and in many ways did much to improve the methods of French instruction and scholarship. The children were thoroughly trained also in Greek and Latin, in logic and mathematics. Their teachers published admirable manuals for practical study in many branches. 'They sought,' says one, 'to render study more agreeable than play or games.' The jealousy of the Jesuits, who

were well aware of the advantages of controlling the education of the young, at last obtained the order for the final dispersion of these little schools, and in 1660 they were closed for ever. Besides these manuals for teaching, the literature of the Port Royal comprised many controversial works, chief among them the forty-two volumes of Arnauld. It furnished also a translation of the Bible by Sacy, which, though far from possessing the merits of the English version of King James, is one of the best of the many French translations. But the works of Blaise Pascal were the great productions of the Port Royal, as he himself was its chief glory. The famous Provincial Letters originated from the controversy over Jansenism, though they soon turned from doctrinal questions to an attack on the morality of the Jesuits that permanently injured the influence of that body."

—J. B. Perkins, *France under Mazarin*, ch. 20.—See also EDUCATION: Modern 17th century: France: Jansenist schools.

ALSO IN: M. A. Schimmelpenninck, *Select memoirs of Port Royal*.

1702-1715. — Renewed persecution. — Suppression and destruction of the monastery.—Bull Unigenitus and its enforcement.—"The Jesuits had been for some time at a low ebb, in the beginning of the 18th century, the Cardinal de Noailles, Archbishop of Paris, then ruling the King through Madame de Maintenon, and himself submitting to the direction of Bossuet. The imprudence of the Jansenists, their indefatigable spirit of dispute, restored to their enemies the opportunity to retrieve their position. In 1702, forty Sorbonne doctors resuscitated the celebrated question of fact concerning the five propositions of Jansenius, and maintained that, in the presence of the decisions of the Church on points of fact and not of dogma, a respectful silence sufficed without internal acquiescence. Some other propositions of a Jansenistic tendency accompanied this leading question. Bossuet hastened to interfere to stifle the matter, and to induce the doctors to retract. . . . Thirty-nine doctors retracted out of forty. The King forbade the publication thenceforth of anything concerning these matters, but, in his own name, and that of Philip V. [of Spain, his grandson], entreated Pope Clement XI. to renew the constitutions of his predecessors against Jansenism. . . . Clement XI. responded to the King's wishes by a Bull which fell in the midst of the assembly of the clergy in 1705. Cardinal de Noailles, who presided, made reservations against the infallibility of the Church in affairs of fact. The assembly, animated with a Gallican spirit, accepted the Bull, but established that the constitutions of the Popes bind the whole Church only 'when they have been accepted by the bodies of the pastors,' and that this acceptance on the part of the bishops is made 'by way of judgment.' The court of Rome was greatly offended that the bishops should claim to 'judge' after it, and this gave rise to long negotiations: the King induced the bishops to offer to the Pope extenuating explanations. The Jesuits, however, regained the ascendancy at Versailles, and prepared against Cardinal de Noailles a formidable engine of war." The Cardinal had given his approval, some years before, to a work—"Moral Reflections on the New Testament"—published by Father Quesnel, who afterwards became a prominent Jansenist. The Jesuits now procured the condemnation of this work, by the congregation of the Index, and a decree from the Pope prohibiting it. "This was a rude assault on Cardinal de Noailles. The decree, however, was not received in France,

through a question of form, or rather, perhaps, because the King was then dissatisfied with the Pope, on account of the concessions of Clement XI. to the House of Austria. The Jansenists gained nothing thereby. At this very moment, a terrible blow was about to fall on the dearest and most legitimate object of their veneration." The nuns of Port-Royal of the Fields having refused to subscribe to the papal constitution of 1705, the Pope had subjected them to the Abbess of Port-Royal of Paris, "who did not share their Augustinian faith (1708). They resisted. Meanwhile, Father La Chaise [the king's confessor] died, and Le Tellier succeeded him. The affair was carried to the most extreme violence. Cardinal de Noailles, a man of pure soul and feeble character, was persuaded, in order to prove that he was not a Jansenist, to cruelty, despite himself, towards the rebellious nuns. They were torn from their monastery and dispersed through different convents (November, 1709). The illustrious ab-



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bey of Port-Royal, hallowed, even in the eyes of unbelievers, by the name of so many great men, by the memory of so much virtue, was utterly demolished, by the order of the lieutenant of police, D'Argenson. Two years after, as if it were designed to exile even the shades that haunted the valley, the dead of Port-Royal were exhumed, and their remains transferred to a village cemetery (at Magny). Noailles, while he entered into this persecution, took the same course, nevertheless, as the nuns of Port-Royal, by refusing to retract the approbation which he had given to the 'Moral Reflections.' Le Tellier caused him to be denounced to the King. . . . The King prohibited Quesnel's book by a decree in council (November 11, 1711), and demanded of the Pope a new condemnation of this book, in a form that could be received in France. The reply of Clement XI. was delayed until September 8, 1713; this was the celebrated Unigenitus Bull, the work of Le Tellier far more than of the Pope, and which, instead of the general terms of the Bull of 1708, expressly condemned 101 propositions extracted from the 'Moral Reflections.' . . . The Bull dared condemn the very words of St. Augustine and of St. Paul

himself; there were propositions, on other matters than grace, the condemnation of which was and should have been scandalous, and seemed veritably the triumph of Jesuitism over Christianity; for example, those concerning the necessity of the love of God. It had dared to condemn this: 'There is no God, there is no religion, where there is not charity.' This was giving the pontifical sanction to the Jesuitical theories most contrary to the general spirit of Christian theology. It was the same with the maxims relative to the Holy Scriptures. The Pope had anathematized the following propositions: 'The reading of the Holy Scriptures is for all. Christians should keep the Sabbath-day holy by reading the Scriptures; it is dangerous to deprive them of these.' And also this: 'The fear of unjust excommunication should not prevent us from doing our duty.' This was overturning all political Gallicanism." The acceptance of the Bull was strongly but vainly resisted. The King and the King's malignant confessor spared no exercise of their unbridled power to compel submission to it. "It was endeavored to stifle by terror public opinion contrary to the Bull: exiles, imprisonments, were multiplied from day to day [and still, when Louis XIV died, on September 1, 1715, the struggle was not at an end]."—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV*, v. 2, ch. 6.—"It is now time that I should say something of the infamous bull *Unigenitus*, which by the unsurpassed audacity and scheming of Father Le Tellier and his friends was forced upon the Pope and the world. I need not enter into a very lengthy account of the celebrated Papal decree which has made so many martyrs, depopulated our schools, introduced ignorance, fanaticism, and misrule, rewarded vice, thrown the whole community into the greatest confusion, caused disorder everywhere, and established the most arbitrary and the most barbarous inquisition; evils which have doubled within the last thirty years. I will content myself with a word or two, and will not blacken further the pages of my Memoirs. . . . It is enough to say that the new bull condemned in set terms the doctrines of St. Paul, . . . and also those of St. Augustin, and of other fathers; doctrines which have always been adopted by the Popes, by the Councils, and by the Church itself. The bull, as soon as published, met with a violent opposition in Rome from the cardinals there, who went by sixes, by eights, and by tens, to complain of it to the Pope. . . . He protested . . . that the publication had been made without his knowledge, and put off the cardinals with compliments, excuses, and tears, which last he could always command. The constitution had the same fate in France as in Rome. The cry against it was universal."—Duke of Saint Simon, *Memoirs* (abridged tr. by St. John), v. 3, ch. 6.—"Jansenism . . . laid hold upon all ecclesiastical bodies with very few exceptions, it predominated altogether in theological literature all public schools that were not immediately under the Jesuits, or, as in Spain, under the Inquisition, held Jansenist opinions, at least so far as the majority of their theologians were concerned. In Rome itself this teaching was strongly represented amongst the cardinals." Fénelon declared "that nobody knew—now that the controversy and the condemnations had gone on for sixty years—in what the erroneous doctrine exactly consisted; for the Roman court stuck fast to the principle of giving no definition of what ought to be believed, so that the same doctrine which it apparently rejected in one form, was unhesitatingly accepted at Rome itself when ex-

pressed in other though synonymous terms. . . . The same thing which under one name was condemned, was under another, as the teaching of the Thomists or Augustinians, declared to be perfectly orthodox. . . . Just because nobody could tell in what sense such propositions as those taken from the works of Jansenius or Quesnel were to be rejected, did they become valuable; for the whole question was turned into one of blind obedience and submission, without previous investigation. The Jesuit D'Aubenton, who as Tellier's agent in Rome had undertaken to procure that the passages selected from Quesnel's book should be condemned, repeatedly informed his employer that at Rome everything turned upon the papal infallibility; to get this passed whilst the king was ready to impose, by force of arms, upon the bishops and clergy the unquestioning acceptance of the papal constitution, was the only object."—J. J. I. von Döllinger, *Studies in European history*, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: W. H. Jarvis, *History of the Church of France*, v. 2, ch. 5-7.—F. Rocquain, *Revolutionary spirit preceding the French Revolution*, ch. 1.—C. Beard, *Port Royal*.—C. A. Sainte-Beuve, *Port Royal*.

1756-1759.—Later development of Jansenism. See FRANCE: 1756-1759.

PORT SAID, seaport and important coaling station of Egypt, at the Mediterranean end of the Suez canal. (See AFRICA: Map.) It was founded in 1859 and is the residence of the governor-general for the Suez canal. With Ismailia it had a population of about 91,000 in 1917. See EGYPT: 1921-1922.

PORT SUNLIGHT, "garden city" in Cheshire, England, built by Lord Leverhulme. See CITY PLANNING: Great Britain.

PORT TREATY (1921). See NEW YORK CITY: 1919-1923.

PORTA, Giovanni Battista della (c.1538-1615), Italian natural philosopher. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Photography.

PORTA MARINA, one of the ancient gates of Zara, Dalmatia. See ZARA.

PORTAGE DES SIOUX, village in St. Charles county, Missouri, fourteen miles northeast of St. Charles. A peace conference was held here with the Indians after the War of 1812. See MISSOURI: 1812-1815.

PORTALIS, Jean Étienne Marie (1746-1807), French jurist. Leader of the Moderate party in the Council of Ancients, 1795-1797; assisted in preparing the Concordat, 1801.

PORT-AU-PRINCE, or Port Républicain, capital and chief seaport of Haiti, on the west coast of the island. The population in 1923 was about 20,000. See HAITI: 1804-1880; 1902; 1911-1916.

PORTE. See SUBLIME PORTE.

PORTE ST. ANTOINE, Battle of (1652). See FRANCE: 1651-1653.

PORTEOUS RIOT. See EDINBURGH: 1736.

PORTER, David Dixon (1813-1891), American admiral. Entered the navy, 1829; served in the Mexican War; commanded a squadron under Farragut on the Mississippi, 1862; aided Grant at Vicksburg; commanded naval forces attacking Fort Fisher, 1864-1865. See U.S.A.: 1862 (April: On the Mississippi); (December: On the Mississippi); 1863 (January-April: On the Mississippi); 1864 (March-May: Louisiana); 1864-1865 (December-January: North Carolina).

PORTER, David Rittenhouse (1788-1867), governor of Pennsylvania, 1839-1845. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1838-1845.

PORTER, Horace (1837-1921), American soldier and diplomat. Served in the Civil War; executive secretary to President Grant, 1869-1873; ambassador to France, 1897-1905; delegate to the Hague Peace Conference, 1907. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

PORTER, James Davis (b. 1828), governor of Tennessee, 1875-1879. See TENNESSEE: 1870-1884.

PORTER, Joseph Yates (1847-), American physician. Noted for his work in preventing the spread of yellow fever. See FLORIDA: 1888-1905.

PORTER, Peter Buel (1773-1844), American soldier and political leader. Member of the House of Representatives, 1808-1812; 1815-1816; served in War of 1812; secretary of war, 1828-1829. See U.S.A.: 1814 (July-September).

PORTLAND, William Henry Cavendish Bentinck, 3rd Duke of (1738-1809), English statesman. Member of House of Commons, 1761-1762; entered House of Lords, 1762; lord chamberlain, 1765-1766; lord lieutenant of Ireland, 1782; prime minister, 1783; 1807-1809; home secretary, 1794-1801. See ENGLAND: 1806-1812.

PORTLAND, Maine, seaport and largest city in Maine, on Casco bay. The population in 1920 was 69,196. It is an important railway and steamship terminus. It was settled by the English in 1632, the original name being Falmouth. The name was changed to Portland in 1786. Its Indian name was Machigonne.

1814.—Naval battle. See MAINE: 1812-1814.

PORTLAND, Oregon, largest city in Oregon, one of the principal ports of the United States, on the Pacific coast, and a terminus for seven of the transcontinental railroad systems. The city has an area of seventy square miles, and a population, 1920, of 258,288. It is situated on the confluence of the Willamette and the Columbia rivers, with the Cascade mountains as a background, and is noted for its parks and sunken gardens. Portland is the chief outlet of the rich Columbia and Willamette valleys, and the home of important manufacturing industries, such as lumber and timber products, food products, fish, fruit and vegetable canning and fruit packing, foundries, machine shops, railway cars, and cordage and twine.

1845.—**Founding of city.**—The city was founded in 1845 by F. W. Pettygrove and A. L. Lovejoy, and named in honor of Portland, Maine.

1905.—**Lewis and Clark exposition.**—"The Lewis and Clark Centennial and American Pacific Exposition and Oriental Fair" (to give its full official title), conducted at Portland from the beginning of June until the middle of October, 1905, in commemoration of the first exploration of the American continent from the Mississippi to the Pacific, was one of the most interesting and attractive of the undertakings of its kind in the last decade. Specially as an exhibit of the wonderful natural resources of the great Northwest, and of the more wonderful rapidity of their exploitation, it seemed wholly satisfying to all who visited it. The reclamation work of the United States government, shown elaborately by models and otherwise in the Irrigation Building of the extensive national exhibit, afforded a feature of uncommon attractiveness. The associated Forestry Building, with its walls of mighty logs and its grand pillars of firs and cedars, six and seven feet in diameter, was a piece of unique architecture that drew all eyes. "The Oregon Cathedral," it came to be called. It is now used as a museum. In metals, minerals, fruits and grains, the wealth of the Northwest was astonishingly displayed; and the

Japanese from the farther side of the Pacific made the most of the opportunity to spread their artistic wares before American buyers. The scenic setting of the Exposition grounds, on the border of a lake and with a background of hill rising from Willamette river, was a theme of praise in all reports of it.

PORTMORE, Siege of (1598). See ULSTER: 1585-1608.

PORTO NOVO, Battle of (1781). See INDIA: 1780-1783.

PORTO RICO: Area.—Population.—Geography.—"Porto Rico, forming the southern extremity of the chain of islands known as the Greater Antilles, is 1,380 miles from New York, in a southeasterly direction, and about 450 miles to the East of Cuba. It lies between 17° 54' and 18° 30' N. latitude, and 65° 35' and 67° 15' W. longitude. It is fourth in size, and is the easternmost, of the four larger Antilles (Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico). In general outline, the island forms an irregular parallelogram, its length east and west being a little less than 100 miles, and its breadth north and south about 35 miles. It has an area of 3,606 square miles, or about 2,300,000 acres [and a population, 1920, of 1,299,809]. To the rugged conformation of the island, owing to a series of mountains of volcanic origin, with summits over 3,000 feet in height, are due not only the varied scenery, but also the great fertility of the valleys and coastal plains and, to a large extent, the healthfulness of the country. . . . The main divide ascends rapidly from the west coast to a height of about 3,000 feet and continues toward the center of the island at an average elevation of 2,500 feet, terminating in the Luquillo Range, in which is El Yunque, the highest mountain in the island (3,700 feet). The second highest elevation in the island is El Guillarte Mountain, with a height of 3,600 feet."—Insular Government Board of Information, *Porto Rico, the Riviera of the West*, p. 19.—The island, about three times the size of Long Island, is one of the most densely populated areas of 3,000 or 4,000 square miles on the face of the earth, approximating the density of population of Belgium. Several small adjacent islands are regarded as belonging to Porto Rico and were included in the cession to the United States. One of these, named Viequez, about twenty-one miles long and six miles wide, is very fertile, and has about 10,000 inhabitants. On another, called Culebra, there are some 600 or 700 people. The remaining islands are smaller and unimportant. The name, Porto Rico, meaning "rich port," is significant of its wealth in mineral and agricultural resources.

Resources.—The total area of cultivated land in Porto Rico (1920), was 2,022,404 acres of which 1,303,547 acres were improved land. The chief products of the island are sugar, tobacco, coffee, fruits, vegetables, textile fibres, and sea island cotton; the principal industries are the manufacture of hats, cigars and cigarettes. In 1921, the sugar exported amounted to 409,407 tons valued at \$72,440,924; leaf and scrap tobacco amounted to over 14,000,000 tons, were cigars to 152,323,916 tons and cigarettes to 780,962 tons. The trade balance in favor of the island rose from a previous maximum of \$27,780,417 (1916), to \$54,422,915, in 1920. Trade relations are very close with the United States, which receives about 89 per cent of all the exports from, and sells 93 per cent of the imports into Porto Rico.—Based on Insular Government Board of Information, *Porto Rico, the Riviera of the West*.

Government under Spanish rule.—"The civil

government of the island was the Governor-General, and the Governor-General was the civil government. All power was lodged in his hands and he was accountable only to Madrid. He was at once the executive, the legislative, and the judicial head. As Captain-General, he had chief command of the military forces, and made such disposition of them as he chose; as Governor-General, he conducted civil affairs, whether insular or municipal, according to his own pleasure. . . . If, as occasionally happened, he was a wise and good man, seeking the welfare of the people rather than his own personal enrichment or the advancement of his political friends, there was less cause for complaint from the people, who were completely ignored. As the position was one of great power and of large opportunities for pecuniary profit, it not infrequently went to those who were prepared to exploit it in their own interests."—H. K. Carroll (Special Commissioner), *Report on Porto Rico*, 1899, p. 15.—In 1536, legislation was enacted for changing the method of government and for the regulation of public property and common pasturages; but notwithstanding all this, for many years the form of control alternated between *alcaldes* selected by the inhabitants and annual governors appointed by the council of the Indies.

Aborigines.—Character of present population.—"The origin of the primitive inhabitants of the West Indian archipelago has been the subject of much learned controversy, ending, like all such discussions, in different theories and more or less veri-similar conjecture. It appears that at the time of the discovery these islands were inhabited by three races of different origin. . . . The larger Antilles, Cuba, Santo Domingo, and Puerto Rico, were occupied by a race which probably originated from some part of the southern division of the northern continent. The chronicles mention the Guaycures and others as their possible ancestors, and Stahl traces their origin to a mixture of the Phœnicians with the aborigines of remote antiquity. The information which we possess with regard to the habits and customs of the inhabitants of Boriquén [Porto Rico] at the time of discovery is too scanty and too unreliable to permit us to form more than a speculative opinion of the degree of culture attained by them. Friar Abbad, in the fourth chapter of his history, gives a description of the character and customs of the people of Boriquén taken wholly from the works of Oviedo, Herrera, Robertson, Raynal, and others. Like more of the aboriginal inhabitants of America, the natives of Boriquén were copper-colored, but somewhat darker than the inhabitants of the neighboring islands. They were shorter of stature than the Spaniards, but corpulent and well-proportioned, with flat noses, wide nostrils, dull eyes, bad teeth, narrow foreheads, the skull artificially flattened before and behind so as to give it a conical shape, with long, black coarse hair, beardless and hairless on the rest of the body. . . . Their whole appearance betrayed a lazy, indolent habit, and they showed extreme aversion to labor or fatigue of any kind. They put forth no exertion save what was necessary to obtain food, and only rose from their 'hamácas' or 'Jamácas,' or shook off their habitual indolence to play a game of ball (*batey*) or attend the dances (*areytos*) which were accompanied by rude music and the chanting of whatever happened to occupy their minds at the time. Notwithstanding their indolence and the unsubstantial nature of their food, they were comparatively strong and robust, as they proved in many a personal tussle

with the Spaniards."—R. A. Van Middleedyk, *History of Puerto Rico* (M. G. Brumbaugh, ed., *Expansion of the Republic Series*, pp. 191-193).—"Generally speaking, the Porto Rican of today may be said to be descended from three distinct races—the Indian, the Spaniard and the negro. . . . The Spaniard . . . brought no women with him, so that there sprang up wherever he went a mixed race, *pur sang* on the one hand and aboriginal on the other—the *mestizo*, hybrid both physically and morally. The negro slave imported early in the sixteenth century . . . introduced a new racial element, and by the side of the *mestizo* there developed the *zambo*, common offspring of the two. Later, . . . negro women from Santo Domingo and other islands added the mulatto to an already heterogeneous condition of race. It was not until very late in the history of the island that corrective features and elements were introduced by a new influx of prosperous Spanish settlers and their families driven from Venezuela and the mainland by the incessant revolutions in those countries."—F. P. Delgado, *Life in picturesque Porto Rico* (New York Times Current History, May, 1920).—The present "inhabitants are mostly of Spanish origin—emigrants from Spain during the last 400 years and their descendants. There is a large representation from the Canary Islands and the Balearic group in the Mediterranean, a large number of Corsicans and their descendants, and consequently they are French subjects, a few Germans, a few English, and very few Americans before the occupation; a few Venezuelans, a few from Santo Domingo, and a few Cubans, but the most of the population is Spanish. [Distribution according to color, 1920, was as follows: White, 948,709; black, 49,246; mulatto, 335,192; Chinese, 12; Japanese 8.]"—56th Congress, 1st Session, Senate Document no. 147, p. 1.

1493-1798. — Discovery. — Spanish domination. — Attacks by European invaders.—"It was on his second voyage [1493] to the new world that Columbus, while sailing cautiously among the uncharted reefs and unknown isles of the Antilles, sighted a large and luxuriant island, which the natives called 'Borinquen' [Porto Rico]. Coasting around the southern shores of this new land, the discoverer put into a large calm bay on the north-western coast where a beautiful spring gushed from the hills and flowed in a good-sized stream to the bay. In commemoration of this event the admiral christened the place 'Aguadilla,' and named the new island San Juan Bautista. . . . Continuing on his voyage to Santo Domingo, Columbus left Porto Rico astern and never again revisited it. [See AMERICA: 1493-1496.] On board his ship, however, was a romantic and adventurous 'Conquistador' called Juan Ponce de Leon, and filled with admiration at the wonderful luxuriance and fertility of the new island, he set sail from Santo Domingo in 1508 and landed at the bay of Aguada. From this spot he travelled eastward and discovered an almost land-locked bay, which he named 'Puerto Rico.' He was received hospitably by the natives and especially by Agueynaba, the cacique, and greatly pleased at the richness of the island, he returned to Santo Domingo and related the story of his explorations to Governor Ovando. The latter thereupon furnished additional supplies and men, and in 1509 De Leon again landed at Puerto Rico Bay, and at a spot known as Caparra built a settlement, which was later abandoned [1520] in favour of the more desirable . . . [place] of San Juan, the present capital. From here Ponce de Leon set

forth on his famous voyage in search of the Fountain of Youth, which resulted in the discovery of Florida. . . . From the very first Ponce de Leon realised the natural advantages which San Juan possessed for fortifications, and every energy and resource was devoted to erecting a complicated and extensive series of walls, forts, castles, and moats about the city. At the entrance to the harbour, upon a precipitous bluff, was built the massive Morro, which was not completed until 1584 and which still stands, grim and forbidding. . . . For a long time after the Spaniards settled on the island, the Indians were peaceful and hospitable, and while often oppressed, were restrained from acts of violence by their belief in the immortality of the Europeans. . . . Convinced that their oppressors were mere men, a general rebellion and massacre was planned, and the town of Aguada was burned, sacked, and the inhabitants murdered. One of the inhabitants escaped the slaughter and, reaching Caparra, related his story to Ponce de Leon, who, with a strong body of troops, at once commenced an active warfare on the savages, so many of whom were slain or seized for slaves that there was no further danger of an uprising. The Indians were, however, the least of Porto Rico's troubles, and from 1516 until 1798 the island was constantly attacked and harassed by invaders, and the people were kept busy defending their island from capture and devastation. In 1535 and 1543 French privateers sacked and burned several of the smaller towns, and in 1565 Sir John Hawkins swept down upon the island, to be followed in 1572 by Sir Francis Drake, but the powerful forts and stubborn defence of the inhabitants were too much for the buccaneers, who sullenly sailed away, to return in 1595, when they learned that a galleon with vast treasure was in San Juan Harbour. Better had it been for the dreaded freebooters to have left Porto Rico alone, for Hawkins died when off the eastern end of the island, and Drake, beaten and nearly annihilated by the heavy fire of the forts, sailed off towards South America, and died ere he reached Porto Bello. It was a heart-breaking defeat for the doughty Englishman, for the Spaniards removed over four million dollars from the ships in the harbour and secreted it ashore, so that Drake, who had helped destroy the Armada a few years before, was obliged to leave unmoested more gold than he had taken from the famous fleet. Once more in 1597 the English returned to Porto Rico, this time with a fleet of 20 ships, under Lord Cumberland. Landing at Santurce, the British defeated the Spaniards at San Antonio bridge and marched into San Juan. The English were on the verge of victory, and Morro had capitulated, when disease broke out among the invaders and they were compelled to abandon the island. In 1625 Morro was again under fire, for a fleet of Dutch war vessels invaded the city and trained their guns on the fortress. The bombardment was ineffectual however, and after burning a large portion of the town, the Dutch sailed away, leaving one of their ships behind. From this time until 1702 French, Dutch, and English buccaneers, privateers and men-of-war were a constant menace to the Porto Ricans, but one and all were defeated and driven off. Then for nearly one hundred years the island was left in peace until in 1797, when Sir Ralph Abercromby landed a large force at Santurce, threw up trenches, and placed batteries on Miramar Hill and prepared for a long and tedious siege. After two weeks of cannonading and ferocious hand-to-hand fighting, the British were

obliged to abandon the attack, and retreated with a loss of nearly two hundred and fifty men and many prisoners, guns, ammunition, and supplies."—A. H. Verrill, *Porto Rico past and present and San Domingo of to-day*, pp. 1-8.

1800-1897.—Insular representation.—Revenues.—"Diputación Provincial."—Liberation of slaves.—Local government granted.—In 1800, the free inhabitants of Porto Rico numbered 155,000, and the population was steadily increasing. Trade with countries other than Spain was permitted by the home Government, and resulted at once in an increased industrial activity in the island and a material expansion of its commerce. . . . The revenues of the island from import taxes were increased by the creation of ports of entry at Aguadilla, Cabo Rojo, Ponce, and Fajardo and the establishment there of custom-houses through which cargoes from foreign ports might be entered. On July 6, 1808, the Cortes authorized Porto Rico to send its first representative to the mother country. In accordance with the provisions of the Spanish Constitution of 1812, drawn up by the Cortes, Porto Rico's Diputación Provincial, a body possessing a few legislative powers, but whose functions were chiefly executive, met in 1813. When Fernando VII became King in 1814 he abolished the Cortes, withdrawing from Porto Rico the constitutional privileges it had just commenced to enjoy. Nevertheless, along other lines he adopted a comparatively liberal policy with regard to Porto Rico, encouraging the extension of its colonization and permitting trade with foreign countries, including the United States, the Government of which had been recognized by Spain, but limiting commerce to Spanish ships. The rebellion of his subjects, however, soon forced the King to recognize the Constitution of 1812 and restore the Cortes, whereupon Porto Rico was again allowed the privilege of a representative therein. Under the same Constitution, 45 municipal councils, delegates to the Insular Assembly, and judges were elected. The publication of newspapers was resumed and a movement was instituted advocating public instruction, the few schools in existence up to that time having been conducted by the church. In 1821 a wave of rebellion passed over the West Indies, and on December 1 of that year Santo Domingo declared its independence and offered to coöperate with Porto Rico in a similar movement, but the majority of public sentiment in the latter island proved loyal to the Crown and the project was abandoned. Piracy was still being carried on in the vicinity of the West Indies, and in 1823 had become such a menace to commerce that the United States Government sent vessels in command of Commodore Porter with orders to clear the seas of all suspected craft. He secured the coöperation of officials in Porto Rico and captured several vessels in adjacent waters. Porter's activities resulted in clearing the South Atlantic and the Caribbean Sea of the pirates with which it had been infested. Porto Rico benefited greatly by the removal of the danger, and 1,240 vessels are recorded as having entered its ports in 1834. Importations increased from 2,000,000 in 1823 to nearly \$4,000,000 in 1835, while exportations showed a corresponding development. A new source of revenue was established in 1820 in the form of a Government lottery. The population of the island had increased to 315,000. Santo Domingo again submitted to the Government of Spain in 1861, but continued uprisings in that dependency resulted in its abandonment in 1865. Much sympathy and aid were accorded the Do-

minicans by persons in Porto Rico, and the fear that the rebellion might spread to Porto Rico led to the decree of November 20, 1805, calling commissioners from Cuba and Porto Rico to Spain for conference with a view to carrying out the promise of special laws for the colonies. The commissioners to Spain, among other recommendations, advocated the abolishment of slavery in Porto Rico without indemnity to owners. This was one of the paramount issues of the day and was stimulated by concurrent events in the United States. The efforts of the commissioners in Spain were not successful. Much discontent followed, and the situation was assuming a critical aspect when, in 1808, Isabella, in cooperation with the Cortes, turned her attention to the trend of affairs in Porto Rico. During 1809 the home Government authorized a general election for the selection of nine delegates to the Cortes. Representations of this delegation were rewarded by promises of wider liberties. A local governing body, known as the 'Diputación Provincial,' with limited powers of legislation subject to the approval of the Governor, was elected and began its sessions on April 1, 1811. The efforts of the party favoring the abolition of slavery resulted in the decree of June 23, 1870, liberating all slaves over sixty years of age and children under three years of age. It was not until 1873, and the establishment of a Republic in Spain, that all slaves were freed, the owners being indemnified by means of a loan guaranteed by insular revenues. No disorder of any kind followed this act, although 34,000 slaves are said to have been liberated, nor was the result unfavorable to commercial conditions, as is apparent from the value of exports to and after 1873, which increased during the ten years from 1867 to 1877 from \$6,022,502 to \$10,460,950. The value of the import trade also shows a development during the same period from \$8,551,892 to \$13,119,847. In 1870 an English cable company established a landing in Porto Rico, thereby connecting the island by wire with other parts of the world. From 1870 to 1873 Porto Rico was ruled by six successive Governors. Political parties in the island were affiliated with similar parties in Spain, and as the political complexion of Spain varied, so did that of Porto Rico. A municipal law containing certain provisions and other favorable measures were extended to Porto Rico, schools of higher education were established and a new era seemed about to dawn, when in 1874 the republican form of Government in Spain was discontinued and substituted by a provisional Government. The island legislature and city councils were dissolved. Constitutional guarantees were suspended, and the censorship of the press reestablished. The 'Instituto Civil,' a school established in 1873, was closed, and the local militia abolished. Later in the year Alfonso XII became King, and the local assembly, the town councils, and the 'Instituto Civil' were restored. A popular assembly was held in Ponce in 1887, which, while acknowledging allegiance to Spain demanded measures of autonomy, the decentralization of administration, and the right to vote on the island budget. Gradually the cause of autonomy gained popularity under the leadership of men still prominent in the political life of the island to-day. The party eventually became divided into two factions, one advocating complete independence from the political parties on the Peninsula, and the other favoring a compact with the dominant political party in Spain in return for local autonomy. A revolutionary 'junta' was established in New York which laid plans for an

invasion of the island, with Santo Domingo as a base of operations. Revolution in Cuba was gradually bringing affairs there to a crisis. The Cuban insurgents were planning an expedition against Porto Rico, to be joined in that island by sympathizers with the Cuban cause. This situation and the necessity of insuring the loyalty of Porto Rico led to the decree . . . granting [in 1897] to Porto Rico local government in so far as internal affairs, the formation of budgets, treaties of commerce and fixing duties were concerned. . . . On February 10, 1898, a cabinet consisting of five heads of departments of the government, and a president, was appointed, and on March 27 of the same year elections were held; but before the members of the legislative bodies had time to act, or the new plan had been tried, events occurred which were to change the destinies of the island government."—Insular Government Board of Information, *Porto Rico, the Riviera of the West*, pp. 87, 89-91.—"The system of autonomy, which was proclaimed November 25, 1897 [see CUBA: 1895-1898], was never fully installed. . . . The provincial legislature, which was its most important feature, was dissolved when Sampson's fleet appeared, and the Governor-General conducted the government practically on the old plan, except that the ministry, as provided by the autonomistic law, was retained, as follows: Secretary of government or of state, secretary of the treasury, secretary of the fomento or interior, including public works, public instruction, public lands, mines, etc., agriculture and commerce, and secretary of justice and worship. The last three secretaries were subordinate to the secretary of government, through whom all orders from the Governor-General and all communications to or from him must pass. The autonomist law allowed the secretaries or ministers to be members of one or the other of the two legislative chambers. The Governor-General with his council constituted the executive power. No act of his was valid unless approved by one of the secretaries, and the secretaries could issue no order which he had not countersigned. He had the power to convoke or dissolve the chambers, to refer objectionable bills to Madrid for approval or disapproval, and to appoint or remove the secretaries. All matters of a diplomatic character were in his hands exclusively, and, constituted by the Pope patronato real, he was the head of the church in the island and practical director of ecclesiastical affairs. The legislature consisted of two chambers, the council and the house of representatives. The council was composed of fourteen members, eight of whom were elected, and six appointed by the Crown; the house of representatives of one representative for each 25,000 inhabitants, elected by the people. The liberality of this law is further indicated by the fact that it gave the right of suffrage to all males of 25 years of age and over. The two chambers were empowered to legislate on all insular questions, such as the estimates, which must be adopted by the Cortes at Madrid, public instruction, public works, sanitation, charities, etc."—H. K. Carroll (Special Commissioner), *Report on Porto Rico*, 1899, pp. 15-16.

1898 (May).—American bombardment of forts at San Juan. See U.S.A.: 1898 (April-June).

1898 (July-August).—American conquest. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-August: Porto Rico).

1898 (July-December).—Suspension of hostilities.—Cession to the United States. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-December).

1898-1899 (August-July).—Popular feeling in the island on American occupation.—Expectations and desires of the people.—Their character.—Extent of illiteracy.—“All classes of natives of the island welcomed the American Army, American occupation, and American methods, and accepted without hesitation the Stars and Stripes in place of the red and yellow bars. They had not been disloyal to the old flag; but it had come to represent to them, particularly during the present century, in which a class feeling developed between the insular and the peninsular Spaniard, partiality and oppression. In the short war, some of the natives occupying official positions made demonstrations of loyalty to the Crown of Spain, as was perfectly natural, but they were among the first to submit to American rule when the protocol promised cession of the island to the United States. . . . Porto Ricans generally complained that the former Government discriminated in favor of the Spaniard, who, in the distribution of the offices, was preferred to the native, and who, aided by the powerful influence of the authorities, prospered in business as banker, merchant, manufacturer, or agriculturist. They also insist that the internal improvement of the island was neglected; that agriculture bore more than its share of the burden of taxation; that the assessments were very inequitable and unequal; that education was not fostered, and that in general the welfare of the people was not the first concern of their rulers. . . . The largest and most representative gathering, since American occupation, was held in San Juan, October 30, 1898, without distinction of party or class with the object of consultation and formulation of a programme for the future. In brief, the propositions of the congress as submitted to the commissioner for presentation to the President of the United States were these: Immediate termination of military and inauguration of civil government; establishment of the Territorial system, with laws common to other Territories of the Union; a legislature in two branches; suffrage for all male citizens of 21 years of age or over, the right to be surrendered at the end of the first two years by those who do not then know how to read and write; judicial reform; introduction of the jury system; autonomy for municipal governments; taxation on the basis of valuation; free and reciprocal commerce with the ports of the United States; aid for agriculture; obligatory and universal education; trade schools; savings banks. . . . Many Porto Ricans urged the commissioner to represent them as desiring that the military régime be made as short as possible, not because the military governors were in any way objectionable or their rule oppressive, but because the civil status of the island should be fixed with no unnecessary delay. There was no other opinion except among foreign subjects, many of whom thought that the people were not yet ready for self-government, and that the firm hand of military power would be needed for probably two years. . . .

“If the desire to assume the burdens of local self-government may be taken as indicating some degree of capacity for self-government, the people of Porto Rico certainly have the desire. . . . Apart from such qualifications as general education and experience constitute, the commissioner has no hesitation in affirming that the people have good claims to be considered capable of self-government. . . . The unswerving loyalty of Porto Rico to the Crown of Spain, as demonstrated by the truth of history, is no small claim to the confidence and trust of the United States. The people were

obedient under circumstances which provoked revolt after revolt in other Spanish colonies. The habit of obedience is strong among them. Their respect for law is another notable characteristic. They are not turbulent or violent. Riots are almost unknown in the island; so is organized resistance to law; brigandage flourished only for a brief period after the war and its object was revenge rather than rapine. They are not a criminal people. The more violent crimes are by no means common. Burglary is almost unknown. There are many cases of homicide, but the number in proportion to population is not as large as in the United States. Thievery is the most common crime, and petty cases make up a large part of this list of offenses. The people as a whole are a moral, law-abiding class, mild in disposition, easy to govern, and possess the possibilities of developing a high type of citizenship.”—H. K. Carroll (Special Commissioner), *Report on Porto Rico, 1899*, pp. 55-57.—“On the 25th day of July, 1899, an election was held in Adjuntas for municipal officers, and the registration was made in conformity to General Orders, No. 112, c.s., Headquarters Department of Puerto Rico. The order imposed the following qualifications for electors: Men over 21 years old, able to read and write, or who were taxpayers of record, who had been actual residents of the island for at least two years, and of the municipality for six months preceding the date of the election. The number who proved these qualifications before the board of registration was 906, out of a population, according to the census of 1897, of 18,505; that is, less than 5 per cent could vote under the conditions stated. There was much public interest in this election, and it is believed that about all who were eligible were registered. This incident indicated that in the whole island there may be approximately 45,000 who could vote under the conditions of the order above referred to. The class who can not fulfill these conditions, say 75 per cent of the males over 21 years of age, are usually in a state of abject poverty and ignorance, and are assumed to include one-fifth of the inhabitants. They are of the class usually called peones. This word in Spanish America, under old laws, defined a person who owed service to his creditor until the debt was paid. While those laws are obsolete, the condition of these poor people remains much as before.”—George W. Davis, *Report on the civil government of Puerto Rico, Sept. 30, 1899 (Message and documents: Abridgement, 1899-1900, v. 2, pp. 1293-1294)*.—“The educated class of Porto Ricans are as well educated and accomplished as the educated men of any country. They have had the benefit of a liberal education, a few in the United States, a good many in France, and a great many in Madrid and Habana, where they have passed through the universities. The lawyers and doctors are all graduates of either the university in Habana or some university in Spain, with very few exceptions. The merchants are largely Spanish, many of whom will probably preserve their nationality under the provision of the Treaty of Paris which gives them that right. . . . The schools of Puerto Rico conducted under the Spanish system were few in number. The amount allotted for education by the insular budget was something like 300,000 pesos a year. . . . The teachers were officers of the government, holding life positions and receiving pensions when superannuated. They belong to a civil-service class which is not dependent upon any change of administration, only being removed for cause. The lawyers, or judges, rather,

of the island, occupy a similar position."—George W. Davis, *Testimony before Senate Committee* (56th Congress, 1st Session, Senate Document no. 147).

1898-1899 (October-October).—Military government instituted by the United States.—After Captain-General Macias embarked for Spain, General Ricardo Ortega was governor from Oct. 16 to 18, 1898. The United States government placed the island under military control. This control was under the successive direction of Generals John R. Brooke, Guy Henry, and George W. Davis and lasted until May 1, 1900. "The government of the island, its various civil institutions, its codes and its courts, the systems of taxation, etc., have been modified in very important particulars since the American occupation began, October 18, 1898. It will be useful, perhaps, to indicate the more important changes. Under General John R. Brooke [in command of the department, October 18 to December 5, 1898] orders were issued declaring—(1) That the political relations of Porto Rico with Spain were at an end; that provincial and municipal laws were in force in so far as not incompatible with the changed conditions, and that they would be enforced substantially as they were before. (2) Abolishing the use of all stamped paper and stamps of every kind for documents, public and private. (3) Exempting all conveyances and contracts from the payment of royal dues. (4) Discontinuing the diputación provincial, and distributing its duties among the secretaries or ministers. (5) Directing that appeals should not be sent to the supreme court in Madrid, but should be heard by the superior court at San Juan. (6) Abolishing the subdelegation of pharmacy which gave degrees to pharmacists. (7) Making the fisheries free to all. Appropriations for the support of the church ceased with American occupation, and the Government lottery was discontinued. Under the military government of Gen. Guy V. Henry [December 6, 1898 to May 8, 1899], orders were issued—(1) Appointing military commissions to try cases of arson and murder which had accumulated in the civil courts. (2) Closing public offices on Sunday, as far as possible. (3) Suspending the municipal tax on fresh beef for use of the Army. (4) Making Christmas and New Year's holidays. (5) Forbidding grants or concessions of public or corporate rights or franchises without the approval of the commanding general and the Secretary of War. (6) Abolishing the municipal consumo tax on articles of food, fuel, and drink, and providing for additional assessments on the sale of liquors and tobacco. (7) Separating the collection of customs duties from that of direct taxes. (8) Establishing a new system of land taxation, by which agricultural lands should be taxed according to the several classes instituted, from 1 peso down to 25 centavos per cuerda, and levying 50 per cent additional on lands whose owners reside abroad. (9) Providing for the free vaccination of the people of the island. (10) Prohibiting the exhumation of bodies in the cemeteries, recognizing the right of priests to control burials in consecrated grounds, and requiring municipalities to keep cemeteries in repair. (11) Reducing notarial fees from \$1.88 to \$1, from \$4.50 to \$1, from \$11 to \$1, and from \$1 to 50 cents, according to class of document, and canceling others. (12) Reorganizing the cabinet, so as to make all the secretaries directly responsible to the governor-general. (13) Suspending the foreclosure of mortgages on agricultural property and machinery for one year. (14) Appointing February

22 a holiday. (15) Prohibiting the sale of liquor to children under 14 years of age. (16) Modifying the civil marriage law. (17) Declaring that eight hours shall constitute a day's work. (18) Creating an insular police [also organizing a postal system, retiring Spanish currency and replacing it with American money].

"Under the military government of Gen. George W. Davis [May 8, 1899, to May 1, 1900], orders were issued—(1) Modifying the order of General Henry concerning hours of labor, so as to allow agreements between employer and employee for longer or shorter hours. (2) Naming May 30 as a holiday. (3) Allowing the writ of habeas corpus to be issued. (4) Constituting a board of prison control and pardon. (5) Continuing the observance as a holiday of June 24. (6) Creating a provisional court on the basis of circuit and district courts of the United States for the hearing of cases not falling within the jurisdiction of local insular courts. (7) Creating a superior board of health for the island. (8) Reorganizing the bureau of public instruction and the system of education. (9) Relieving the judiciary from all control by the department of justice, discontinuing the office of secretary of justice, and appointing a solicitor-general. (10) Abolishing the sale at auction of the privilege of slaughter of cattle, and making it free. (11) Reorganizing the judicial system of the island, with a supreme court in San Juan and district courts in San Juan, Ponce, Mayaguez, Arecibo, and Humacao, and with modifications of civil and criminal procedure. (12) Discontinuing the departments of state, treasury, and interior, and creating bureaus of state and municipal affairs, of internal revenue, and of agriculture, to be placed under the direction of a civil secretary, responsible to the governor-general, and continuing the bureaus of education and public works, with an insular board of nine members to advise the governor-general on matters of public interest referred to them.

"The reductions in the budget of expenditures have been extensive. That of 1898-99, adopted in June, 1898, amounted to \$4,781,920, native money. The appropriations for 'general obligations,' which went to Madrid, \$498,502, for the clergy, \$197,945; for the army, \$1,252,378; for the navy, \$222,668, making a total of \$2,171,493, ceased to be obligations, leaving \$2,610,428 for the fiscal year. A new budget was adopted for the calendar year 1899, which still further reduces expenditures, calling only for \$1,462,276. This budget, if carried out, would have involved a reduction from the proposed budget of 1898-99 of \$3,319,644; but a new budget was formed, as already stated, for 1899-1900, which appears to call for an increase over this very moderate sum. The revenues were reduced by the abolition of stamped paper, personal passports, export duties, royal dues on conveyances, the lottery system, and other sources of income, amounting, all told, to less probably than a million of pesos."—H. R. Carroll (Special Commissioner), *Report on Porto Rico*, Oct. 6, 1899, pp. 53-55.

1899 (August).—Destructive cyclone.—"On the morning of the 7th of August, 1899, the United States Weather Bureau, through its branch establishment here, announced the approach of a cyclonic disturbance, and the danger signal was ordered to be hoisted at substations of the Bureau at Ponce and Mayaguez. . . . There had been no serious or destructive storm in Puerto Rico since 1867, and the inhabitants had ceased to feel great concern on account of tropical tempests. . . . The

vortex of the cyclone appears to have traversed the island throughout its whole length, from about Humacao to Mayaguez, and its path was a scene of very great devastation. . . . The gale struck the island at Humacao about midnight of August 7, and furiously blew all the rest of that night and well into the next day, while at Mayaguez the violence was not great until 9 o'clock on the morning of the 8th. . . . Most of the habitations in the track of the center of the cyclone were entirely smashed and the débris strewn all over the country. The full reports of the loss of life bring the number of deaths up to 2,700. . . . Besides the mortality, which was appalling, the material damage was almost beyond belief. But the greatest loss of life resulted, not from the wind, but from the terrible downfall of rain that immediately followed. . . . Added to the horror of the situation there came with the gale on the southern coast a tidal wave, which submerged large areas. . . . The material loss to the coffee growers [places] this year's crop at one-third of the normal. . . . Regard being had to the fact that five years must elapse before the coffee trees and their shade can be replanted and reach a normal bearing condition, the total loss can not be safely placed below 25,000,000 pesos for Puerto Rico on account of this hurricane."—George W. Davis, *Report (Message and Documents: Abridgement, 1899-1900, v. 2, pp. 1343-1344)*.

1899 (October).—Census of the island taken under the direction of the war department of the United States.—"The population of Porto Rico shown by the schedules of the . . . census taken with reference to the date of October 16, 1899, was 953,243. This was about nine-tenths of the population of Maryland in 1890, the State whose population is nearest to that of Porto Rico. . . . If the figures for . . . earlier censuses may be accepted, it appears that the population of Porto Rico has been growing through the last twelve years with greater rapidity than before since 1860. . . . It appears that the average increase of population in the interior has been more rapid than that on the coast. If the figures for the coast cities of San Juan, Ponce, and Mayaguez had been excluded, the difference would be yet more marked. The depressed condition of sugar-cane growing in the West Indies of recent years may have played an important part in producing this difference, for the growing of sugar cane is prevalent in the coast plains of Porto Rico."—*Census of Porto Rico, Bulletin No. 1, 1899*.—The area of Porto Rico, including the adjacent and dependent islands of Vieques, Culebra, Mona, and Muertos, was measured in connection with the census and found to be 3,606 square miles. But owing to the imperfect surveys on which all maps of Porto Rico were based there must have been a considerable and indeterminate margin of possible error in any such measurement.

1899-1900.—Question of the tariff treatment of its new territory by the United States government.—Writing in "The Forum," November, 1899, Mr. H. K. Carroll, who had investigated the conditions in Porto Rico as a special commissioner of the United States government, described the obligation which, in his view, they imposed on the latter as follows: "The only free market the Puertorican has for his products is the island market. All the rest of the world is closed to him. He cannot even buy in a free market; everything he buys as well as everything he sells being subject to duties. This is the penalty of independence; but Puerto Rico is not, and does

not want to be independent. She wants such commercial relations with us as Alaska, New Mexico, and Arizona have, and desires a territorial form of government. They look to the President to recommend, and to Congress to adopt, a system of government which will make the island a Territory, equal in rank and rights and privileges to existing Territories. . . . Three reasons are mentioned in opposition to the granting of territorial government to Puerto Rico. First, admission as a Territory implies ultimate admission to statehood; and statehood for islands separated as Hawaii and Puerto Rico are by from 1,200 to 2,500 miles from the United States is not to be thought of for a moment. Second, territorial organization involves the relinquishment of customs duties; and the cane- and tobacco-growers of our West India possession would have free access to the markets of the United States, and thus come into injurious competition with our own farmers. Third, the people of Puerto Rico are not competent for the measure of self-government which the territorial system provides." This most reasonable and just view of the duty of the American people to their new fellow citizens received strong endorsement from higher official authority in the subsequent annual report of the secretary of war, who said: "It is plain that it is essential to the prosperity of the island that she should receive substantially the same treatment at our hands as she received from Spain while a Spanish colony, and that the markets of the United States should be opened to her as were the markets of Spain and Cuba before the transfer of allegiance. Congress has the legal right to regulate the customs duties between the United States and Porto Rico as it pleases; but the highest considerations of justice and good faith demand that we should not disappoint the confident expectation of sharing in our prosperity with which the people of Porto Rico so gladly transferred their allegiance to the United States, and that we should treat the interests of this people as our own; and I wish most strongly to urge that the customs duties between Porto Rico and the United States be removed."—*Message and documents: Abridgement, 1899-1900, v. 2, p. 757*.—And, finally, the president of the United States (McKinley), in his message to Congress, December 5, 1899, gave his high authority to the declaration that this duty of his government to Porto Rico was "plain": "It must be borne in mind," he said, "that since the cession Porto Rico has been denied the principal market she had long enjoyed and our tariffs have been continued against her products as when she was under Spanish sovereignty. The markets of Spain are closed to her products except upon terms to which the commerce of all nations is subjected. The island of Cuba, which used to buy her cattle and tobacco without customs duties, now imposes the same duties upon these products as from any other country entering her ports. She has therefore lost her free intercourse with Spain and Cuba, without any compensating benefits in this market. Her coffee was little known and not in use by our people, and therefore there was no demand here for this, one of her chief products. The markets of the United States should be opened up to her products. Our plain duty is to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico and give her products free access to our markets."—*Ibid., v. 1, p. 53*.—Notwithstanding all which high official acknowledgments and declarations of obligation and duty, on the part of the republic of the United States to the people of the island which it had wrested from Spain, certain interests in the former

that objected to competition from the latter were able to secure legislation which deferred the performance of the "plain duty" required. A tariff of fifteen per cent of the duty on imports from foreign countries was imposed on all imports from Porto Rico into the United States by the Act of Congress, passed in 1900, which provided for the temporary civil government of the dependency.

1900 (April).—Act providing temporarily for civil government of the island.—The fundamental provisions of the act of the Congress [Foraker Act] of the United States to provide temporarily for the civil government of Porto Rico, which the president approved April 12, 1900, are the following:

Sect. 6. That the capital of Porto Rico shall be at the city of San Juan and the seat of government shall be maintained there.

Sect. 7. That all inhabitants continuing to reside therein who were Spanish subjects on the eleventh day of April, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and then resided in Porto Rico, and their children born subsequent thereto, shall be deemed and held to be citizens of Porto Rico, and as such entitled to the protection of the United States, except such as shall have elected to preserve their allegiance to the Crown of Spain on or before the eleventh day of April, nineteen hundred, in accordance with the provisions of the treaty of peace between the United States and Spain entered into on the eleventh day of April, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine; and they, together with such citizens of the United States as may reside in Porto Rico, shall constitute a body politic under the name of The People of Porto Rico, with governmental powers as hereinafter conferred, and with power to sue and be sued as such.

Sect. 8. That the laws and ordinances of Porto Rico now in force shall continue in full force and effect, except as altered, amended, or modified hereinafter, or as altered or modified by military orders and decrees in force when this Act shall take effect, and so far as the same are not inconsistent or in conflict with the statutory laws of the United States not locally inapplicable, or the provisions hereof, until altered, amended, or repealed by the legislative authority hereinafter provided for Porto Rico or by Act of Congress of the United States: Provided, That so much of the law which was in force at the time of cession, April eleventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, forbidding the marriage of priests, ministers, or followers of any faith because of vows they may have taken, being paragraph four, article eighty-three, chapter three, civil code, and which was continued by the order of the secretary of justice of Porto Rico, dated March seventeenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and promulgated by Major-General Guy V. Henry, United States Volunteers, is hereby repealed and annulled, and all persons lawfully married in Porto Rico shall have all the rights and remedies conferred by law upon parties to either civil or religious marriages: And provided further, That paragraph one, article one hundred and five, section four, divorce, civil code, and paragraph two, section nineteen, of the order of the minister of justice of Porto Rico, dated March seventeenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-nine, and promulgated by Major-General Guy V. Henry, United States Volunteers, be, and the same hereby are, so amended as to read: "Adultery on the part of either the husband or the wife." . . .

Sect. 14. That the statutory laws of the United States not locally inapplicable, except as herein-

before or hereinafter otherwise provided, shall have the same force and effect in Porto Rico as in the United States, except the internal-revenue laws, which, in view of the provisions of section three, shall not have force and effect in Porto Rico.

Sect. 15. That the legislative authority hereinafter provided shall have power by due enactment to amend, alter, modify, or repeal any law or ordinance, civil or criminal, continued in force by this Act, as it may from time to time see fit.

Sect. 16. That all judicial process shall run in the name of "United States of America, ss: the President of the United States," and all criminal or penal prosecutions in the local courts shall be conducted in the name and by the authority of "The People of Porto Rico"; and all officials authorized by this Act shall before entering upon the duties of their respective offices take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States and the laws of Porto Rico.

Sect. 17. That the official title of the chief executive officer shall be "The Governor of Porto Rico." He shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; he shall hold his office for a term of four years and until his successor is chosen and qualified unless sooner removed by the President; he shall reside in Porto Rico during his official incumbency, and shall maintain his office at the seat of government; he may grant pardons and reprieves, and remit fines and forfeitures for offenses against the laws of Porto Rico, and respite for offenses against the laws of the United States, until the decision of the President can be ascertained; he shall commission all officers that he may be authorized to appoint, and may veto any legislation enacted, as hereinafter provided; he shall be the commander in chief of the militia, and shall at all times faithfully execute the laws, and he shall in that behalf have all the powers of governors of the Territories of the United States that are not locally inapplicable; and he shall annually, and at such other times as he may be required, make official report of the transactions of the government in Porto Rico, through the Secretary of State, to the President of the United States: Provided, That the President may, in his discretion, delegate and assign to him such executive duties and functions as may in pursuance with law be so delegated and assigned.

Sect. 18. That there shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, for the period of four years, unless sooner removed by the President, a secretary, an attorney-general, a treasurer, an auditor, a commissioner of the interior, and a commissioner of education, each of whom shall reside in Porto Rico during his official incumbency and have the powers and duties hereinafter provided for them, respectively, and who, together with five other persons of good repute, to be also appointed by the President for a like term of four years, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall constitute an executive council, at least five of whom shall be native inhabitants of Porto Rico, and, in addition to the legislative duties hereinafter imposed upon them as a body, shall exercise such powers and perform such duties as are hereinafter provided for them, respectively, and who shall have power to employ all necessary deputies and assistants for the proper discharge of their duties as such officials and as such executive council. . . .

Sect. 27. That all local legislative powers hereby granted shall be vested in a legislative assembly

which shall consist of two houses; one the executive council, as hereinbefore constituted, and the other a house of delegates, to consist of thirty-five members elected biennially by the qualified voters as hereinafter provided; and the two houses thus constituted shall be designated "The legislative assembly of Porto Rico."

Sect. 28. That for the purposes of such elections Porto Rico shall be divided by the executive council into seven districts, composed of contiguous territory and as nearly equal as may be in population, and each district shall be entitled to five members of the house of delegates.

Sect. 29. That the first election for delegates shall be held on such date and under such regulations as to ballots and voting as the executive council may prescribe. . . . At such elections all citizens of Porto Rico shall be allowed to vote who have been bona fide residents for one year and who possess the other qualifications of voters under the laws and military orders in force on the first day of March, 1900, subject to such modifications and additional qualifications and such regulations and restrictions as to registration as may be prescribed by the executive council. . . .

Sect. 32. That the legislative authority herein provided shall extend to all matters of a legislative character not locally inapplicable, including power to create, consolidate, and reorganize the municipalities, so far as may be necessary, and to provide and repeal laws and ordinances thereof; and also the power to alter, amend, modify, and repeal any and all laws and ordinances of every character now in force in Porto Rico, or any municipality or district thereof, not inconsistent with the provisions hereof: Provided, however, That all grants of franchises, rights, and privileges or concessions of a public or quasi-public nature shall be made by the executive council, with the approval of the governor, and all franchises granted in Porto Rico shall be reported to Congress, which hereby reserves the power to annul or modify the same.

Sect. 33. That the judicial power shall be vested in the courts and tribunals of Porto Rico as already established and now in operation, including municipal courts. . . .

Sect. 34. That Porto Rico "shall constitute a judicial district to be called 'the district of Porto Rico.'" The President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint a district judge, a district attorney, and a marshal for said district, each for a term of four years, unless sooner removed by the President. The district court for said district shall be called the district court of the United States for Porto Rico.

Sect. 35. That writs of error and appeals from the final decisions of the supreme court of Porto Rico and the district court of the United States shall be allowed and may be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States in the same manner and under the same regulations and in the same cases as from the supreme courts of the Territories of the United States. . . .

Sect. 39. That the qualified voters of Porto Rico shall, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday of November, anno Domini nineteen hundred, and every two years thereafter, choose a resident commissioner to the United States, who shall be entitled to official recognition as such by all Departments, upon presentation to the Department of State of a certificate of election of the governor of Porto Rico, and who shall be entitled to a salary, payable monthly by the United States, at the rate of five thousand dollars per annum: Provided, That no person shall be eligible to such

election who is not a bona fide citizen of Porto Rico, who is not thirty years of age, and who does not read and write the English language.

Sect. 40. That a commission, to consist of three members, at least one of whom shall be a native citizen of Porto Rico, shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to compile and revise the laws of Porto Rico; also the various codes of procedure and systems of municipal government now in force, and to frame and report such legislation as may be necessary to make a simple, harmonious, and economical government, establish justice and secure its prompt and efficient administration, inaugurate a general system of education and public instruction, provide buildings and funds therefor, equalize and simplify taxation and make all other provisions that may be necessary to secure and extend the benefits of a republican form of government to all the inhabitants of Porto Rico.

1900 (May).—Organization of civil government.—Appointment of Governor Allen.—Under the Act to establish civil government in Porto Rico, Hon. Charles H. Allen, formerly a representative in Congress from Massachusetts, and lately assistant-secretary of the navy, was appointed to the governorship of the island. J. H. Hollander, of Maryland, was appointed treasurer, and John R. Garrison, of the District of Columbia, auditor. Governor Allen was inducted into office with considerable ceremony, at San Juan, on May 1.

1900 (August-October).—First steps in the creation of a public school system.—"The report of M. G. Brumbaugh, commissioner of education, on education in Porto Rico, dated October 15, 1900, shows what has been accomplished in the short time that elapsed after the commissioner entered upon his duties on August 4, 1900. . . . In 1899, 616 schools were opened in Porto Rico. In 1900 the department will maintain at least 800 schools, an increase of 30 per cent, which will provide for nearly 9,000 additional pupils. In 1899 there were 67 Americans in the teaching force of the island. Since October 1, 1900, the number has increased to 100. . . . The newly selected American teachers have some knowledge of Spanish and are graduates of universities, colleges, and normal schools in the States, and are for the most part young men and women of ability and discretion. . . . The new normal and industrial school at Fajardo, which was to have been established by the joint efforts of the local municipality and the American Government, was only so far advanced that the land had been purchased by the end of September, 1900. The normal department was opened October 1, in a rented building, while the industrial department cannot be opened until suitable quarters are provided. The commissioner recommends that the United States make this place the site of an agricultural experiment station for which it is pre-eminently fitted. . . . As to the school accommodation, the commissioner states that there are no public school buildings in Porto Rico. The schools are conducted in rented houses or rooms which are often unfit for the purpose, and the hygienic conditions are bad. There is a . . . demand, for improvement in this direction, as well as in the school equipment and material. In 1899, \$33,000 was expended for school-books, and in 1900, \$20,000 will be expended for books and supplies, which shall be free. . . . In Porto Rico the books and supplies will be free to the pupils without expense to the local boards. A pedagogical museum and library has been established for the benefit of teachers and others. About 300 volumes have been

contributed to the library from friends in the States, and the Department will make the number up to 500 by purchase. A library of 5,000 volumes of standard Spanish and American literature was found in a building in San Juan, which has been installed in suitable rooms as a public library. Many of the leading institutions of the United States have responded cordially to the application of the Department of Education on behalf of young Porto Ricans who wish to prosecute their studies in colleges and universities. . . . There are now 800 schools in Porto Rico, and 38,000 pupils attending them, while there are 300,000 children of school age for whom there are no accommodations. . . . The total expenditure for education in Porto Rico from the 1st of May to the end of September was \$91,057.32."—*United States, Secretary of the Interior, Annual Report, Nov. 28, 1900, p. 116.*

1900 (November-December).—First election under United States law.—Meeting of the legislative assembly.—The first election in the island under the provisions of the act recited above occurred on November 6, simultaneously with the elections in the United States. It seems to have been almost entirely a one-sided vote. "About two weeks before election day," says a despatch from San Juan, November 7, "the Federal Party, which carried the island at the election of less than a year ago by a majority of 6,500 votes, suddenly withdrew from the electoral contest. The Federal leaders sent instruction to their followers not to appear at the polls, but the Federal Election Judges were instructed to appear and watch the proceedings until the elections were concluded in order to gather evidence of any unfairness in the registration and any irregularity in the voting. The Federal Party intends to institute court proceedings after the election in the hope of nullifying it, claiming that gross irregularities in the registration and voting will be shown, and alleging that the districting was not done according to law." Only about 200 Federals voted, it is stated, while some 60,000 votes were cast for the candidates of the Republicans. Governor Allen cabled the following announcement of the election to President McKinley: "I am gratified and delighted. The outcome in Porto Rico is a guarantee of the island's future. To bring people who had long been under different rules and conditions to their first general election, to have the election pass off as quietly and orderly as in any State of the North conducted by the people without let or hindrance, and without a soldier or armed force of any sort, and to have nearly 60,000 men march to the polls to deposit their first ballot for self-government in such a manner, are good reasons for congratulation, not only to the people of the island, but to the painstaking members of the Administration, who had worked diligently and patiently to this end. This overwhelming Republican victory also means legislation for the good of the island in line with the American Administration. It means stable government and the protection of property interests, with which prospective investors in Porto Rico are deeply concerned. It means education, public works, and all the beneficent works which follow legislation wisely and conscientiously undertaken. It is an emphatic declaration of unqualified loyalty to the United States." The newly elected legislative assembly met and the House of Delegates was organized December 3. A correspondent of the *New York Tribune*, writing a week later, said: "Already nineteen bills have been introduced. . . . It is known that the five Porto Rican members of

the Council, when considering the question of franchises, etc., often vote contrary to their own ideas in order that the Council may continue harmonious. But it is not likely that the heads of departments will be able to control the thirty-five members of the House. The House, although regularly elected, is not representative of the island; the Federals refraining from voting kept over half the natives from the polls. The Federal party, it is asserted, is made up of the richest and best element of Porto Rico. The Republicans, though in power, do not feel that they are able to run things alone, so the majority is willing to be dictated to by the Council. Nevertheless there is a certain element in the House which will not be dictated to."

1900-1901.—Question of status discussed in Congress. See U.S.A.: 1900-1901.

1901 (January).—Close of first session of the legislative assembly.—The first session of the first legislative assembly of the island came to a close on January 31, 1901, and the following remarks on its work were made in a newspaper despatch of that date from San Juan: "Over one hundred bills have been introduced in the House of Delegates, and dozens have been passed by both houses, and are awaiting the Governor's approval. . . . There are only thirty-five members altogether, and the island is small, yet twenty-six has been the average attendance. A full attendance for even one day is not recorded. . . . A bill has been passed providing for the education of certain young Porto Rican men and women in the United States, about two hundred of them having petitioned the House of Delegates to be sent north at the island's expense. . . . The island expends about \$400,000 yearly on education, and excellent educational facilities are offered. But the people, in a way, seem to discredit the value of the opportunities at hand."

1901 (April).—Distress of workingmen of the island.—Their appeal to the president of the United States.—The following petition, signed by 6,000 of the workingmen of Porto Rico, was brought to the United States by a delegate from the Federation of Labor in Porto Rico and presented to President McKinley on April 15: "The undersigned, workers of Porto Rico, without distinction of color, political or religious creed, have the honor to bring to your attention the following facts: Misery, with all its horrible consequences, is spreading in our homes with wonderful rapidity. It has already reached such an extreme that many workers are starving to death while others, that have not the courage to see their mothers, wives, sisters and children perish of hunger, commit suicide by drowning themselves in the rivers or hanging themselves from branches of trees. All this, honorable sir, is due to the scarcity of work, which keeps us in enforced idleness, the mother of our misery. Our beautiful estates are idle; our lands are not being cultivated; our shops remain closed; and our Chambers do absolutely nothing to prevent our misery on this once so rich an island. The Government and municipality do not undertake any public works to keep us out of idleness. The emigration of workers, unknown in this island before, increases day by day, in proportion as misery increases. Under these trying conditions we are no longer a happy and contented people. We therefore, beg of you, honorable sir, to interest yourself in our cause, leading us, as the father of our country, in the path that will bring us work, and with it the means of subsistence. We want work; nothing but work. We want to earn the means of subsistence by the sweat of our brows;

and nobody better than our Chief Magistrate can help us by lending ear to our appeals."

1901-1905.—Change of qualifications for elective franchise.—The Act of Congress, of 1900, under which the government of Porto Rico as a dependency of the United States was organized (see above: 1900 [April]), was subsequently amended and received one important organic change. The Executive Council which was created by the act was authorized to fix the qualifications of voters for the first election of a legislative assembly. The suffrage in that election, held in 1900, was conferred by the council on every male citizen of twenty-one years, resident in the island for one year and for six months in his municipal district, "who is able to read and write, or who, on September 1, 1900, owned real estate in his own right and name, or who on said date was a member of a firm or corporation or partnership, or who on September 1, 1900, owned personal property in his own right or name not less in value than twenty-five dollars."

"At its second session, in 1902, the Legislative Assembly availed itself of the power given to it by the organic act and passed a law for the government of future elections. This act followed closely the provisions of the orders that had been issued by the executive council. The system created is similar to that in the American States which have adopted the Australian ballot. As regards the franchise, the only change made was that the provision which gave the right to vote to persons owning personal property to the value of twenty-five dollars was dropped and in its place was substituted the provision conferring the franchise upon those persons meeting the conditions, as regards age and residence, who on the day of registration are able to produce to the board of registry tax receipts showing the payment of any kind of taxes for the last six months of the year in which the election is held. The law also provided that all persons who were registered during the year 1900 would not be required to register anew or have to meet the new requirements of the law. This was the law under which the second election in 1902 was held. In 1904 the law underwent a very important alteration as regards the qualifications for the enjoyment of the electoral franchise. By this new law the three conditions—ability to read and write, ownership of real estate, or payment of taxes—any one of which qualified a male citizen of Porto Rico who had resided in the island one year and in the district in which he offered to register for six months immediately preceding, to vote, were until July 1, 1906, wiped out, leaving only the conditions regarding sex, age and residence to be met in order to qualify a voter. After that date the additional qualification of being able to read and write must be met. The result of this amendment to the law is to provide for universal manhood suffrage until July 1, 1906, after which no new name can be added to the registration list unless its owner is able to read and write. Those persons, however, who are properly registered before that date are not required to offer themselves for registration, but continue to enjoy the full rights of the franchise."—W. F. Willoughby, *Territories and dependencies of the United States*, p. 95.

1901-1907.—Gubernatorial changes.—"Governor Allen's administration was followed on September 15, 1901, by that of Governor William H. Hunt, who held the office until July 4, 1904, when he was succeeded by Hon. Beekman Winthrop. Governor Winthrop was followed by Governor Regis H. Post, who assumed the office on April 18, 1907."

—A. H. Verrill, *Porto Rico past and present and San Domingo of to-day*, p. 11.

1903-1914.—Educational progress.—"Fourteen million dollars have been wisely expended for educational purposes since civil government was established in 1900. Instead of one schoolhouse, erected for that purpose, as was the case in 1899, the people of Porto Rico own to-day [1914] 105 graded school buildings, many of which are of fine construction and compare favourably with the better class of school buildings in the cities of the United States, and 264 rural school buildings, distributed throughout the country districts of the island, while 1,180 separate schools are maintained and 1,972 teachers employed in the service. The public school enrolment has been increased from 26,000 to 161,785. The percentage of illiteracy in the whole population has been reduced from 80 per cent to 66 per cent, and of all persons between 10 and 20 years of age, to 53. A considerable reduction in illiteracy among persons over 21 years of age has been accomplished by public night schools. . . . The task of extending the public school system met the obstacle of limited funds available for that purpose. . . . The Legislative Assembly had from year to year generously increased the allotments of funds for educational purposes, until in 1913 it found itself in a position where, to make further increases in these appropriations to the extent that the demand for additional educational facilities required an increase in the treasury receipts was necessary, and to accomplish this, new revenue laws were passed. . . . The Common-school system of Porto Rico comprises the rural and graded schools. During the school year of 1912-13 a total of 1,064 rural schools were allotted to the municipalities of the island, whereas there were but 785 graded schools. . . . The course of study for the rural schools covers a six-year period. . . . The course of study for the rural schools differs from that of the graded schools in that practically all of the work is given in Spanish, English being taught as a special subject in all grades after the first. . . . The course of study of the graded schools covers the full eight grades of the common-school course. . . . The instruction in the grade-school system is given in the English language in all subjects with the exception of Spanish. . . . Due to the increased number of pupils graduating from eighth grades and to the fact that many of these wished to continue their studies but were unable to do so, since high schools were maintained in but three or four towns of the island, the department established continuation schools in some of the larger centres of population. . . . [The University of Rio Piedras was established by act of the insular legislature, 1903, but by 1910 only two departments had been organized, the insular normal school and the department of agriculture.] During the school year 1912-13 nine special teachers of agriculture were assigned, one to each of the following districts: Carolina, Humacao, Barros, Juana Diaz, San German, Anasco, Utuado, Tao Baja, and Bayamon. . . . Generally speaking, the teachers of agriculture devoted three days a week to the children in the graded schools and two days to those of the rural schools. The interest of the farmers is shown by the fact that in many instances where the school boards did not own a sufficient amount of land about the school buildings to permit of practical work in agriculture half an acre or more has been loaned in order that the children might receive the practical instruction."—A. H. Verrill, *Porto Rico past and present and San Domingo of to-day*, pp. 179-183, 185, 187, 198-199.

1905.—Extension of local government asked for.—A convention of municipal delegates, chosen by the elective municipal councils of the island, assembled at San Juan in July, 1905, formulated a request to the government of the United States for a broadening of the fundamental law of 1900, which "would largely transfer the control of the local government to their own people. The Governor would remain a Presidential appointee, but the appointments by the Governor would be subject in many cases to revision by a locally elected Senate, except the courts, which would remain as now, for the most part, under our direct control. In other words, the legislative, and largely the administrative functions, subject to the limitations of the Organic Act, would be exercised by the Porto Ricans. The courts, of our own choosing, would construe limitations on these powers, and the Governor, with his police and militia, would be solely responsible for order and the lawful execution of lawful mandates."

1908.—Telegraph and telephone service. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1908: United States.

1909.—Modification of Foraker Act.—In a special message to Congress, May 10, 1909, President Taft called attention to the failure of the legislative assembly of Porto Rico to pass the usual appropriation bills, leaving the government of the island without support after the 30th of next June. In his opinion, the situation indicated that the United States had proceeded too fast in extending political power to the Porto Ricans, and that the full control of appropriations should be withdrawn from those "who have shown themselves too irresponsible to enjoy it." He suggested, therefore, an amendment of the fundamental act, known as the Foraker Act. The act known as the Olmsted Act was passed July 15, 1909. Porto Rican affairs were placed under the jurisdiction of an executive department, the war department being subsequently designated. Provision was also made that if the legislature failed to pass the appropriation bill for an ensuing fiscal year, the sums authorized for the current year should be deemed to have been appropriated and might be lawfully expended.

1909.—Change in governorship.—In September, 1909, Governor Regis H. Post resigned his office, and was succeeded by George R. Colton, who had had previous experience, both civil and military, in the Philippines and in Santo Domingo.

1910-1918.—Legislation.—Part played in the World War.—"In legislation much constructive work has been done and three most important things accomplished: An effective, nonpartisan Sanitation Service, with all the branches usually comprising such activities, has been established throughout the Island, under the direct control of an independent health board, a director of service and the Executive Department of the Insular Government; the election laws were so amended as to insure the secrecy of the ballot, to provide minority representation from each legislative district in the House of Delegates and to acquire a new registration of the voters of the Island; and the establishment of a Bureau of Labor, the duties of which are to collect and collate information upon the subject of labor, its relations to the industries of the country, hours of labor, the earnings of laboring men and women, and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual and moral welfare; to investigate the causes of and facts relating to such controversies and disputes between employers and employés as may occur from time to time, and to exercise its good offices for the maintenance of satisfactory relations between employ-

ers and employés, and in general to perform the duties developing upon such bureaus. . . . In the administration of municipal affairs increased efficiency and less partisanship in the exercise of official authority is generally noticeable."—G. R. Colton, *Extracts from the Annual Report of G. R. Colton, governor of Porto Rico, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1912 (pamphlet), pp. 10-11.*—"A law was passed [1914] regulating the work of children, and protecting them against dangerous occupations. This law provides that no child under 13 years of age who has not received a certificate from the department of education to the effect that he has finished the work required of the third grade of the rural or the eighth grade of the graded schools, according to whether he lives in the country or in town, can be employed in any lucrative occupation during the hours public schools are in session. Exception is made, however, of those children who reside in a community in which there is no school within a reasonable distance wherein accommodation can be furnished and of any orphan child or one who for any other reason depends on his own efforts for support, as well as any child whose parents are invalids and depend exclusively on the work of the child for their maintenance. In these cases the child must obtain a certificate from the mayor of the town where he resides, authorizing him to secure employment. These children are, nevertheless, required to attend a night school when such a school is within one kilometre of their residence."—A. H. Verrill, *Porto Rico past and present and San Domingo of to-day, pp. 195-196.*—In November, 1913, Arthur Yager became governor and held office until 1921. During the World War Porto Rico furnished 16,538 men or .44 per cent of the whole United States Expeditionary Force.

1917.—Jones Act.—"Until Friday, March 2 [1917], when President Wilson signed what is known as the Porto Rican Civil Government Bill, Porto Ricans have been, since virtually the close of the Spanish-American War, a people without a country. . . . On April 12, 1900, the Congress of the United States passed a law providing for a civil government. Under this government there was a House of Delegates elected by the voters on the island and an Executive Council of eleven members, five native inhabitants of Porto Rico, the other six Americans in charge of the various executive departments, and all appointed by the President of the United States. This law deprived the people of Porto Rico of their allegiance to the King of Spain, but it did not provide for transferring their allegiance to the sovereignty of the United States. . . . During these seventeen years this state of expatriation has bred strife and discontent. . . . For several years there has been an attempt to change this state of affairs; but it has been objected . . . that it is not wise to force so valuable a possession as citizenship upon an unappreciative, unwilling, or indifferent people *en masse*. On the other hand, it has been argued that under present circumstances it is essential that certain elections should take place at once, that no one could vote at these elections but American citizens, and that therefore it was necessary to make American citizenship obligatory upon all Porto Ricans. There was, however, . . . a provision in the new bill granting leave to any one on the island to renounce his citizenship providing his disavowal be made within one year from the date of the passage of the Act. Thus, though citizenship has been granted in full, the individual Porto Rican has not been deprived of his liberty of choice, which,

after all, is the essential thing in this question of citizenship. According to this new bill, every male of twenty-one years or over among those 'who have heretofore been known as the people of Porto Rico' is a voter. . . . This new Act (which, . . . is an amalgamation of three bills fathered respectively by Representative Jones, of Virginia, Senator Shafroth, of Colorado, and Senator Saulsbury, of Delaware), also contains a bill of rights for the Porto Rican people. Politically, this new Act has given Porto Ricans a status which is much more satisfactory to them than the one which it supplants."—*Porto Ricans made Americans (Outlook, Mar. 14, 1917)*.—This act of congress known as the "Jones Act" extends citizenship to the Porto Ricans and provides an elective senate composed of nineteen members and a house of representatives of thirty-nine members all of whom, senators and representatives alike, are elected for a term of four years. The governor, attorney-general, and the judges of the supreme court are appointed by the president, while the governor appoints the judges and officials of the lower courts. The dependency is represented in Congress by a resident commissioner, who is also elected for a term of four years. Six executive departments were constituted: justice, finance, interior, education, agriculture, labor, and health. Acts of the legislature may be vetoed by the governor; but his veto may be over-ridden by a two-thirds vote. The president of the United States may nevertheless impose a final veto.

1917.—German industrial interests. See U.S.A.: 1917 (October): Trading with the Enemy Act.

1919-1921.—Status of the island.—Supreme Court decisions.—Colonial representation.—"The most important judgment in all the Insular Cases so far as a determination of the present status of Porto Rico is concerned [is that of *Downes vs. Bidwell*]. It is interesting because in it the now famous doctrine of non-incorporation is developed. It will be well, however, to state at the outset that in this case there was no majority opinion of the court and that the decision was reached merely by the concurrence of a majority of the judges in what is styled in the syllabus of the case as the conclusion and judgment of the court. . . . The ostensible purpose of the case under consideration was to test the constitutionality of the Foraker Act, and to recover back certain duties exacted and paid under protest upon merchandise brought into the port of New York from Porto Rico after the passage of the Act. The duties in question were exacted under Section 3 of the Act, which provided 'that on and after the passage of this Act all merchandise coming into the United States from Porto Rico and coming into Porto Rico from the United States shall be entered at the several ports of entry upon payment of fifteen per centum of the duties which are required to be levied, collected and paid upon like articles of merchandise imported from foreign countries,' and the question briefly stated, was whether Article I, Section 8, of the Constitution of the United States, providing that 'all duties, imports and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States' was applicable to this case; that is to say, whether this particular provision of the Constitution must be considered as controlling the action of Congress when legislating on the subject for a territory situated as Porto Rico was. This case differs from the other two already considered in that here the test is not, as there, whether Porto Rico was or was not a foreign country, either in the international or in the constitutional sense, but rather whether the Island had become an integral

part of the United States, so as to be included within the purview of the constitutional provision aforementioned, and the question therefore involved, in substance, a determination of the judicial status of the Island from the point of view of constitutional law."—P. Capó-Rodrigues, *Relations between the United States and Porto Rico (American Journal of International Law, July, 1919)*.—"It has been asserted by many Porto Ricans, contrary to the contention of the Attorney General of the island, that Porto Rico is an incorporated Territory of the United States. This interpretation was strengthened . . . by the decisions of the Supreme Court of Porto Rico and the District Court of the United States for Porto Rico in two important cases (*The People of Porto Rico vs. Carlos Tapia and The People of Porto Rico vs. José Muratti*, 245 U.S., 639). Recently, however, the Supreme Court of the United States reversed these decisions, and upheld the opinion maintained by the Attorney General. Referring to it in a recent [1920] report he said: 'The Supreme Court followed precedent to the effect that the question of the political status of a Territory was to be determined by Congress, and depends upon the expression of Congressional intent. The new 'Organic act' conferred American citizenship upon Porto Ricans, but the question of the incorporation of a Territory does not depend upon citizenship alone.' Legally the island is thus an organized but not incorporated Territory of the United States. It enjoys many of the same rights which an incorporated Territory has, including the fundamental guarantees of the United States Constitution, the privilege of the Grand Jury, a Public Service Commission and the regulation of its own internal commerce. Furthermore, it is largely exempt from both Federal and war taxes. By this new act all internal revenue laws, unless specifically made applicable to Porto Rico, do not apply there, and such revenue already collected there is to be given back, a ruling applicable to no other Territory. . . . Governor Yager has declared that 'all the hopes of Porto Rico for improvement in political, social and economic conditions rest upon the general education of its people.'"—F. P. Delgado, *Life in picturesque Porto Rico (New York Times Current History, May, 1920)*.—"In section 5 of the organic act for Porto Rico, approved by President Wilson on November 2, 1917, it was provided: 'That all citizens of Porto Rico . . . are hereby declared and shall be deemed and held to be, citizens of the United States.' And President Harding in a recent speech made in New York at the unveiling of the statue of Simon Bolivar in Central Park, said: 'We do not forget that in the United States to-day we have Latin-American devotion to the Stars and Stripes. Porto Rico is a part of us, under a permanent policy aimed at her prosperity and progress, and we see in our Latin-American state the spendid agency to help interpret the Americans to one another.' . . . Previous to the breaking out of the great European War in 1914, there were still in this country some distinguished statesmen and diplomats who thought that the wisest and most practical and probable solution of the Porto Rican problem would be to establish Porto Rico as a new republic, after the fashion of Cuba, under a virtual protectorate by the United States; conditions have changed to such an extent during and since that war all over the world, that such a solution would hardly find support today among responsible Americans. . . . The practical results of the present system of colonial representation of the United States, as

exemplified in the case of Porto Rico, are indeed to subject the colonies and their people to a system of congressional dictation and imposition which is not at all promotive of good understanding and harmony, but may be a cause of future disagreement and embarrassment. . . . The problem of colonial representation, at least in so far as it refers to Porto Rico, can not be easily eliminated, and much less satisfactorily solved by investing that island with the status because the people of Porto Rico have already outgrown the expediency of that solution. If account is taken of the present state of development and progress of Porto Rico, as well as of the rising sentiment there for a larger participation in its government by its people, the conclusion is inevitable that Porto Rico is where, sooner or later, the United States will be confronted with the unavoidable necessity of solving the problem of colonial representation. . . . It may be said that Porto Rico looms up as a big national problem of the first magnitude, the principal elements of which are indeed its geographical position, the character and present development of its inhabitants, and the national and international implications of the situation. Commonly the suggestion is made that there are two straight solutions to this problem: one is independence; the other is statehood, on an equal footing with the other States. As to the former, public sentiment and the policy of the Government in this country would seem to manifest an ever-increasing opposition to the establishment of any new little republic in the Caribbean. As to the solution of statehood on an equal footing with the other States, it may be said that public opinion has not as yet crystallized in this country in favor of that solution, for there is indeed some apparently insurmountable prejudice among the people as to the expediency and advisability of admitting into the Union a people fundamentally different from the people of the United States."—P. Capó-Rodríguez, *Colonial representation in the American empire* (*American Journal of International Law*, Oct., 1921).

1920.—Workmen's compensation laws. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: United States: 1920.

1921-1923.—Appointment of E. Mont Reily as governor.—Agitation against him.—Appointment of his successor.—In 1921, E. Mont Reily succeeded Arthur Yager as governor. "Opposition to his administration was expressed, first, by the majority party of Porto Rico, the Unionists, when he declared in his inaugural address against any agitation for the independence of the islands. The unionists later reversed their stand, but in November of the same year [1921] launched a campaign against the Governor. . . . The attacks on Governor Reily brought several delegations from the island to protest before Secretary Weeks and President Harding. . . . Charges of maladministration constituted the major complaints of the Porto Ricans, who were led in their fight against the Governor by Antonio R. Barcelo, President of the Porto Rican Senate, and . . . Felix Cordova-Davila resident Commissioner from Porto Rico."—*New York Times*, Feb. 17, 1923, p. 6.—On Feb. 16, 1923, Governor Reily tendered his resignation, and on Feb. 28 Horace M. Towner was appointed his successor.

See also TERRITORIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES; WEST INDIES.

Also in: S. Baxter, *Porto Rico under the Stars and Stripes*.—J. E. Cuesta, *Porto Rico after twenty-four years of American rule*.

PORTO SANTO ISLAND, one of the Madeira islands, twenty-six miles northeast of Madeira. See MADEIRA ISLANDS.

PORTOBELLO.—"Porto Bello is about twenty miles north of Colon, on the Caribbean Sea . . . [and] the northern terminus of the old royal highway, built by the Spaniards in the sixteenth century. . . . About the beginning of the seventeenth century Porto Bello enjoyed one of the largest export trades in the then commercial world. Professor William R. Shepherd, of Columbia University, estimates that the bullion shipped from Porto Bello [during this period] amounted to about forty-two million dollars (\$42,000,000) per year. . . . Drake in his last expedition attempted to capture Porto Bello. He was repulsed in his attempt to storm the forts, but succeeded in capturing the Spanish fleet in the harbor. He died in the harbor of Porto Bello a few days after the fight, January 28, 1596. His followers placed his body in the flagship of the Spanish fleet, took the ship to the mouth of the harbor and there scuttled her. The island at the mouth of the harbor is still known locally as Drake's Island."—W. C. Gorgas, *Sanitation in Panama*, pp. 160-162.—See also PERU: 1550-1816.

1668.—Captured by Morgan. See BUCCANEERS: English; AMERICA: 1639-1700.

1740.—Captured by Admiral Vernon. See ENGLAND: 1739-1741.

PORTOLA, Gaspar de (b. 1723), early Spanish explorer. Governor of the Californias, 1767; commander-in-chief of the expedition for the acquisition of the ports of San Diego and Monterey, 1769-1770; appointed governor of the city of Puebla, 1776. See CALIFORNIA: 1769-1770.

PORTOLONGO, Battle of (1354). See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1348-1356.

PORTOROSA CONFERENCE (1921).—A conference of the so-called "Succession States" which had succeeded to the heritage of the old Hapsburg monarchy [Czecho-Slovakia, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Poland, Italy, Austria, and Hungary] was held during October and November, 1921, at Portorosa. "The idea of it was due to the American Colonel [Clarence Browning] Smith, who, as the representative of his country on the Reparations Commission in Vienna, had realized that the economic separation and isolation of the various successory States not only dealt a fatal blow at the vital interests of Austria, but also inflicted the greatest injury on all collectively and each separately. It was, therefore, he held, essential that a rapprochement should be effected between them, with the removal of the senseless and in many cases annoying restrictions on commerce and intercourse; and the Great Powers should take the lead in bringing about an understanding."—*Annual Register*, 1921, p. 189.—"Its results . . . deal with real problems in a constructive, practical spirit. They laid the foundations of the economic edifice of South Eastern Europe which had been ruined by the war. The delegations of the various Powers . . . were made up as follows: Italy, 10 delegates; France, 4; Britain, 3; Yugoslavia, 6; Czechoslovakia, 6; Roumania, 4; Poland, 2; Austria, 6; Hungary, 5; United States, an observer [Col. C. B. Smith] and an assistant observer. The representatives of France and Great Britain were there mainly to see that their interests as set forth in Peace Treaties were not injured by the proposed arrangements. The agenda included the following points: the question of compensation treaties between the Succession States regarding the exchange of essential products; the improvement of postal, telegraphic and telephonic communication; agree-

ments in regard to inter-state traffic; and arrangements for obviating difficulties involved in the licensing system, and the export and import prohibitions."—J. J. Shotwell, *Portorose conference (International Conciliation, no. 176)*.—"The work of the Portorose Conference may be discussed under three heads: [a] Commercial relations.—At the end of the war the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, which had formed one economic whole, was divided into separate parts . . . [which] created economic barriers between themselves. They all issued import prohibitions in order to exclude imports which they thought superfluous and therefore damaging to their exchange; and export prohibitions in order to keep in the country the quantities of food-stuffs, raw materials and manufactured products considered necessary for home consumption, and to have for disposal articles which might serve as compensation for obtaining foreign goods. . . . In the Protocol concluded at the . . . Conference it was agreed in principle that import and export prohibitions shall be abolished between the Succession States. . . . In the period of transition, until prohibitions shall have been completely abolished, no new prohibitions shall be issued. . . . [b] Railway traffic.—Railway traffic between the Succession States in the past has been most difficult by reason of the creation of the new States, and for the lack of proper facilities at frontier stations for expediting through traffic, as well as a lack of confidence between the Succession States themselves. At the . . . Conference a number of practical measures were agreed to which will improve the traffic situation. . . . [c] Posts and telegraphs.—The arrangement concerning the amelioration of the telegraphic and telephonic communications concluded at Portorose are based upon Article IV of the International Telegraphic Convention of St. Petersburg, to which the United States is not a party. These arrangements concern the mutual telegraphic and telephonic communications between the seven Succession States. The Administrations of these countries have engaged themselves to carry on the traffic by means of the existing telegraphic and telephonic net, according to the general regulations for international traffic, and to complete the existing net by constructing new lines of communication, especially between industrial and commercial centers of the different countries. . . . Special arrangements were made also in order to make it possible that the tariffs, the fixation of which is so difficult on account of the monetary exchange conditions, should be regulated for the interstate traffic according to the interest of the collecting country and in order to facilitate and accelerate the mutual accounts. For the liquidation of the mutual payments, all the Administrations have accepted in analogy the regulations for the Postal Union; the gold franc on the basis of one franc being equal to 0.192957 dollars. They have furthermore agreed to regulate the outstanding debts between themselves within a short time."—C. B. Smith, *Account of the Portorose conference (International Conciliation, no. 176)*.

PORTSMOUTH, only seaport of New Hampshire, about three miles from the mouth of the Piscataqua river, fifty-eight miles northeast of Boston. It was settled in 1623.

1643.—Becomes a part of Massachusetts. See NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1622-1679.

1905.—Treaty of. See PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF; JAPAN: 1902-1905.

PORTSMOUTH, township in Rhode Island, on Narragansett bay. It was settled in 1638. See RHODE ISLAND: 1638-1640.

PORTSMOUTH, Treaty of.—The Treaty of Peace agreed upon at Portsmouth was duly ratified by the Emperors of Russia and Japan, at St. Petersburg and at Tokyo simultaneously, on the 14th of October, 1905. The following is the text of the Treaty in full:

THE TREATY OF PEACE SIGNED AT PORTSMOUTH

By the helping grace of God, we, Nicholas II, Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias, etc., hereby declare that, in consequence of a mutual agreement between us and His Majesty, the Emperor of Japan, our plenipotentiaries concluded and signed at Portsmouth, August 23, 1905, a treaty of peace which, word for word, reads as follows:

His Majesty, the Emperor of all the Russias, on the one hand, and His Majesty, the Emperor of Japan, on the other hand, being animated by the desire to restore the benefits of peace for their countries and their peoples, have decided to conclude a treaty of peace and have appointed for this purpose their plenipotentiaries, to wit:

His Majesty the Emperor of Russia:—His Excellency, Mr. Sergius Witte, his secretary of state and president of the committee of ministers of the Empire of Russia, and His Excellency, Baron Roman Rosen, master of the Imperial Court of Russia and his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the United States of America;

And his Majesty, the Emperor of Japan:—His Excellency, Baron Komura Jutaro, Iusammi, knight of the Imperial Order of the Rising Sun, his minister of foreign affairs, and His Excellency, Mr. Takahira Kogoro, Iusammi, knight of the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to the United States of America;

Who, after having exchanged their full powers, found in good and due form, concluded the following articles:

Article I. There shall be in the future peace and friendship between Their Majesties the Emperor of all the Russias and the Emperor of Japan, as well as between their respective nations and subjects.

Art. II. The Imperial Government of Russia, recognizing that Japan has predominant political, military, and economic interests in Korea, agrees not to interfere or place obstacles in the way of any measure of direction, protection, and supervision which the Imperial Government of Japan may deem necessary to adopt in Korea. It is agreed that Russian subjects in Korea shall be treated in exactly the same manner as the citizens of other foreign countries; that is, that they shall be placed on the same footing as the citizens of the most-favored nation. It is likewise agreed that, in order to avoid any cause of misunderstanding, the two high contracting parties shall refrain from adopting, on the Russo-Korean frontier, any military measures which might menace the security of the Russian or Korean territory.

Art. III. Russia and Japan mutually engage: 1. To completely and simultaneously evacuate Manchuria, with the exception of the territory over which the lease of the peninsula of Liao-tung extends, in accordance with the provisions of additional Article 1 annexed to this treaty, and 2. To entirely and completely restore to the exclusive administration of China all parts of Manchuria now occupied by Russian and Japanese troops, or which are under their control, with the exception of the above-mentioned territory. The imperial Government of Russia declares that it has no territorial advantages or preferential or exclusive con-

cessions in Manchuria of such a nature as to impair the sovereignty of China or which are incompatible with the principle of equal opportunity.

Art. iv. Russia and Japan mutually pledge themselves not to place any obstacle in the way of general measures which apply the way equally to all nations and which China might adopt for the development of commerce and industry in Manchuria.

Art. v. The Imperial Government of Russia cedes to the Imperial Government of Japan, with the consent of the Government of China, the lease of Port Arthur, of Talien, and of the adjacent territories and territorial waters, as well as the rights, privileges, and concessions connected with this lease or forming part thereof, and it likewise cedes to the Imperial Government of Japan all the public works and property within the territory over which the above-mentioned lease extends. The high contracting parties mutually engage to obtain from the Government of China the consent mentioned in the foregoing clause. The Imperial Government of Japan gives on its part the assurance that the property rights of Russian subjects within the above-mentioned territory shall be absolutely respected.

Art. vi. The Imperial Government of Russia obligates itself to yield to the Imperial Government of Japan, without compensation and with the consent of the Chinese Government, the Chan-chun (Kwan-Chen-Tsi) and Port Arthur Railroad and all its branches, with all the rights, privileges, and property thereunto belonging within this region, as well as all the coal mines in said region belonging to this railroad or being operated for its benefit. The two high contracting parties mutually pledge themselves to obtain from the Chinese Government the consent mentioned in the foregoing clause.

Art. vii. Russia and Japan agree to operate their respective railroads in Manchuria for commercial and industrial purposes exclusively, but by no means for strategic purposes. It is agreed that this restriction does not apply to the railroads within the territory covered by the lease of the Liao-tung peninsula.

Art. viii. The Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan, with a view to favoring and facilitating relations and traffic, shall conclude, as soon as possible, a separate convention to govern their operations of repair on the railroads in Manchuria.

Art. ix. The Imperial Government of Russia cedes to the Imperial Government of Japan, in perpetuity and full sovereignty, the southern part of the island of Saghalin, and all the islands adjacent thereto, as well as all the public works and property there situated. The fiftieth parallel of north latitude is adopted as the limit of the ceded territory. The exact boundary line of this territory shall be determined in accordance with the provisions of additional Article II annexed to this treaty. Japan and Russia mutually agree not to construct within their respective possessions on the island of Saghalin, and the islands adjacent thereto, any fortification or similar military work. They likewise mutually agree not to adopt any military measures which might hinder the free navigation of the Straits of La Perouse and Tartary.

Art. x. The right is reserved to Russian subjects inhabiting the territory ceded to Japan to sell their real property and return to their country; however, if they prefer to remain in the ceded territory, they shall be guarded and protected in the full enjoyment of their property rights and the exercise of their industries, provided they submit to the laws and jurisdiction of Japan. Japan shall have perfect

liberty to withdraw the right of residence in this territory from all inhabitants laboring under political or administrative incapacity, or to deport them from this territory. It pledges itself, however, to fully respect the property rights of these inhabitants.

Art. xi. Russia obligates itself to reach an understanding with Japan in order to grant to Japanese subjects fishing rights along the coast of the Russian possessions in the Seas of Japan, Okhotsk, and Bering. It is agreed that the above-mentioned obligation shall not impair the rights already belonging to Russian or foreign subjects in these regions.

Art. xii. The treaty of commerce and navigation between Russia and Japan having been annulled by the war, the Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan agree to adopt as a basis for their commercial relations, until the conclusion of a new treaty of commerce and navigation on the basis of the treaty in force before the present war, the system of reciprocity on the principle of the most favored nation, including import and export tariffs, custom-house formalities, transit and tonnage dues, and the admission and treatment of the agents, subjects, and vessels of one country in the territory of the other.

Art. xiii. As soon as possible, after the present treaty takes effect, all prisoners of war shall be mutually returned. The Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan shall each appoint a special commissioner to take charge of prisoners. All prisoners in the custody of one of the governments shall be delivered to the commissioner of the other governments or to his duly authorized representative, who shall receive them in such number and in such suitable ports of the surrendering nation as the latter shall notify in advance to the commissioner of the receiving nation. The Governments of Russia and Japan shall present to each other, as soon as possible after the delivery of the prisoners has been completed, a verified account of the direct expenditures made by them respectively for the care and maintenance of the prisoners from the date of capture or surrender until the date of their death or return. Russia agrees to refund to Japan, as soon as possible after the exchange of these accounts, as above stipulated, the difference between the actual amount thus spent by Japan and the actual amount likewise expended by Russia.

Art. xiv. The present treaty shall be ratified by Their Majesties the Emperor of all the Russias and the Emperor of Japan. This ratification shall, within the shortest possible time and at all events not later than fifty days from the date of the signature of the treaty, be notified to the Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan, respectively, through the ambassador of the United States of America at St. Petersburg and the minister of France at Tokyo, and from and after the date of the last of these notifications this treaty shall enter into full force in all its parts. The formal exchange of the ratifications shall take place at Washington as soon as possible.

Art. xv. The present treaty shall be signed in duplicate, in the French and English languages. The two texts are absolutely alike; however, in case of difference of interpretation the French text shall prevail.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the present treaty of peace and affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, the twenty-third day of August (fifth of September)

of the year one thousand nine hundred and five, corresponding to the fifth day of the ninth month of the thirty-eighth year of Meiji.

IUTARO KOMURA (L. S.)
K. TAKAHIRA (L. S.)
SERGIUS WITTE (L. S.)
ROSEN (L. S.)

In conformity with the provisions of Articles II and IX of the treaty of peace between Russia and Japan under this date, the undersigned plenipotentiaries have concluded the following additional articles:

I. To Article III: The Imperial Governments of Russia and Japan mutually agree to begin the withdrawal of their military forces from the territory of Manchuria simultaneously and immediately after the entrance into force of the treaty of peace; and within a period of eighteen months from this date the armies of the two powers shall be entirely withdrawn from Manchuria, with the exception of the leased territory of the peninsula of Liao-tung. The forces of the two powers occupying advanced positions shall be withdrawn first. The high contracting parties reserve the right to maintain guards for the protection of their respective railroad lines in Manchuria. The number of these guards shall not exceed 15 men per kilometer, and within the limit of this maximum number the commanders of the Russian and Japanese armies shall, by mutual agreement, fix the number of guards who are to be employed, this number being as low as possible and in accordance with actual requirements. The commanders of the Russian and Japanese forces in Manchuria shall reach an understanding regarding all the details connected with the evacuation, in conformity with the principles herein above set forth, and shall, by mutual agreement, adopt the measures necessary to carry out the evacuation as soon as possible and at all events within a period not exceeding eighteen months.

II. To Article IX: As soon as possible after the present treaty takes effect, a boundary commission composed of an equal number of members appointed respectively by the two high contracting parties shall mark on the spot and in a permanent manner the exact line between the Russian and Japanese possessions on the island of Saghalin. The commission shall be obliged, as far as topographical conditions permit, to follow the 50th parallel of north latitude for the line of demarcation, and in case any deviations from this line are found necessary at certain points compensation shall be made therefor by making corresponding deviations at other points. It shall also be the duty of said commission to prepare a list and description of the adjacent islands which are comprised within the cession, and finally the commission shall prepare and sign maps showing the boundaries of the ceded territory. The labors of the commission shall be submitted to the approval of the high contracting parties.

The additional articles mentioned hereinabove shall be considered as being ratified by the ratification of the treaty of peace, to which they are annexed.

Portsmouth, August 23 (September 5), 1905, corresponding to the 5th day, 9th month and thirty-eighth year of Meiji.

IUTARO KOMURA
K. TAKAHIRA
SERGIUS WITTE
ROSEN

[The ratification by the Tsar in the following terms:]

Therefore, after mature consideration of this treaty and the two additional articles, we approved, confirmed, and ratified them, and do hereby approve, confirm, and ratify them in their full purport, pledging our imperial word for ourselves, our successors, and our heirs that everything set forth in the above-mentioned acts shall be inviolably observed. In witness whereof we, having signed this, our imperial ratification, with our own hand, have ordered affixed thereto our imperial seal.

Given at Peterhoff, the first day of October, in the year of our Lord one thousand nine hundred and five and of our reign the eleventh.

[On the original is written in His Imperial Majesty's own hand:]

"NICHOLAS."

L. S.
Countersigned
COUNT LAMSDORFF,
Secretary of State, Minister of Foreign Affairs.
See also JAPAN: 1902-1905.

PORTUGAL: Location.—Origin of name.—Portugal, one of the smaller European states occupying the western part of the Iberian peninsula, has a continental area of 34,254 square miles. The Azores and Madeira, regarded as a part of the republic, have an area of 1,236 square miles, making the total area 35,490 square miles. The estimated population, 1911, was 5,960,056. Portugal derives its name from the city of Oporto, "The Port," at the mouth of the river known in Greek and Roman times as *Portus cale*. The county in which the city was situated was known as "*comitatus Portucalensis*," whence the name later extended to the whole of the medieval kingdom. See below: Early history.—See also AZORES; PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA; PORTUGUESE INDIA.

Resources.—Of the whole area of continental Portugal only 26.2 per cent is under cereals and pasturage; 3.5 per cent under vineyards; 3.9 per cent under fruit trees; and 17.3 per cent under forest. The total cereal (wheat, rye, oats and barley) production for 1919 amounted to 10,601,114 bushels; the vintage amounted to 96,641,160 gallons; the olive oil produced totaled 12,760,000 gallons; and the wool-clip amounted to 6,244,684 pounds. The republic has considerable mineral wealth consisting mostly of wolfram, iron, copper, manganese, antimony, lead, tin, and gold, but because of the lack of fuel and cheap transport valuable mines remain unworked. The sardine and tunny fisheries constitute another industry the value of which amounted to 20,205,996 escudos in 1918; but the characteristic industry is the manufacture of Azulejos or porcelain tiles, an inheritance from the Moors.

Early history.—Mistaken identification with ancient Lusitania.—Roman, Gothic, Moorish and Spanish conquests.—County of Henry of Burgundy.—"The early history of the country, which took the name of Portugal from the county which formed the nucleus of the future kingdom, is identical with that of the rest of the Iberian peninsula, but deserves some slight notice because of an old misconception, immortalized in the title of the famous epic of Camoens, and not yet entirely eradicated even from modern ideas. Portugal, like the rest of the peninsula, was originally inhabited by men of the prehistoric ages. . . . There seems to be no doubt that the Celts, the first Aryan immigrants, were preceded by a non-Aryan race, which is called by different writers the

Iberian or Euskaldunac nation, but this earlier race speedily amalgamated with the Celts, and out of the two together were formed the five tribes inhabiting the Iberian peninsula, which Strabo names as the Cantabrian, the Vasconians, the Asturians, the Gallicians and the Lusitanians. It is Strabo, also, who mentions the existence of Greek colonies at the mouth of the Tagus, Douro, and Minho, and it is curious to note that the old name of Lisbon, Obispo, was from the earliest times identified with that of the hero of the Odyssey, and was interpreted to mean the city of Ulysses. . . . The Carthaginians, though they had colonies all over the peninsula, established their rule mainly over the south and east of it, having their capital at Carthagera or Nova Carthago, and seem to have neglected the more barbarous northern and western provinces. It was for this reason that the Romans found far more difficulty in subduing these latter provinces. . . . In 189 B. C. Lucius Æmilius Paullus defeated the Lusitanians, and in 185 B. C. Gaius Calpurnius forced his way across the Tagus. There is no need here to discuss the gradual conquest by the Romans of that part of the peninsula which includes the modern kingdom of Portugal, but it is necessary to speak of the gallant shepherd Viriathus, who sustained a stubborn war against the Romans from 149 B. C. until he was assassinated in 139 B. C., because he has been generally claimed as the first national hero of Portugal. This claim has been based upon the assumed identification of the modern Portugal with the ancient Lusitania [see LUSITANIA], an identification which has spread its roots deep in Portuguese literature, and has until recently been generally accepted. . . . The Celtic tribe of Lusitanians dwelt, according to Strabo, in the districts north of the Tagus, while the Lusitania of the Latin historians of the Republic undoubtedly lay to the south of that river, though it was not used as the name of a province until the time of Augustus, when the old division of the peninsula into Hispania Citerior and Hispania Ulterior was superseded by the division into Betica, Tarraconensis, and Lusitania. Neither in this division, nor in the division of the peninsula into the five provinces of Tarraconensis, Carthaginensis, Betica, Lusitania, and Gallicia, under Hadrian, was the province called Lusitania coterminous with the modern kingdom of Portugal. Under each division the name was given to a district south of the Tagus. . . . It is important to grasp the result of this misconception, for it emphasizes the fact that the history of Portugal for many centuries is merged in that of the rest of the Iberian peninsula, and explains why it is unnecessary to study the wars of the Lusitanians with the Roman Republic, as is often done in histories of Portugal. Like the rest of the peninsula Portugal was thoroughly Latinized in the days of the Roman Empire; Roman 'coloniae' and 'municipia' were established in places suited for trade, such as Lisbon and Oporto. . . . Peaceful existence under the sway of Rome continued until the beginning of the 5th century, when the Goths first forced their way across the Pyrenees [see GOTHs: 410-419]. . . . The Visigothic Empire left but slight traces in Portugal." The Mohammedan conquest by the Arab-Moors, which began early in the eighth century, extended to Portugal, and for a general account of the struggle in the peninsula between Christians and Moslems during several succeeding centuries the reader is referred to SPAIN: 711-713, and after. "In 997 Bermudo II., king of Galicia, won back the first portion of modern Portugal from the Moors by seizing

Oporto and occupying the province now known as the Entre Minho e Douro. . . . In 1055 Ferdinand 'the Great,' king of Leon, Castile, and Galicia, invaded the Beira; in 1057 he took Lamego and Viseu; and in 1064 Coimbra, where he died in the following year. He arranged for the government of his conquests in the only way possible under the feudal system, by forming them into a county, extending to the Mondego, with Coimbra as its capital. The first count of Coimbra was Sennando, a recreant Arab vizir, who had advised Ferdinand to invade his district and had assisted in its easy conquest. . . . But though Sennando's county of Coimbra was the great frontier county of Galicia, and the most important conquest of Ferdinand 'the Great,' it was not thence that the kingdom which was to develop out of his dominions was to take its name. Among the counties of Galicia was one called the 'comitatus Portucalensis,' because it contained within its boundaries the famous city at the mouth of the Douro, known in Roman and Greek times as the Portus Cale, and in modern days as Oporto, or 'The Port.' This county of Oporto or Portugal was the one destined to give its name to the future kingdom, and was held at the time of Ferdinand's death by Nuno Mendes, the founder of one of the most famous families in Portuguese history. Ferdinand 'the Great' was succeeded in his three kingdoms of Castile, Leon, and Galicia, by his three sons, Sancho, Alfonso, and Garcia, the last of whom received the two counties of Coimbra and Oporto as fiefs of Galicia, and maintained Nuno Mendes and Sennando as his feudatories." Wars between the three sons ensued, as the result of which "the second of them, Alfonso of Leon, eventually united all his father's kingdoms in 1073, as Alfonso VI." This Alfonso was now called upon to encounter a new impulse of Mohammedan aggression, under a new dynasty, that of the Almoravides. (See ALMORAVIDES.) "The new dynasty collected great Moslem armies, and in 1086 Yusuf Ibn Teshfin routed Alfonso utterly at the battle of Zalaca, and reconquered the peninsula up to the Ebro. . . . Alfonso tried to compensate for this defeat and his loss of territory in the east of his dominions by conquests in the west, and in 1093 he advanced to the Tagus and took Santarem and Lisbon, and made Sueiro Mendes count of the new district. But these conquests he did not hold for long. . . . In 1093 Seyr, the general of the Almoravide caliph Yusuf, took Evora from the Emir of Badajoz; in 1094 he took Badajoz itself, and killed the emir; and retaking Lisbon and Santarem forced his way up to the Mondego. To resist this revival of the Mohammedan power, Alfonso summoned the chivalry of Christendom to his aid. Among the knights who joined his army eager to win their spurs, and win dominions for themselves, were Count Raymond of Toulouse and Count Henry of Burgundy. To the former Alfonso gave his legitimate daughter, Urraca, and Galicia; to the latter, his illegitimate daughter Theresa, and the counties of Oporto and Coimbra, with the title of Count of Portugal. The history of Portugal now becomes distinct from that of the rest of the peninsula, and it is from the year 1095 that the history of Portugal commences. The son of Henry of Burgundy was the great monarch Alfonso Henriques, the hero of his country and the founder of a great dynasty."—H. M. Stephens, *Story of Portugal*, ch. 1.

1095-1325.—County made independent and raised to rank of a kingdom.—Completion of conquests from the Moors.—Limits of the kingdom established.—Founding of University of

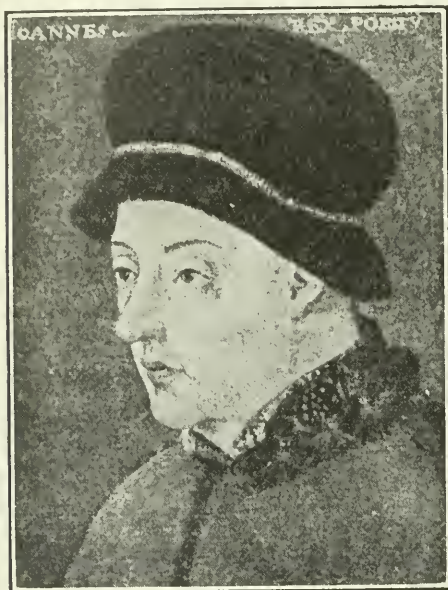
Lisbon.—Count Henry of Burgundy waged war for seven years with his Moorish neighbors; then went crusading to Palestine for two years. On his return in 1105 he made common cause with his brother-in-law and brother-adventurer, Count Raymond of Galicia, against the suspected intention of King Alfonso to declare his bastard, half-Moorish son, Sancho, the heir to his dominions. "This peaceful arrangement had no result, owing to the death of Count Raymond in 1107, followed by that of young Sancho at the battle of Uclés with the Moors, in 1108, and finally by the death of Alfonso VI himself in 1109. The king's death brought about the catastrophe. He left all his dominions to his legitimate daughter, Urraca, with the result that there was five years of fierce fighting between Henry of Burgundy, Alfonso Raimundes, the son of Count Raymond, Alfonso I. of Aragon, and Queen Urraca. . . . While they fought with each other the Mohammedans advanced. . . . On May 1, 1114, Count Henry died, . . . leaving his wife Theresa as regent during the minority of his son Afonso Henriques, who was but three years old. Theresa, who made the ancient city of Guimaraens her capital, devoted all her energies to building up her son's dominions into an independent state; and under her rule, while the Christian states of Spain were torn by internecine war, the Portuguese began to recognize Portugal as their country, and to cease from calling themselves Galicians. This distinction between Portugal and Galicia was the first step towards the formation of a national spirit, which grew into a desire for national independence." The regency of Theresa, during which she was engaged in many contests, with her half-sister Urraca and others, ended in 1128. In the later years of it she provoked great discontent by her infatuation with a lover to whom she was passionately devoted. In the end, her son headed a revolt which expelled her from Portugal. The son, Afonso Henriques, assumed the reins of government at the age of seventeen years. In 1130 he began a series of wars with Alfonso VII of Castile, the aim of which was to establish the independence of Portugal. These wars were ended in 1140 by an agreement, "in consonance with the ideas of the times, to refer the great question of Portuguese independence to a chivalrous contest. In a great tournament, known as the Tourney of Valdevez, the Portuguese knights were entirely successful over those of Castile, and in consequence of their victory Afonso Henriques assumed the title of King of Portugal. This is the turning-point of Portuguese history, and it is a curious fact that the independence of Portugal from Galicia was achieved by victory in a tournament and not in war. Up to 1136, Afonso Henriques had styled himself Infante, in imitation of the title borne by his mother; from 1136 to 1140 he styled himself Principe, and in 1140 he first took the title of King." A little before this time, on July 25, 1139, Afonso had defeated the Moors in a famous and much magnified battle—namely that of Orik or Ourique—"which, until modern investigators examined the facts, has been considered to have laid the foundations of the independence of Portugal. Chroniclers, two centuries after the battle, solemnly asserted that five kings were defeated on this occasion, that 200,000 Mohammedans were slain, and that after the victory the Portuguese soldiers raised Afonso on their shields and hailed him as king. This story is absolutely without authority from contemporary chronicles, and is quite as much a fiction as the Cortes of Lamego, which has been invented as sitting in 1143 and passing the constitutional laws

on which Vertot and other writers have expended so much eloquence. . . . It was not until the modern school of historians arose in Portugal, which examined documents and did not take the statements of their predecessors on trust, that it was clearly pointed out that Afonso Henriques won his crown by his long struggle with his Christian cousin, and not by his exploits against the Moors."—H. M. Stephens, *Story of Portugal*, ch. 2-3.—"The long reign of Afonso I., an almost uninterrupted period of war, is the most brilliant epoch in the history of the Portuguese conquests. Lisbon, which had already under its Moorish masters become the chief city of the west, was taken in 1147, and became at once the capital of the new kingdom. The Tagus itself was soon passed. Large portions of the modern Estremadura and Alemtejo were permanently annexed. The distant provinces of Algarve and Andalucia were overrun; and even Seville trembled at the successes of the Portuguese. It was in vain that Moorish vessels sailed from Africa to chastise the presumption of their Christian foes: their ships were routed off Lisbon by the vessels of Afonso; their armies were crushed by a victory at Santarem [1184], the last and perhaps the most glorious of the many triumphs of the King. . . . Every conquest saw the apportionment of lands to be held by military tenure among the conquerors; and the Church, which was here essentially a militant one, received not only an endowment for its religion but a reward for its sword. The Orders of St. Michael and of Avis [St. Benedict of Avis] which were founded had a religious as well as a military aspect. Their members were to be distinguished by their piety not less than by their courage, and were to emulate the older brotherhoods of Jerusalem and of Castile. . . . Sancho I. [who succeeded his father Afonso in 1185], though not adverse to military fame, endeavoured to repair his country's wounds; and his reign, the complement of that of Afonso, was one of development rather than of conquest. . . . The surname of El Povoador, the Founder, is the indication of his greatest work. New towns and villages arose, new wealth and strength were given to the rising country. Afonso II. [1211] continued what Sancho had begun; and the enactment of laws, humane and wise, are a testimony of progress, and an honourable distinction to his reign." But Afonso II provoked the hostility of an arrogant and too powerful clergy, and drew upon himself a sentence of excommunication from Rome. "The divisions and the weakness which were caused by the contest between the royal and ecclesiastical authority brought misery upon the kingdom. The reign of Sancho II. [who succeeded to the throne in 1223] was more fatally influenced by them even than that of his father. . . . The now familiar terrors of excommunication and interdict were followed [1245] by a sentence of deposition from Innocent IV.; and Sancho, weak in character, and powerless before a hostile priesthood and a disaffected people, retired to end his days in a cloister of Castile. The successor to Sancho was Afonso III. He had intrigued for his brother's crown; he had received the support of the priesthood, and he had promised them their reward in the extension of their privileges"; but his administration of the government was wise and popular. He died in 1279. "The first period of the history of Portugal is now closed. Up to this time, each reign, disturbed and enfeebled though it may have been, had added something to the extent of the country. But now the last conquest from the Moors had been won. On the south, the impassable barrier of the ocean; on the

east, the dominions of Castile, confined the kingdom. . . . The crusading days were over. . . . The reign of Denis, who ruled from 1279 to 1325, is at once the parallel to that of Afonso I. in its duration and importance, the contrast to it in being a period of internal progress instead of foreign conquest. . . . That Denis should have been able to accomplish as much as he did, was the wonder even of his own age. [It was during the reign of Denis that the University of Lisbon was founded (1290); in 1308 it was transferred to Coimbra.] . . . Successive reigns still found the country progressing."—C. F. Johnstone, *Historical abstracts*, ch. 4.—Alfonso IV, who succeeded Denis, defended his kingdom against Castilian and Moslem.

ALSO IN: E. McMurdo, *History of Portugal*, v. 1, bk. 1-4, v. 2, bk. 1.

1383-1385.—Founding of new dynasty of the House of Avis.—"The legitimate descent of the kings of Portugal from County Henry, of the house



JOHN I

of Burgundy, terminated with Ferdinand (the son of Peter I.) . . . in 1383. After wasting the resources of his people in the vain support of his claims to the crown of Castile, exposing Lisbon to a siege, and the whole country to devastation, this monarch gave his youthful daughter in marriage to the natural enemy of Portugal, John I, at that time the reigning king of Castile. . . . It was agreed between the contracting parties that the male issue of this connection should succeed to the Portuguese sceptre, and, that failing, that it should devolve into the hands of the Castilian monarch. Fortunately, however, the career of this Spanish tyrant was short, and no issue was left of Beatrix, for whom the crown of Portugal could be claimed; and therefore all the just pretensions of the Spaniard ceased. The marriage had scarcely been concluded, when Ferdinand died. It had been provided by the laws of the constitution, that in a case of emergency, such as now occurred, the election of a new sovereign should immediately take place. The legal heir to the crown, Don Juan [the late king's brother], the son of Pedro and Ignes de Castro, whose marriage had been

solemnly recognised by an assembly of the states, was a prisoner at this time in the hands of his rival, the king of Castile. The necessity of having a head to the government appointed without delay, opened the road to the throne for John, surnamed the Bastard, the natural son of Don Pedro, by Donna Theresa Lorenzo, a Galician lady. Availing himself of the natural aversion by which the Portuguese were influenced against the Castilians, he seized the regency from the hands of the queen-dowager, . . . successfully defended Lisbon, and forced the Spaniards to retire into Spain after their memorable defeat on the plain of Aljubarota. . . . This battle . . . completely established the independence of the Portuguese monarchy. John was, in consequence, unanimously elected King by the Cortes, assembled at Coimbra in 1385. . . . In aid of his natural talents John I. had received an excellent education from his father, and during his reign exhibited proofs of being a profound politician, as well as a skilful general. . . . He became the founder of a new dynasty of kings, called the house of 'Avis,' from his having been grand master of that noble order. The enterprises, however, of the great Prince Henry, a son of John I, form a distinguishing feature of this reign."—W. M. Kinsey, *Portugal illustrated*, pp. 34-35.

1409.—Represented at Council of Pisa. See PAPACY: 1377-1417.

1415-1460.—Taking of Ceuta.—Exploring expeditions of Prince Henry the Navigator down the African coast.—"King John [the First] had married an English wife, Philippa Plantagenet—a grand-daughter of our King Edward III, thoroughly English, too, on her mother's side, and not without a dash of Scottish blood, for her great-great-grand-mother was a Comyn of Broghnan. King John of Portugal was married to his English wife for twenty-eight years, they had five noble sons and a daughter (who was Duchess of Burgundy and mother of Charles the Bold); and English habits and usages were adopted at the Portuguese Court. We first meet with Prince Henry and his brothers, Edward and Peter, at the bed-side of their English mother. The king had determined to attack Ceuta, the most important seaport on the Moorish coast; and the three young princes were to receive knighthood if they bore themselves manfully, and if the place was taken, Edward the eldest, was twenty-four, Peter twenty-three, and Henry just twenty-one. He was born on March 4th, 1394. There were two other brothers, John and Ferdinand, but they were still too young to bear arms. Their mother had caused three swords to be made with which they were to be girt as knights; and the great fleet was being assembled at Lisbon. But the Queen was taken ill, and soon there was no hope. Husband and sons gathered round her deathbed. When very near her end she asked: 'How is the wind?' she was told that it was northerly. 'Then,' she said, 'You will all sail for Ceuta on the feast of St. James.' A few minutes afterwards she died, and her husband and sons sailed for Ceuta on St. James's day, the 25th of July, 1415, according to her word. . . . Ceuta was taken after a desperate fight. It was a memorable event, for the town never again passed into the hands of the Moors unto this day. . . . From the time of this Ceuta expedition Prince Henry set his mind steadfastly on the discovery of Guinea and on the promotion of commercial enterprise. During his stay at Ceuta he collected much information respecting the African coast. . . . His first objects were to know what was beyond the farthest cape hitherto

reached on the coast of Africa, to open commercial relations with the people, and to extend the Christian faith. Prince Henry had the capacity for taking trouble. He undertook the task, and he never turned aside from it until he died. To be close to his work he came to live on the promontory of Sagres, near Cape St. Vincent, and not far from the seaport of Lagos. He was twenty-four years old when he came to live at this secluded spot, in December, 1418; and he died there in his sixty-seventh year. . . . He established a school at Sagres for the cultivation of map-drawing and the science of navigation. At great expense he procured the services of Mestre Jacome from Majorca, a man very learned in the art of navigation, as it was then understood, and he erected an observatory. . . . During the time of the Crusades a great order of knighthood was established, called the Templars, which became very rich and powerful, and held vast estates in most of the countries of Europe. At last the kings became jealous of their prosperity and, in the days of our Edward II. and of the French Philip IV., their wealth was confiscated, and the order of Knights Templars was abolished in all countries except Portugal. But King Dionysius of Portugal refused either to rob the knights or to abolish the order. In the year 1319 he reformed the order, and changed the name, calling it the Order of Christ, and he encircled the white cross of the Templars with a red cross as the future badge of the knights. They retained their great estates. Prince Henry was appointed, by his father, Grand Master of the Order of Christ in the year 1419. He could imagine no nobler nor more worthy employment for the large revenues of the Order than the extension of geographical discovery. Thus were the funds for his costly expeditions supplied by the Order of Chivalry of which he was Grand Master. When Prince Henry first began to send forth expeditions along the coast of Africa, the farthest point to the southward that had been sighted was Cape Bojador. The discovery of the extreme southern point of Africa, and of a way thence to India, was looked upon then . . . [as impossible]. Nevertheless, Prince Henry said that it could be done, and that, moreover it should be done. . . . In 1434 he considered that the time had come to round Cape Bojador. He selected for the command of the expedition an esquire of his household named Gil Eannes, who was accompanied by John Diaz, an experienced seaman of a seafaring family at Lagos, many of whose members became explorers. Prince Henry told them that the current which they feared so much was strongest at a distance of about three to five miles from the land. He ordered them, therefore, to stand out boldly to sea. 'It was a place before terrible to all men,' but the Prince told them that they must win fame and honour by following his instructions. They did so, rounded the Cape, and landed on the other side. There they set up a wooden cross as a sign of their discovery. . . . The Prince now equipped a larger vessel than had yet been sent out, called a varinel, propelled by oars as well as sails. Many were the eager volunteers among the courtiers at Sagres. Prince Henry's cup-bearer, named Alfonso Gonsalves Baldaya, was selected to command the expedition, and Gil Eannes—he who first doubled Cape Bojador—went with it in a smaller vessel. . . . They sailed in the year 1436, and, having rounded Cape Bojador without any hesitation, they proceeded southward along the coast for 120 miles, until they reached an estuary called by them Rio d'Ouro. . . . During the five following years Prince

Henry was much engaged in State affairs. The disastrous expedition to Tangiers took place, and the imprisonment of his young brother Ferdinand by the Moors, whose noble resignation under cruel insults and sufferings until he died at Fez, won for him the title of the 'Constant Prince.' But in 1441 Prince Henry was able to resume the despatch of vessels of discovery. In that year he gave the command of a small ship to his master of the wardrobe, Antam Gonsalves. . . . He [Gonsalves] was followed in the same year by Nuño Tristram. . . . Tristram discovered a headland which, from its whiteness, he named Cape Blanco. . . . The next discovery was that of the island of Arguin, south of Cape Blanco, which was first visited in 1443 by Nuño Tristram in command of a caravel. . . . The next voyage of discovery was one of great importance, because it passed the country of the Moors, and, for the first time, entered the land of the Negroes. Dinis Diaz,



PRINCE HENRY, THE NAVIGATOR

(From a rare engraving made in Holland about three hundred years ago)

who was selected for this enterprise by the Prince, sailed in 1446 with the resolution of beating all his predecessors. He passed the mouth of the river Senegal, and was surprised at finding that the people on the north bank were Moors, while to the south they were all blacks; of a tribe called Jaloffs. Diaz went as far as a point which he called Cabo Verde. In the following years several expeditions, under Lanzarote and others, went to Arguin and the Senegal; until, in 1455, an important voyage under Prince Henry's patronage was undertaken by a young Venetian named Alvise (Luigi) Cadamosto. . . . They sailed on March 22, 1455, and went first to Porto Santo and Madeira. From the Canary Islands they made sail for Cape Blanco, boldly stretching across the intervening sea and being for some time quite out of sight of land. Cadamosto had a good deal of intercourse with the Negroes to the south of the Senegal, and eventually reached the mouth of the Gambia whence he set out on his homeward voyage. The actual extent of the discoveries made during the life of Prince Henry was from Cape Bojador to beyond the mouth of the Gambia. But this was

only a small part of the great service he performed, not only for his own country, but for the whole civilised world. He organised discovery, trained up a generation of able explorers, so that from his time progress was continuous and unceasing. . . . Prince Henry, who was to be known to all future generations as 'the Navigator,' died at the age of sixty-six at Sagres, on Thursday, the 13th of November, 1400."—C. R. Markham, *Sea fathers*, ch. 1.—See also COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 15th-17th centuries: Leadership of the Portuguese.

ALSO IN: R. H. Major, *Life of Prince Henry of Portugal, the navigator*.

1463-1498.—Pope's gift of title to African discoveries.—Slow southward progress of exploration.—Rounding of the Cape of Good Hope.—Vasco da Gama's voyage.—Effect of Portuguese maritime enterprise in the development of modern Europe.—"In order to secure his triumphs, Prince Henry procured a bull from Pope Eugenius IV., which guaranteed to the Portuguese all their discoveries between Cape Nun, in Morocco, and India. None of his commanders approached within six or eight degrees of the equator. . . . By the year 1472, St. Thomas, Annobon, and Prince's Islands were added to the Portuguese discoveries, and occupied by colonists; and at length the equator was crossed. Fernando Po having given his name to an island in the Bight of Biafra, acquired possession of 500 leagues of equatorial coast, whence the King of Portugal took the title of Lord of Guinea. The subsequent divisions of this territory into the Grain Coast, named from the cochineal thence obtained, and long thought to be the seed of a plant, Gold Coast, Ivory Coast, and Slave Coast, indicate by their names the nature of the products of those lands, and the kind of traffic. Under King John II., after an inactive period of eight or ten years, Diego Cam (1484) pushed forward fearlessly to latitude 22° south, erecting at intervals on the shore, pillars of stone, which asserted the rights of his sovereign to the newly-found land. For the first time, perhaps, in history, men had now sailed under a new firmament. They lost sight of a part of the old celestial constellations, and were awe-struck with the splendours of the Southern Cross, and hosts of new stars. . . . Imaginary perils, which had frightened former sailors, spurred the Portuguese to greater daring. Bartholomew Diaz, in 1486, was sent in command of an expedition of three ships, with directions to sail till he reached the southernmost headland of Africa. Creeping on from cape to cape, he passed the furthest point touched by Diego Cam, and reached about 29° south latitude. Here driven out of his course by rough weather, was dismayed on again making land to find the coast trending northward. He had doubled the Cape without knowing it, and only found it out on returning, disheartened by the results of his voyage. Raising the banner of St. Philip on the shore of Table Bay, Diaz named the headland the Cape of Tempests, which the king, with the passage to India in mind, changed to that of the Cape of Good Hope. By a curious coincidence in the same year Covillan [see ABYSSINIA: 15th-16th centuries] . . . learnt the fact that the Cape of Good Hope, the Lion of the Sea, or the Head of Africa, could be reached across the Indian Ocean."—J. Yeats, *Growth and vicissitudes of commerce*, pt. 2, ch. 4.—"Pedro de Covilho had sent word to King John II from Cairo, by two Jews, Rabbi Abraham and Rabbi Joseph, that there was a south cape of Africa which could be

doubled. They brought with them an Arabic map of the African coast. . . . Covilho had learned from the Arabian mariners, who were perfectly familiar with the east coast, that they had frequently been at the south of Africa, and that there was no difficulty in passing round the continent that way. . . . Vasco da Gama set sail July 9, 1497, with three ships and 160 men, having with him the Arab map. King John had employed his Jewish physicians, Roderigo and Joseph, to devise what help they could from the stars. They applied the astrolabe to marine use, and constructed tables. These were the same doctors who had told him that Columbus would certainly succeed in reaching India, and advised him to send out a secret expedition in anticipation, which was actually done, though it failed through want of resolution in its captain. Encountering the usual difficulties, tempestuous weather and a mutinous crew, who conspired to put him to death, De Gama succeeded, November 20, in doubling the Cape. On March 1 he met seven small Arab vessels, and was surprised to find that they used the compass, quadrants, sea-charts, and 'had divers maritime mysteries not short of the Portugals.' With joy he soon after recovered sight of the northern stars, for so long unseen. He now bore away to the north-east, and on May 19, 1498, reached Calicut, on the Malabar coast. The consequences of this voyage were to the last degree important. The commercial arrangements of Europe were completely dislocated; Venice was deprived of her mercantile supremacy [see VENICE: 15th-17th centuries]; the hatred of Genoa was gratified; prosperity left the Italian towns; Egypt, hitherto supposed to possess a pre-eminent advantage as offering the best avenue to India, suddenly lost her position; the commercial monopolies so long in the hands of the European Jews were broken down. The discovery of America and passage of the Cape were the first steps of that prodigious maritime development soon exhibited by Western Europe. And since commercial prosperity is forthwith followed by the production of men and concentration of wealth, and, moreover, implies an energetic intellectual condition, it appeared before long that the three centres of population, of wealth, of intellect, were shifting westwardly. The front of Europe was suddenly changed; the British Islands, hitherto in a sequestered and eccentric position, were all at once put in the van of the new movement."—J. W. Draper, *History of the intellectual development of Europe*, ch. 19.—See also ASIA: 1500-1900; CEYLON; LIBERIA: Portuguese exploration; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1486-1806.

ALSO IN: G. Correa, *Three voyages of Vasco da Gama* (Hakluyt Society, 1869).—J. Fiske, *Discovery of America*, v. 1, ch. 4.—G. M. Towle, *Voyages and adventures of Vasco da Gama*.

1474-1476.—Interference in Castile.—Defeat at Toro. See SPAIN: 1368-1479.

1484-1485.—Refusal to aid Columbus. See AMERICA: 1484-1492.

1490.—Alliance with Castile and Aragon in conquest of Granada. See SPAIN: 1476-1492.

1493.—Pope's division of discoveries in the New World. See AMERICA: 1493; also Map showing voyages of discovery.

1494.—Treaty of Tordesillas.—Amended partition of the New World with Spain. See AMERICA: 1494.

1498-1580.—Trade and settlements in East Indies. See INDIA: 1498-1580; COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 15th-17th centuries: Leadership of the Portuguese.

1500-1504.—Discovery, exploration and first settlement of Brazil. See AMERICA: 1500-1514; 1503-1504.

1501.—Early enterprise in Newfoundland fisheries. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1501-1578.

1503-1508.—Conquest of the island of Zanzibar. See ZANZIBAR: 1503-1856.

1510-1549.—Colonization of Brazil. See BRAZIL: 1510-1661.

1524.—Disputes with Spain in the division of the New World.—Congress at Badajos. See AMERICA: 1510-1524.

1528-1648.—Commercial rivalry with other nations in the New World. See AMERICA: 1528-1648.

out flattery, admire his sprightly wit, his manly form, his daring spirit, and his superior address, in all the accomplishments of a martial age. But the hopes which these splendid qualities inspired were clouded by an intemperate thirst of fame. . . . He had early cherished the frantic project of transporting a royal army to India, and of rivalling the exploits of Alexander; but from this design he was diverted, not by the difficulties that opposed it, nor by the remonstrances of his counsellors, but by the distractions of Africa, which promised to his ambition a nearer and fairer harvest of glory. On the death of Abdalla, King of Morocco, his son, Muley Mahomet, had seized upon the crown, in contempt to an



VASCO DA GAMA PRESENTING A LETTER FROM THE KING OF PORTUGAL TO THE
SAMORIN OF CALICUT

(After painting by Salgado)

1542.—Disputes with Spain in the Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1542.

1579-1580.—Disastrous invasion of Morocco by Sebastian.—His death in battle.—Disputed succession to the throne.—Claim of Philip II of Spain established by force of arms.—“Under a long succession of Kings who placed their glory in promoting the commerce of their subjects and extending their discoveries through the remotest regions of the globe, Portugal had attained a degree of importance among the surrounding nations, from which the narrow limits of the kingdom, and the neighbourhood of the Spanish monarchy, seemed for ever to exclude her. . . . John III., the last of those great monarchs under whose auspices the boundaries of the known world had been enlarged, was succeeded in the throne of Portugal [1557] by his grandson Sebastian, a child of only three years old. As the royal infant advanced to manhood, his subjects, might, with-

established law of succession, that the kingdom should devolve to the brother of the deceased monarch. A civil war ensued, and Mahomet, defeated in several battles, was compelled to leave his uncle Muley Moluc, a prince of great abilities and virtues, in possession of the throne.” Mahomet escaped to Lisbon, and Sebastian espoused his cause. He invaded Morocco (see MOROCCO: 647-1860) with a force partly supplied by his uncle, Philip II, of Spain, and partly by the Prince of Orange, engaged the Moors rashly in battle (the battle of Alcazar, or the Three Kings, 1570), and perished on the field, his army being mostly destroyed or made captive. “An aged and feeble priest was the immediate heir to the unfortunate Sebastian; and the Cardinal Henry, the great uncle to the late monarch, ascended the vacant throne. [He lived about a year, dying in 1580, leaving the crown in dispute among a crowd of claimants.]”—J. Adams, *History of Spain*, v. 2, pp.

406-408, 411.—“The candidates were seven in number: the duchess of Braganza, the king of Spain, the duke of Savoy, Don Antonio, prior of Crato, the duke of Parma, Catherine of Medicis, and the sovereign pontiff. The four first were grand-children of Emanuel the Great, father of Henry. The duchess of Braganza was daughter of Prince Edward, Emanuel's second son; Philip was the son of the Empress Isabella, his eldest daughter; the duke of Savoy, of Beatrix, his younger daughter; and Don Antonio was a natural son of Lewis, who was a younger son of Emanuel, and brother to the present king [cardinal Henry]. The duke of Parma was great-grandson of Emanuel, by a daughter of the above-mentioned Prince Edward. The Queen-mother of France founded her claim on her supposed descent from Alphonso, who died about 300 years before the present period; and the Pope pretended that Portugal was feudatory to the see of Rome, and belonged to him, since the male heirs in the direct line were extinct.” The other candidates held small chances against the power and convenient neighborhood of Philip of Spain. “Philip's agents at the court of Lisbon allowed that if the duchess of Braganza's father had been alive, his title would have been indisputable; but they maintained that, since he had died without attaining possession of the throne, nothing but the degree of consanguinity to Emanuel ought to be regarded; and that, as the duchess and he were equal in that respect, the preference was due to a male before a female. And they farther insisted, that the law which excludes strangers from inheriting the crown was not applicable to him, since Portugal had formerly belonged to the kings of Castile.” Promptly on the death of the cardinal-king Henry, the Spanish king sent an army of 35,000 men, under the famous duke of Alva, and a large fleet under the Marquis of Santa Croce, to take possession of what he claimed as his inheritance. Two battles sufficed for the subjugation of Portugal:—one fought on the Alcantara, August 25, 1580, and the other a little later on the Douro. The kingdom submitted, but with bitter feelings, which the conduct of Alva and his troops had intensified at every step of their advance. “The colonies in America, Africa, and the Indies, which belonged to the crown of Portugal, quickly followed the example of the mother country; nor did Philip find employment for his arms in any part of the Portuguese dominions but the Azores, [which, supported by the French, were not subdued until the following year.]”—R. Watson, *History of the reign of Philip II*, bk. 16.—See also AUSTRIA: 1496-1526.

1589.—English invasion. See ENGLAND: 1588-1590.

1594-1620.—Beginning of the rivalry of the Dutch in East India trade. See NETHERLANDS: 1594-1620.

16th-17th centuries.—Exploration and trade in China and Japan. See CHINA: 1294-1736; JAPAN: 1542-1593; 1593-1625; 1625-1641.

17th century.—Government control of trade. See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 16th-17th centuries: Merchant trading companies.

1624-1661.—War with the Dutch.—Loss and recovery of parts of Brazil. See BRAZIL: 1510-1661; 1531-1641.

1624-1661.—Rivalry with Dutch and English in India. See INDIA: 1600-1702.

1637-1668.—Crisis of discontent with Spanish rule.—Successful revolution.—National independence recovered.—House of Braganza placed

on the throne.—“A spirit of dissatisfaction had long been growing amongst the Portuguese. Their colonies were neglected; a great part of Brazil, and a yet larger portion of their Indian empire, had fallen into the hands of the Dutch; Ormus, and their other possessions in the Persian Gulph, had been conquered by the Persians; their intercourse with their remaining colonies was harassed and intercepted; their commerce with the independent Indian states, with China and with Japan, was here injured and there partially destroyed, by the enterprising merchants and mariners of Holland; whilst at home the privileges secured to them as the price of their submission, were hourly, if not flagrantly, violated by their Spanish masters. The illegal imposition of a new tax by the king's sole authority, in 1637, had provoked a partial revolt in the southern provinces, where the duke of Braganza, grandson of Catherine [whose right to the throne was forcibly put aside by Philip II of Spain in 1580 [see above: 1579-1580], was proclaimed king. He refused the proffered dignity, and assisted in quelling the rebellion. He was thanked by Philip and at once recompensed, and, as it was hoped, ensnared, by an appointment to be general-in-chief of Portugal. But the flame was smothered, not extinguished. . . . The vice-queen, Margaret, duchess-dowager of Mantua, a daughter of Philip II.'s youngest daughter, Catherine, saw the gathering tempest, and forewarned the court of Madrid of the impending danger. Her information was treated, like herself, with contempt by Olivarez. One measure, however, he took, probably in consequence; and that one finally decided the hesitating conspirators to delay no longer. He ordered a large body of troops to be raised in Portugal, the nobles to arm their vassals, and all, under the conduct of the duke of Braganza, to hasten into Spain, in order to attend the king, who was about to march in person against the rebellious Catalans. Olivarez hoped thus at once to overwhelm Catalonia and Roussillon, and to take from Portugal the power of revolting, by securing the intended leader, and draining the country of the warlike portion of its population. The nobles perceived the object of this command, and resolved to avoid compliance by precipitating their measures. Upon the 12th of October, 1640, they assembled to the number of 40 at the house of Don Antonio d'Almeida. At this meeting they determined to recover their independence, and dispatched Don Pedro de Mendoza as their deputy, to offer the crown and their allegiance to the duke of Braganza, who had remained quietly upon his principal estate at Villa Viçosa. The duke hesitated, alarmed, perhaps, at the importance of the irrevocable step he was called upon to take. But his high-spirited duchess, a daughter of the Spanish duke of Medina-Sidonia, observing to him, that a wretched and dishonourable death certainly awaited him at Madrid; at Lisbon, as certainly glory, whether in life or death, decided his acceptance. Partisans were gained on all sides, especially in the municipality of Lisbon; and the secret was faithfully kept, for several weeks, by at least 500 persons of both sexes, and all ranks. During this interval, the duke of Braganza remained at Villa Viçosa, lest his appearance at Lisbon should excite suspicion; and it seems that, however clearly the vice-queen had perceived the threatening aspect of affairs, neither she nor her ministers entertained any apprehension of the plot actually organized. The 1st of December was the day appointed for the insurrection. Early in the

morning the conspirators approached the palace in four well-armed bands," and easily mastered the guard. From the windows of the palace they "proclaimed liberty and John IV." to a great concourse of people who had speedily assembled. Finding Vasconcellos, the obnoxious secretary to the vice-queen, hidden in a closet, they slew him and flung his body into the street. The vice-queen, seeing herself helpless, submitted to the popular will and signed mandates addressed to the Spanish governors and other officers commanding castles and fortifications in Portugal, requiring their surrender. "The archbishop of Lisbon was next appointed royal-lieutenant. He immediately dispatched intelligence of the event to the new king, and sent messengers to every part of Portugal with orders for the proclamation of John IV., and the seizure of all Spaniards. . . . Obedience was prompt and general. . . . John was crowned on the 15th of December, and immediately abolished the heavy taxes imposed by the king of Spain, declaring that, for his own private expense, he required nothing beyond his patrimonial estates. He summoned the Cortes to assemble in January, when the three estates of the kingdom solemnly confirmed his proclamation as king, or 'acclamation,' as the Portuguese term it. . . . In the islands, in the African settlements, with the single exception of Ceuta, which adhered to Spain, and in what remained of Brazil and India, King John was proclaimed, the moment intelligence of the revolution arrived, the Spaniards scarcely any where attempting to resist. . . . In Europe, the new king was readily acknowledged by all the states at war with the house of Austria." The first attempts made by the Spanish court to regain its lost authority in Portugal took chiefly the form of base conspiracies for the assassination of the new king. War ensued, but the "languid and desultory hostilities produced little effect beyond harassing the frontiers. Portugal was weak, and thought only of self-defence; Spain was chiefly intent upon chastizing the Catalans. [The war was prolonged, in fact, until 1668, when it was terminated by the treaty of Lisbon which recognized the independence of Portugal, but ceded Ceuta to Spain. The only considerable battles of the long war were those of Estremos, or Ameixal, in 1663, and Villa Viçosa, 1665, in which the Portuguese were victors, and which were practically decisive of the war.]—M. M. Busk, *History of Spain and Portugal*, bk. 2, ch. 10-12.—See also SPAIN: 1640-1642.

ALSO IN: J. Dunlap, *Memoirs of Spain*, v. 1, ch. 12.

1654-1777.—Policy of exclusion in Brazil. See BRAZIL: 1654-1777.

1656-1777.—Accessions to the throne.—Earthquake of 1755.—Extent of its destruction.—Administration of Pombal.—His foreign policy.—"The reign of John IV. . . . it is true, marked a great event in the history of Portugal, but . . . cannot be said to have made the nation happy. A weakness and a want of self-assertion characterised his whole career as king, which was brought to an end by his death in the year 1656. The years immediately following the death of John IV were years of grave anxiety. Very troubled was the Regency of the Queen, whose policy had involved Portugal in a war with Spain which, fortunately, had resulted in a series of victories over the Spaniards; and the accession of the boy, Alfonso VI, proved a source of terrible calamity to the country and created new difficulties in the

way of her political development. . . . This debauched youth in 1662 declared himself of age, and presumed himself fit to assume the responsibility of the government of his country. He was, however, fortunate enough to avail himself of the services of Castello Melhor, an eminent statesman. . . . But Castello Melhor was not irreproachable in his policy. He arranged the marriage of Alfonso VI with the French Princess, daughter of Duke of Nemours and granddaughter of Henry IV of France. . . . And Dom Pedro, whose gallant and romantic nature contrasted with that of Alfonso VI, placing himself at the head of the revolution, bridled his brother's licentiousness by shutting him in the Palace; and having received, on the first day of the year 1668, the oath of allegiance of the Cortes, he assumed regency of the kingdom. . . . Dom Pedro, who ascended the throne after his brother's death, was a good-natured king, and the nation seemed to have hoped that his good qualities would find pleasure in giving the monarchy its old aspect. His reign, so memorable for the treaty of Methuen, . . . did not disappoint the nation. In a situation of great difficulty, when Portugal had to keep time with the foreign policies of Spain, France, and England respectively, he availed himself of the good services of Ericeira, his minister, and conducted the affairs of his country with prudence and some degree of foresight. . . . [When, in 1706, John VI succeeded his father, Dom Pedro II, on the throne, though he found the kingdom involved, through the Methuen treaty, in the war of Spanish Succession, [he] saw his country growing in wealth, and he was so misled by the appearances of the hour as to imagine the nation so well advanced along the road of material prosperity as to revive the extravagances of Claudian Cæsars and the last Flavian. . . . The splendour of John V's Court, which was the most brilliant in Europe, disappeared with that improvident monarch. John V died in 1750, leaving a debt of three millions sterling. The country was on the verge of bankruptcy, yet the proud bankrupt Portugal retained as much love for display in those times of destitution as if it were still a wealthy nation. . . . Such was also the fate of Lisbon. The earthquake of 1st November of the year 1755, which laid Lisbon in ruins, came as a destruction from Heaven. That earthquake, which extended its work of desolation over an area of 4000 miles in diameter, swallowed up in six minutes sixty-one churches and convents, thirty-two palaces of nobility, a newly built quay, and destroyed at least sixty thousand lives. It was on the morning of All Saints' Day that Lisbon was shattered to pieces. Churches were overwhelmed with crowds of worshippers that were buried with the churches under the weight of their walls and steeples that had suddenly collapsed. Thousands staggered and lost their lives in the floods of the Tagus that had burst upon the city. Fires broke out in every part of the city; prisoners fled and pillaged those who had escaped death. The effects of this catastrophe, which called forth a vivid description by Voltaire in his *Candide*, were terrible. The city became desolate, for her beauty was withered away, her monuments and her art treasures had vanished, and her population perished. [See also LISBON: 1755.] And it delivered the country into the hands of a tyrant. In other words, it produced the Marquis de Pombal, the famous minister of Joseph I, whose twenty-seven years of administration form one of the many interesting incidents in the his-

tory of Portugal. . . . It is true that he aimed at improving the financial conditions of his country, that he tried to establish a national system of technical education, that he reorganised the army and decreed the abolition of slavery. But what of the measures and methods to enforce his policy? His economic policy, which suggests how badly he copied the policy of Colbert, has, fortunately, almost unanimously been condemned as vicious in principle and disastrous in its results. Pombal, with tendencies for a system in which he might have most power of direction, circumscribed commerce in every branch by the erection of extensive monopolies. The Minister, in the name of the King, was a kind of first manufacturer, who compelled the nation to purchase her commodities at the price set by him. He decreed highly protectionist, at times prohibitive, custom-house regulations with the intention of erecting in Portugal model manufactures and securing to her the production of such articles as she obtained from abroad—regulations which naturally engendered reprisals and seriously hindered the Portuguese commerce. As a necessary corollary to this madhouse legislation, he reinforced an ancient law existing in Portugal and issued an edict prohibiting gold and precious stones that were annually imported from Brazil and other colonies to be exported without his permission! In the decree constituting the General Company of Grand Pará and Maranhão he pushed the monopoly to the farthest extreme, with the result that it put their trade in the most distressing condition. The results were disastrous. The commerce of Brazil had greatly diminished. . . . His foreign policy was not in any way better than his economic policy. There is not a single alliance or negotiation that can be pointed out to have given Portugal the least advantage, and this notwithstanding the fact of his sending Ministers to all the Courts of Europe. But those representatives of the nation abroad, deprived of all initiative, were kept as mere automata upon whom Pombal might put the blame for all unsuccess as far as his dictatorial policy was concerned. Pombal, throughout his twenty-seven years of administration, had a distinct motive that guided all his acts—so distinct that, amidst the deviation which the other motive forces produce in him, one can recognise it still. His greatest object was to exalt his Royal master's prerogatives. He wanted to make the King more absolute than ever, because he knew that the King in return would maintain him in power. He did not hang noblemen to avenge the people from the wrongs they suffered, but to consolidate the power of an absolute monarch. When he aimed at the equalisation of all classes by doing away with the distinction between the old and the new Christians, by which the descendants of the converted Jews and Moors were given equal rights and considered eligible for civil, military, and ecclesiastical offices; when he decreed the abolition of slavery and attempted to free the Indians of Brazil—it was not to defend the people's liberties. He who had asserted by his acts that the people as a body politic had been annulled by the Crown cannot be said to have worked for the cause of liberalism. He was fashioning events in his own way, and at the same time impressing falsely the world with his so-called liberal measures; and Pombal acted this part with as much detriment to his own reputation as prejudice to the advancement of liberalism. Such is the summary of Pombal's administration which rests on racks, gibbets, and dun-

geons. The opinion that has condemned him is not only confined to those whose obtuse prejudice is said to have denied to Pombal the fame he deserves. It has the support of men like Camillo Castello Branco, Latino Coelho, Luiz Soriano, Ramalho Ortigão, and Theophilo Braga, who may claim recognition as authoritative representatives of Portuguese historical criticism. The career of Pombal closed with the reign of Joseph I, who died in 1777. Pombal was tried, and the tribunal found him guilty."—V. de Bragança Cunha, *Eight centuries of Portuguese monarchy*, pp. 80-84, 87-88, 98-102.

1702.—Joins the Grand Alliance against France and Spain. See SPAIN: 1701-1702.

1702-1710.—Part in War of the Spanish Succession. See SPAIN: 1702, to 1707-1710.

1703.—Methuen Treaty with England.—Portugal joined the Grand Alliance against France and Spain, in the War of the Spanish Succession, in 1703, and entered at that time into an important treaty with England. This is known as the Methuen Treaty—"called after the name of the ambassador who negotiated it—and that treaty, and its effect upon the commerce of England and the habits of her people lasted through five generations, even to the present time. The wines of Portugal were to be admitted upon the payment of a duty 33 1/3 per cent. less than the duty paid upon French wines; and the woollen cloths of England, which had been prohibited in Portugal for twenty years, were to be admitted upon terms of proportionate advantage. Up to that time the Claret of France had been the beverage of the wine-drinkers of England. From 1703 Port established itself as what Defoe calls 'our general draught.' In all commercial negotiations with France the Methuen Treaty stood in the way; for the preferential duty was continued till 1831. France invariably pursued a system of retaliation. It was a point of patriotism for the Englishman to hold firm to his Port."—C. Knight, *Popular history of England*, v. 5, ch. 17.—See also SPAIN: 1703-1704; TARIFF: 15th-17th centuries.

1713.—Possessions in South America confirmed by Peace of Utrecht. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714; ARGENTINA: 1580-1777.

1713-1721.—Commercial relations with England. See TARIFF: 1689-1721.

1740.—Right of presentation to all sees and abbeys in the kingdom granted the king. See PAPACY: 1740-1758.

1750.—Treaty with Spain fixing boundaries of South American territories. See LATIN AMERICA: 1750-1777; ARGENTINA: 1580-1777.

1757-1759.—Expulsion of Jesuits and suppression of the order. See JESUITS: 1757-1773.

1761-1762.—Refusal to join "family compact" of France and Spain.—Spanish invasion repelled by the English. See SPAIN: 1761-1763.

1763.—Peace of Paris concluding Seven Years' War. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties which ended the war.

1777.—Treaty of San Ildefonso.—Possessions in Uruguay lost to Spain.—Boundaries of Brazil defined. See LATIN AMERICA: 1750-1777; ARGENTINA: 1580-1777; BRAZIL: 1654-1777.

1780.—Member of "Armed Neutrality" League. See "ARMED NEUTRALITY."

1793.—Coalition against revolutionary France. See FRANCE: 1793 (March-September).

1803-1804.—Support pledged to France in war against England.—Forced to purchase neutrality. See FRANCE: 1802-1804; 1805 (March-December).

1807.—Napoleon's designs against the kingdom.—His delusive treaty for its partition with Spain.—French invasion and flight of royal family to Brazil.—"One of the first steps taken by Napoleon, after his return to Paris . . . [after the Peace of Tilsit (see GERMANY: 1807: June-July) was, in the month of August, to order the French and Spanish ambassadors conjointly, to declare to the prince-regent of Portugal, that he must concur in the continental system, viz. shut his ports against English commerce, confiscate all English property, and imprison all English subjects to be found within his dominions, or they were instructed immediately to leave Lisbon. The prince and his ministers dared not openly resist the French emperor's will, even whilst the wiser part of the cabinet were convinced that the very existence of the country depended upon British commerce. In this extremity, and relying upon the friendly forbearance of England, they strove to pursue a middle course. Don John professed his readiness to exclude British ships of all descriptions from his ports, but declared that his religious principles would not allow him to seize the subjects and property of a friendly state in the midst of peace, and that prudence forbade his offending England until a Portuguese squadron, then at sea, should have returned safely home. . . . Napoleon punished this imperfect obedience, by seizing all Portuguese vessels in ports under his control, and ordering the French and Spanish legations to leave Lisbon. The Portuguese ambassadors were, at the same time, dismissed from Paris and Madrid. A French army was, by this time, assembled near the foot of the Pyrenees, bearing the singular title of army of observation of the Gironde; and General Junot . . . was appointed to its command. . . . Spain was endeavouring to share in the spoil, not to protect the victim. A treaty, the shameless iniquity of which can be paralleled only by the treaties between Austria, Russia, and Prussia for the partition of Poland, had been signed at Fontainebleau, on the 27th of October. [See FRANCE: 1807-1808 (August-November).] . . . By this treaty Charles surrendered to Napoleon his infant grandson's kingdom of Etruria (King Louis I. had been dead some years), over which he had no right whatever, and bargained to receive for him in its stead the small northern provinces of Portugal, Entre Minho e Douro and Tras os Montes, under the name of the kingdom of Northern Lusitania, which kingdom the young monarch was to hold in vassalage of the crown of Spain. The much larger southern provinces, Alemtejo and Algarve, were to constitute the principality of the Algarves, for Godoy, under a similar tenure. And the middle provinces were to be occupied by Napoleon until a general peace, when, in exchange for Gibraltar, Trinidad, and any other Spanish possession conquered by England, they might be restored to the family of Braganza, upon like terms of dependence. The Portuguese colonies were to be equally divided between France and Spain. In execution of this nefarious treaty, 10,000 Spanish troops were to seize upon the northern, and 6,000 upon the southern state. . . . On the 18th of October, Junot, in obedience to his master's orders crossed the Pyrenees, and, being kindly received by the Spaniards, began his march towards the Portuguese frontiers, whilst the Spanish troops were equally put in motion towards their respective destinations. . . . The object of so much haste was, to secure the persons of the royal family, whose removal to Brazil had not only been talked

of from the beginning of these hostile discussions, but was now in preparation, and matter of public notoriety. . . . The reckless haste enjoined by the emperor, and which cost almost as many lives as a pitched battle, was very near attaining its end. . . . The resolution to abandon the contest being adopted, the prince and his ministers took every measure requisite to prevent a useless effusion of blood. A regency, consisting of five persons, the marquess of Abrantes being president, was appointed to conduct the government, and negotiate with Junot. On the 26th a proclamation was put forth, explaining to the people that, as Napoleon's enmity was rather to the sovereign than the nation, the prince-regent, in order to avert the calamities of war from his faithful subjects, would transfer the seat of government to Brazil, till the existing troubles should subside, and strictly charging the Portuguese, more especially the Lisbonians, to receive the French as friends. On the 27th the whole royal family proceeded to Belem, to embark for flight, on the spot whence, about three centuries back, Vasco de Gama had sailed upon his glorious enterprise. . . . The ships set sail and crossed the bar, almost as the French advance guard was entering Lisbon. Sir Sidney Smith escorted the royal family, with four men-of-war, safely to Rio Janeiro, the capital of Brazil, leaving the remainder of his squadron to blockade the mouth of the Tagus."—M. M. Busk, *History of Spain and Portugal*, bk. 4, ch. 7.—See also BRAZIL: 1808-1822; SPAIN: 1807-1808.

ALSO IN: C. A. Fyffe, *History of modern Europe*, v. 1, ch. 7.—A. Alison, *History of Europe*, ch. 52.—H. Martineau, *History of England*, bk. 2, ch. 1.—R. Southey, *History of the Peninsular War*, v. 1, ch. 2.

1808.—Rising against the French.—Arrival of British forces. See SPAIN: 1808 (May-September).

1808.—Wellington's first campaign in the peninsula.—Convention of Cintra.—French evacuation of Portugal. See SPAIN: 1808-1809 (August-January).

1809 (February-December).—Wellington's retreat and fresh advance.—French checked.—Passage of the Douro.—Battle of Talavera. See SPAIN: 1809 (February-July); (August-December).

1809-1812.—Wellington's lines of Torres Vedras.—French invasion and retreat.—English advance into Spain. See SPAIN: 1809-1810 (October-September); 1810-1812.

1814.—End of Peninsular War. See SPAIN: 1812-1814.

1820-1824.—Revolution and Absolutist reaction.—Separation and independence of Brazil.—"Ever since 1807 Portugal had not known a court. On the first threat of French invasion the Regent had emigrated to the Brazils, and he had since lived and ruled entirely in the great Transatlantic colony. The ordinary conditions of other countries had been reversed. Portugal had virtually become a dependency of her own colony. The absence of the court was a sore trial to the pride of the Portuguese. An absent court had few supporters. It happened, too, that its ablest defender had lately left the country. . . . In April 1820 [Marshal] Beresford sailed for the Brazils. He did not return till the following October; and the revolution had been completed before his return. On the 24th of August the troops at Oporto determined on establishing a constitutional government, and appointed a provisional Junta [council] with this object. The Regency which conducted the affairs of the country at Lisbon de-

nounced the movement as a nefarious conspiracy. But, however nefarious the conspiracy might be, the defection of the army was so general that resistance became impossible. On the 1st of September the Regency issued a proclamation promising to convene the Cortes. The promise, however, did not stop the progress of the insurrection. The Junta which had been constituted at Oporto marched at the head of the troops upon Lisbon. The troops at Lisbon and in the south of Portugal threw off their allegiance, and established a Junta of their own. The Junta at Lisbon were, for the moment, in favour of milder measures than the Junta of Oporto. But the advocates of the more extreme course won their ends. The Oporto troops, surrounding the two Juntas, which had been blended together, compelled them to adopt the Spanish constitution; in other words, to sanction the election of one deputy to the Cortes for every 30,000 persons inhabiting the country. . . . When the revolution of 1820 had occurred John VI., King of Portugal, was quietly ruling in his transatlantic dominions of Brazil. Portugal had been governed for thirteen years from Rio de Janeiro; and the absence of the Court from Lisbon had offended the Portuguese and prepared them for change. After the mischief had been done John VI. was persuaded to return to his native country, leaving his eldest son, Dom Pedro, Regent of Brazil in his absence. Before setting out on his journey he gave the prince public instructions for his guidance, which practically made Brazil independent of Portugal; and he added private directions to the prince, in case any emergency should arise which should make it impracticable to preserve Brazil for Portugal, to place the crown on his own head, and thus save the great Transatlantic territory for the House of Braganza. Leaving these parting injunctions with his son, John VI. returned to the old kingdom which he had deserted nearly fourteen years before. He reached Lisbon, and found the Constitutionalists in undisputed possession of power. He found also that the action of the Constitutionalists in Portugal was calculated to induce Brazil to throw off the authority of the mother country. The Cortes in Portugal insisted on the suppression of the supreme tribunals in Brazil, on the establishment of Provincial Juntas, and on the return of the Regent to Portugal. The Brazilians declined to adopt measures which they considered ruinous to their dignity, and persuaded the Regent to disobey the orders of the Cortes. A small body of Portuguese troops quartered in Brazil endeavoured to overawe the prince, but proved powerless to do so. In May, 1822, the prince was persuaded to declare himself Perpetual Defender of the Brazils. In the following September the Brazilians induced him to raise their country to the dignity of an empire, and to declare himself its constitutional emperor. The news that the Brazilians had declared themselves an independent empire reached Europe at a critical period. Monarchs and diplomatists were busily deliberating at Verona on the affairs of Spain and of the Spanish colonies. No one, however, could avoid comparing the position of Portugal and Brazil with that of Spain and her dependencies. . . . The evident determination of France to interfere in Spain created anxiety in Portugal. The Portuguese Cortes apprehended that the logical consequence of French interference in the one country was French interference in the other. . . . The position of a French army on the Spanish frontier roused the dormant spirits of the Por-

tuguese Absolutists. In February, 1823, a vast insurrection against the Constitution broke out in Northern Portugal. The insurgents, who in the first instance obtained considerable success, were with difficulty defeated. But the revolt had been hardly quelled before the Absolutists recovered their flagging spirits. Every step taken by the Duc d'Angoulême in his progress from the Bidasoa to Madrid [see SPAIN: 1814-1827] raised their hopes of ultimate success. The king's second son, the notorious Dom Miguel, fled from his father's palace and threw in his lot with the insurgents. For a moment the king stood firm and denounced his son's proceedings. But the reaction which had set in was too strong to be resisted. The Cortes was closed, a new Ministry appointed, and autocracy re-established in Portugal. The re-establishment of autocracy in Portugal marked the commencement of a series of intrigues in which this country [England] was deeply interested. One party in the new Government, with M. de Palmella at its head, was disposed to incline to moderate measures and to listen to the advice which it received from the British Ministry and from the British Ambassador, Sir Edward Thornton. Another party, of which M. de Subserra was the representative, was in favour of an intimate union with France, and ready to listen to the contrary counsels of M. de Neuville, the French Minister at Lisbon. M. de Palmella, despairing of founding a settled form of government amidst the disorders which surrounded him on every side, applied to the British Ministry for troops to give stability to the Administration. The demand arrived in London in July, 1823. . . . The demand for troops was refused, but a British squadron was sent to the Tagus, with a view of affording the King of Portugal the moral support of the British nation and a secure asylum in the event of any danger to his person. Many months elapsed before the King of Portugal had occasion to avail himself of the possible asylum which was thus afforded to him. . . . The evident leanings of M. de Palmella towards moderate measures, however, alarmed the Portuguese Absolutists. Ever since the revolution of 1823 Dom Miguel had held the command of the army; and, on the night of the 29th of April, 1824, the prince suddenly ordered the arrest of the leading personages of the Government, and, under the pretext of suppressing an alleged conspiracy of Freemasons, called on the army to liberate their king, and to complete the triumph of the previous year. For nine days the king was a mere puppet in the hands of his son, and Dom Miguel was virtually master of Lisbon. On the 9th of May the king was persuaded by the foreign ministers in his capital to resume his authority; to retire on board the 'Windsor Castle,' a British man-of-war; to dismiss Dom Miguel from his command, and to order his attendance upon him. The prince, 'stricken with a sudden fatuity,' obeyed his father's commands, and was prevailed upon to go into voluntary exile. The revolution of 1824 terminated with his departure, and Portugal again enjoyed comparative tranquillity."—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815*, v. 2, ch. 9.—See also BRAZIL: 1808-1822.

Also in: H. M. Stephens, *Story of Portugal*, ch. 18.

1821-1888.—Origin and growth of Bank of Portugal. MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1821-1915.

1822.—Independence of Brazil proclaimed and established. See BRAZIL: 1808-1822.

1824-1889.—Return of John VI to Brazil.—

Abdication of Portuguese throne by Dom Pedro, after granting a constitution.—Usurpation of Dom Miguel.—Civil war and factious conflicts.—Rise of the Setembristas and Cartistas.—Establishment of parliamentary government.—"At the close of 1824 the king returned to Brazil to spend his last days in peace. On reaching Rio de Janeiro, he recognized Dom Pedro as Emperor of Brazil, and on the 6th of March, 1826, John VI. died in the country of his choice. By his will, John VI. left the regency of Portugal to his daughter Isabel Maria, to the disgust of Dom Miguel, who had fully expected in spite of his conduct that Portugal would be in some manner bequeathed to him, and that Dom Pedro would be satisfied with the government of Brazil. The next twenty-five years are the saddest in the whole history of Portugal. The establishment of the system of parliamentary government, which now exists, was a long and difficult task. . . . The keynote of the whole series of disturbances is to be found in the pernicious influence of the army. . . . The army was disproportionately large for the size and revenue of the country; there was no foreign or colonial war to occupy its energies, and the soldiers would not return to the plough nor the officers retire into private life. The English Cabinet at this juncture determined to maintain peace and order, and in 1826, a division of 5,000 men was sent under the command of Lieutenant-General Sir William Clinton to garrison the chief towns. The accession of Pedro IV. to the throne was hailed with joy in Portugal, though looked on with suspicion in Brazil. He justified his reputation by drawing up a charter, containing the bases for a moderate parliamentary government of the English type, which he sent over to Portugal, by the English diplomatist, Lord Stuart de Rothesay. [This constitution provided for a bicameral legislature with a hereditary House of Peers and an elective House of Deputies, its legislative powers being subject to the king's sanction.] Then to please his Brazilian subjects, he abdicated the throne of Portugal in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria, a child seven years old, on condition that on attaining a suitable age she should marry her uncle, Dom Miguel, who was to swear to observe the new constitution. The Charter of 1826 was thankfully received by the moderate parliamentary party; Clinton's division was withdrawn; Palmella remained prime minister; and in the following year, 1827, Dom Pedro destroyed the effect of his wise measures by appointing Dom Miguel to be regent of Portugal in the name of the little queen. Dom Miguel was an ambitious prince, who believed that he ought to be king of Portugal; he was extremely popular with the old nobility, the clergy, and the army, with all who disliked liberal ideas, and with the beggars and the poor who were under the influence of the mendicant orders. He was declared Regent in July, 1827, and in May, 1828, he summoned a Cortes of the ancient type, such as had not met since 1697, which under the presidency of the Bishop of Viseu offered him the throne of Portugal. He accepted, and immediately exiled all the leaders of the parliamentary, or, as it is usually called, the Chartist, party, headed by Palmella, Saldanha, Villa Flor, and Sampaio. They naturally fled to England, where the young queen was stopping on her way to be educated at the court of Vienna, and found popular opinion strongly in their favour. But the Duke of Wellington and his Tory Cabinet refused to countenance or assist them."—H. M. Stephens,

Story of Portugal, ch. 18.—"Since the famous emigration of 1828-32, . . . the great Constitutional Party had split into two groups. These had degenerated into mere factions, and the groups had ceased to represent any principles. When the great Constitutional struggle was over, the two groups were led, one by the Marquis de Palmella, and the other by the Duke de Saldanha, the latter being then in the opposition."—V. de Braganca Cunha, *Eight centuries of Portuguese monarchy, p. 143.*—"Meanwhile the reign of Dom Miguel had become a Reign of Terror; arrests and executions were frequent; thousands were deported to Africa, and in 1830 it was estimated that 40,000 persons were in prison for political offences. He ruled in absolute contempt of all law, and at different times English, French, and American fleets entered the Tagus to demand reparation for damage done to commerce, or for the illegal arrest of foreigners. The result of this conduct was that the country was hopelessly ruined, and the chartist and radical parties, who respectively advocated the Charter of 1826 and the Constitution of 1822, agreed to sink their differences, and to oppose the bigoted tyrant. . . . Dom Pedro, who had devoted his life to the cause of parliamentary government, resigned his crown in 1831 [see BRAZIL: 1825-1865] to his infant son, and left Brazil to head the movement for his daughter's cause. . . . In July, 1832, the ex-emperor with an army of 7,500 men arrived at Oporto, where he was enthusiastically welcomed, and Dom Miguel then laid siege to the city. European opinion was divided between the two parties; partisans of freedom and of constitutional government called the Miguelites 'slaves of a tyrant,' while lovers of absolutism, alluding to the loans raised by the ex-emperor, used to speak of the 'stock-jobbing Pedroites.' The siege was long and protracted." The Miguelites finally sustained several heavy defeats, both on land and at sea, and Lisbon was triumphantly entered by the Chartists in July, 1833. "The year 1834 was one of unbroken success for the Chartists. England and France recognized Maria da Gloria as Queen of Portugal, and the ministry of Queen Isabella of Spain, knowing Dom Miguel to be a Carlist, sent two Spanish armies under Generals Rodil and Serrano to the help of Dom Pedro. . . . Finally the combined Spanish and Portuguese armies surrounded the remnant of the Miguelites at Evora Monte, and on the 26th of May, 1834, Dom Miguel surrendered. By the Convention of Evora Monte, Dom Miguel abandoned his claim to the throne of Portugal, and in consideration of a pension of £15,000 a year promised never again to set foot in the kingdom. . . . Dom Pedro, who had throughout the struggle been the heart and soul of his daughter's party, had thus the pleasure of seeing the country at peace, and a regular parliamentary system in operation, but he did not long survive, for on the 24th of September, 1834, he died at Queluz near Lisbon, of an illness brought on by his great labours and fatigues, leaving a name, which deserves all honour from Portuguese and Brazilians alike. Queen Maria da Gloria was only fifteen, when she thus lost the advantage of her father's wise counsel and steady help, yet it might have been expected that her reign would be calm and prosperous. But neither the queen, the nobility, nor the people, understood the principles of parliamentary government."—H. M. Stephens, *Story of Portugal, ch. 18.*—"The throne being without an heir, the Queen consented to marry. She married, in January 1835, the Duke of Leuchtenberg, second son of Eugène de Beau-

harnais by Princess Augusta of Bavaria, who, to her misfortune, died within two months. Pressed by the nation, she married, a year after, Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. But the nomination of Prince Ferdinand to the post of Commander-in-Chief was the theme of discussion in the Parliament that had already refused the chief command of the army to the Queen's first husband. The onslaught made by the opposition on the Government and the Crown proved strongly that the exigencies of parliamentary life in those days needed things to fight over, not things to do. . . . Meantime, the politicians, with views and passions utterly irreconcilable, had suffered their prejudices to run riot with their judgment. This rancorous hostility manifested itself in the long series of pronunciamentos that characterised the first period of democracy, which began with the famous revolution of September, 1836, when Francisco Soares da Caldeira, encouraged by the military insurrection in Spain in the beginning of August, raised in Lisbon the cry for the abolition of the Charter and the re-establishment of the Constitution of 1822 resembling the Cadiz Constitution. That pronunciamento, which was followed by violent struggles, resulted in the temporary adoption of the New Constitution of 1838, which was no other but that of 1822. And it gave rise to the two parties—parties that had to play an important part in the history of the country: the *Setembristas*, who, having drawn their inspiration from the theories of the first French Revolution, were extremely democratic in their views, and supported the Liberal Constitution of 1838; and the *Cartistas*, with moderate and Conservative views, who insisted upon the prerogatives of a sovereign, an hereditary chamber, and certain property qualifications in case of Members of Parliament. But the motives which led the leaders of the revolution of September 'were not the merits of either of the two Constitutions,' as Count of Taipa, one of the leaders of that movement, declared some time after in the Cortes. The Charter had been abused to the full extent of all its powers by the ministry in power. A spirit of faction had prevailed in every act of the Government. The finances were tottering on the verge of bankruptcy. The Bank of Lisbon had already given notice that they would no longer receive paper money at eighty, *i.e.* at twenty per cent discount. The Minister of Finance had been at a loss how to raise, immediately, about £2,000,000 to pay the dividends on the foreign and domestic debt to the 30th June of that year. The pay of the Army and Navy, as well as civilians in Government service, was in arrears. All this served the purposes of the political agitators. They employed all means to inflame the passions of the mob, and thus subverted a political oligarchy whose corrupt and oppressive system, let it be said, was not in any way compatible with the genius of the Charter. The period that followed the revolution of September was a period of democracy, but of democracy in its worse form. . . . This political insecurity, which retarded all legislative enterprise, continued for some years. In 1842, however, Costa Cabral, who, three years later, was created Count of Thomar, declared himself for the Charter of 1826, and he was supported by the Duke of Terceira, who issued a pronunciamento in Lisbon in favour of that Charter. No sooner had Costa Cabral attained power than he set his face resolutely against empty demagogism and disorder. But, in his attempt to do battle against the danger threatening the stability of

the monarchy, he miscalculated the direction of public opinion. Hot in his temper and harsh to his opponents, in his efforts to muzzle the demagogue he tampered with public liberties. The opposition gained by it. A clamour was raised on the ground that Cabral was attempting to smother the freedom of the people to make the Queen absolute; and the nation, excited to madness, thinking it was no longer a contest between the competing parties, but a trial of strength between the throne and the people, sternly protested against Cabral's administration. This movement, which resulted in many deeds of violence, was followed by the revolt known as the war of Maria da Fonte, or 'Patuleia'. . . . In May 1846 Cabral was driven from power, and he fled in disguise to Spain. In the meantime, the *Setembristas* and the *Chartists*, in the heat of conflict, thinking only of immediate party victories, never of remote issues, had lost sight of partisans of Dom Miguel, who were dexterously availing themselves of every opportunity to make capital out of the situation created by the two parties. This distressing state of affairs made it necessary, in 1847, for Saldanha to demand of England and Spain, in conformity with the terms of the Quadruple Alliance, an armed intervention in the internal affairs of the country. Thus a remedy, distasteful enough in happier circumstances, had to be applied for the suppression of disorder. On the 20th June 1847, the Convention of Granido was signed, and Queen Maria II maintained Saldanha in power. But Saldanha, who, when entrusted with the government was a *Cartista*, changed his political opinions and turned a *Setembrista*. . . . In 1849, however, Cabral returned to active political life, and succeeded in bringing about Saldanha's resignation in June of that year. Cabral's rise naturally caused great excitement throughout the country. The excitement was such that a British Minister in Lisbon went so far as to suggest to the Queen the dismissal of Cabral, but Queen Maria II did not yield to the influence of Sir Hamilton Seymour. But Saldanha, who was all fire and hope, gave the sign of alarm by raising a revolutionary movement at Cintra on the 7th April 1851. After organising a successful *complot* that drove Cabral, his greatest and personal foe, from power in ignominy, and compelled him to take refuge on board an English vessel, Saldanha entered Lisbon triumphantly on the 15th May. At this time, in these circumstances, Saldanha proclaimed himself Commander-in-Chief of the Army and assumed dictatorship, which led to that movement of 'Regeneration,' as it was named, when all parties sunk differences and rallied enthusiastically to the support of a policy that was to shape the future of the Parliament which had been an evil almost organic in the working of the Constitution. The dictatorship afforded Saldanha's ministry an opportunity of ending a financial situation that could subsist no longer and of promoting the welfare of the people. Saldanha, however, was fortunate in having in his ministry a man like Rodrigo da Fonseca Magalhães, who threw himself with all his energy into that movement of political regeneration in the hope of advancing the Constitutional cause. It was he who brought about the change that resulted in the passing, in the Cortes specially assembled for that purpose, of the celebrated 'Acto Adicional' of 1852, which may be said to have marked the close of the epoch of pronunciamentos."—V. de Bragança Cunha, *Eight centuries of Portuguese monarchy*, ch. 143-150.—"In 1852 the Charter was revised

to suit all parties; direct voting, one of the chief claims of the radicals, was allowed, and the era of civil war came to an end. Maria da Gloria did not long survive this peaceful settlement, for she died on the 15th of November, 1853, and her husband the King-Consort, Ferdinand II. assumed the regency until his eldest son Pedro V. should come of age. The era of peaceful parliamentary government, which succeeded the stormy reign of Maria II., has been one of material prosperity for Portugal. . . . The whole country, and especially the city of Lisbon, was during this reign, on account of the neglect of all sanitary precautions, ravaged by cholera and yellow fever, and it was in the midst of one of these outbreaks, on the 11th of November, 1861, that Pedro V., who had refused to leave his pestilence-stricken capital, died of cholera, and was followed to the grave by two of his younger brothers, Dom Ferdinand and Dom John. At the time of Pedro's death, his next brother and heir, Dom Luis, was travelling on the continent, and his father, Ferdinand II., who long survived Queen Maria da Gloria . . . assumed the regency until his return; soon after which King Luis married Maria Pia, younger daughter of Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy. . . . The reign of King Luis was prosperous and peaceful, and the news of his death on October 9, 1889, was received with general regret. . . . Luis I. was succeeded on the throne by his elder son, Dom Carlos, or Charles I., a young man of twenty-six, who married in 1886, the Princess Marie Amélie de Bourbon, the eldest daughter of the Comte de Paris. His accession was immediately followed by the revolution of the 15th of November, 1889, in Brazil, by which his great uncle, Pedro II., Emperor of Brazil, was dethroned and a republican government established in that country."—H. M. Stephens, *Story of Portugal*, ch. 18.—See also BRAZIL: 1889-1891.

1834.—Expulsion of Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1769-1871.

Also: W. Bollaert, *Wars of succession in Portugal and Spain*, v. 1.

1861-1889.—Domestic difficulties.—Administrative reforms.—Coup d'état of Saldanha.—Fontes Pereira de Mello and ministry of Regeneradores.—Lourenço Marques Treaty.—Sampaio ministry.—Constitutional reform bill.—"The political events of the beginning of the new reign [Luis I] relate chiefly to the Loulé-d'Avila ministry that King Luis I maintained in power. The ministry, Loulé-d'Avila, continued in power till April, 1865, when it was replaced by a new ministry presided over by Sá de Bandeira. . . . Domestic difficulties pressed hard upon the new Government. Parties ran into extremes in their attempt to seize the helm of State, instead of helping those who held it to steer in the right direction. . . . During the years that followed, Parliament met only to raise every other question which can embarrass a Government. Ministries were driven from power, one after another, without removing from the nation her grievances. This state of affairs precipitated a financial crisis, and the ministry of Joaquim Antonio d'Aguiar, in order to procure funds for the payment of State creditors, had to adopt new administrative reforms. It even enforced food taxes, which provoked a revolution in Lisbon in January, 1868, after which Aguiar had to tender his resignation. Avila, who then was called to power, proposed in the Parliament an abrogation of those laws of his predecessor which had given rise to disorders and more than once threatened internal peace.

But the Opposition did all it could to defeat the Government's proposals, with the result that the Cortes were dissolved and the laws arbitrarily suspended by the Government. Avila, however, who thought he held the solution in his hands, resolutely put before the new Cortes new proposals to improve a financial administration that was ruinously vicious and inefficient. The new Cortes, when summoned to discuss these proposals, refused to sanction them. To meet such a situation Avila demanded of the King a dissolution of the Cortes, which, being refused, the ministry had to resign. . . . After the resignation of Avila's ministry, it is almost unnecessary to add, the gravity of the internal situation had become still more accentuated. Soon after, the Duke de Saldanha, who a few years before held the political destinies of Portugal in his hands, and who had long been waiting for his turn at the wheel, put himself at the head of some troops, surrounded the Royal Palace on the 19th May 1870, and compelled the King to dismiss the ministry of the Duke de Loulé that was in power; and he assumed Premiership; but the Cortes refusing to accept the octogenarian marshal's dictatorship. Saldanha had to leave power on the 30th August of that year. That bold *coup d'état*, however, was only a flicker of the old enthusiasm for pronunciamentos, which disappeared with Saldanha, who was soon after appointed to the most important diplomatic mission which Portugal sends forth—that of Portuguese Minister in London, where he died in 1876. The situation now required a prompt and effectual solution, and it pleased King Luis to call to his counsels Fontes Pereira de Mello, who organised a ministry of Regeneradores and took upon himself the responsibility of the ministry of finance. . . . But the question of questions was whether the Opposition would consent to contribute towards the solution of such a crisis. The great ferocity with which the Opposition had assailed the decree of December 1878, issued during the administration of Fontes, had painfully convinced the country of the impossibility of any compromise between the Government and the Opposition. That decree had sanctioned for twenty years a grant including all gold and other mines belonging to the State in Eastern Africa to Captain Paiva d'Andrade and the Companies he might form for their exploration, on condition that, besides the usual taxes, he should pay to the State five per cent. of the gold obtained. But the Progressistas had violently opposed the decree, and tried to justify their panic mongering on the ground that the Government was endangering the safety of the colonies by opening out chances for foreigners and foreign capital. Experience had therefore shown that, under the circumstances, it was impossible for Fontes to remedy the financial situation. To meet a deficit of nearly £665,000 in the Budget of the year, he had shown how a sum of £122,000 might be raised by increasing the duties on tobacco; but the ministry, being assailed and obstructed at every turn, had to abandon power in May, 1879. The ministry which under Anselmo José Braamcamp—who, on the death of Loulé, had been elected leader of the Progressistas—attained power later, was not to enjoy a longer tenure of office. Its Bills, which aimed to create new sources of revenue and cover the deficit of about £1,100,000 shown in the Budget of the year, and the proposal of an income tax—undertaken with the most excellent motives, as nearly all such legislation was, but which was thought to be a great hardship to

the nation—gave the Opposition an opportunity to stir up the country's wrath against the Government. Meanwhile, the Lourenço Marques Treaty, arranged between England and Portugal by the late Cabinet, but signed by the Portuguese Plenipotentiary after the Cabinet had resigned, forced the struggle between the two parties to an immediate issue. The Progressistas who were in power had raised objection to the concessions made by that treaty, for which they thought Portugal had received no adequate return from her ally; and to relieve their ministry of responsibility in that treaty, they protested against the article 4, sec. 2, 'giving the British Government right to land and embark troops at Lourenço Marques with free passage from there across Portuguese territory,' article 5, sec. C., 'respecting the rights to maintain English bonded houses there,' and article 12, sec. 4, 'giving discretionary powers to the Governor of Mozambique to authorise British cruisers to act independently in Portuguese territorial waters for the suppression of slavery.' Accordingly, the Government considered a renewal of the treaty necessary, and the negotiations carried on between the two Governments from August till December 1880 resulted in an Additional Act, signed 31st December, whereby its former perpetuity ceased and twelve years were stipulated as the duration of the treaty. But when the Government met the Cortes with the announcement of the alterations the treaty had undergone, and it came for discussion in the Chamber of Deputies, the Regeneradores opposed its provisions so violently that, when the time came for voting, they left the House in a body. Soon after, the Government submitted the treaty to the Chamber of Peers, where the Regeneradores held the majority, and it was rejected. Under the circumstances the Prime Minister asked the King for an adjournment of the Cortes, which being refused, the ministry of Braamcamp, unable to stand the severity and violence of the Opposition, resigned in March 1881. This ministry was replaced by a Regenerador ministry under Antonio Rodrigues Sampaio, twice Home Minister, which lived till November of that year. The troubles of these ministries by no means ended with them. The great African problem manifestly accelerated a crisis in the affairs of Portugal and inflamed more than ever the partisan spirit. When Fontes Pereira de Mello came again to power, the Congo affair and the treaty concluded in London on 26th February 1884 occupied the attention of the nation to the exclusion of everything else; and soon after the politicians resumed their discussion on the Conference of Berlin, convened through a foreign minister who was sent on a mission to the Courts of London, Paris, Berlin, and Hague, and which defined the rights of Portugal and settled her position in Congo. To Fontes Pereira de Mello, however, who was a statesman of large views, the financial state of the country had become the subject of utmost importance. He was eager to devise means for lightening the national burden. But this chance had been denied to him by the Opposition; and Fontes, in order to weaken the Opposition, had even deemed it convenient to realise the desires of Radical Reformers by bringing in, in 1883, the Constitutional Reform Bill, which was published as law on 24th July 1885, its most important feature being the abolition of the hereditary principle in the Chamber of Peers. It is interesting, however, to note that this Bill formed a part of the Progressista programme. But what the Regenerador Prime Minister wanted

was not so much to outbid the rival party in her promises to the country, as to maintain himself in power and win the support of a new party led by Dias Ferreira, the famous legislator, Pinheiro Chagas, and Manuel Vas Preto—a party that adhered to the Constitution of 1838, with an elective Senate and Council of State. It was therefore no special desire for special reform. The debate on this bill, however, was highly interesting. The Government thought it had made a great stroke of policy in the Parliament; but as the details oozed out, it became evident that the Progressistas, though believing in the principles of that Bill, only saw in the provisions of the Act materials for protracted discussion. The case for the Opposition against the Reform Bill was the part of that Bill by which it was provided that four years had to pass before any further proposal or reform could be made. Thus the ministry of Fontes, unable to face such an Opposition, and consequently unable to meet the most pressing needs of the Exchequer, resigned in February, 1886. After him came José Luciano de Castro, who, on the death of Braamcamp, had been elected, in 1885, leader of the Progressistas. He attained power with a ministry that achieved an inspiring success in endeavouring to settle some of the African difficulties by signing a number of treaties of delimitation [1889].—V. de Bragança Cunha, *Eight centuries of Portuguese monarchy*, pp. 165-167, 170-176.

1880-1887.—Tariff legislation. See **TARIFF**: 1870-1901.

1884-1889.—Territorial claims in Africa.—Berlin Conference. See **AFRICA**: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899; **BELGIAN CONGO**: 1876-1890; **RHODESIA**: 1887.

1891.—Treaty with England concerning African possessions. See **AFRICA**: Modern European occupation: Chronology; Later 19th century; 1884-1899; **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF**: 1885-1893.

1891-1900.—Delagoa bay arbitration. See **DELAGOA BAY ARBITRATION**.

1899.—Reciprocity treaty with the United States. See **U.S.A.**: 1899-1901.

1899.—Windsor Treaty with England concerning Africa. See **WORLD WAR**: Diplomatic background: 71, xi.

1899 (May-July).—Represented at first Hague conference. See **HAGUE CONFERENCES**: 1899: Constitution.

1906.—At Algeciras conference on the Morocco question. See **MOROCCO**: 1905-1906.

1906-1909.—"Rotative" system of party government and its results.—King Carlos assumes dictatorial authority.—His minister, Senhor Franco.—Murder of the king and crown prince.—Succession of King Manuel.—Rise of republicanism.—For many years prior to 1906 Portugal had been governed by two political parties, calling themselves the Regeneradores and the Progressistas, who, it has been said, "relieved one another in office, and in the spoils of office, at decent intervals, by a tacit arrangement between their leaders." This regular ministerial rotation led to the popular nickname of Rotativos, applied to both parties, and significant of the contempt in which they were held. The rotative system of party government, "while ensuring a comfortable livelihood to a class of professional politicians, was of no conspicuous benefit to the country, and it was with a view to ending it that King Carlos summoned Senhor João Franco, in May, 1906, to form a ministry. Senhor Franco, who belonged to neither of the recognized parties, set his hand

jealously to the work of reform, but his attempts to purge the Administration soon brought him into conflict with powerful vested interests; and in May, 1907, the politicians whose livelihoods he was reforming away united against him in a policy of obstruction which made Parliamentary government impossible. He then dissolved the Cortes, and with the approval of the King assumed the position of dictator. His work of reform thenceforth proceeded apace. Drastic decrees, each aimed at some abuse, followed one another with amazing rapidity. Strong in the support of the King and of the best elements in the country, execrated by the politicians whom he had spoiled, and by the Press which he had done nothing to conciliate, he continued on his headlong course, and at the end of January, 1908, he signed a decree practically amounting to a suspension of civil liberties."—*Lisbon correspondence* (*The Times* [London]).—"The fortress of Caxias and the State prisons were full to overflowing. Alpoim, the leader of the Dissident Progressistas, had to take refuge in Spain to escape arrest for being implicated in a conspiracy. . . . The dictator, with a recklessness positively criminal, was enforcing new measures of repression. Thus the King was made to sign a decree by which any political offender could be transported to Africa at a moment's notice. . . . The *Diário do Governo* of Saturday, the 1st February, published the decree. But this law of 'public security,' the most arbitrary law Portugal had ever known, was too glaring an attack upon the liberties of the land to be received in silence. In the afternoon of that same Saturday the King and Queen, with their two sons, Princes Luis Filipe and Manuel, were expected to be returning from Villa Viçosa. . . . Owing to a slight breakdown on the railway at Casa Branca, the ferry-boat *Dom Luiz*, in which the King and his family crossed from Barreiro to the Terreiro do Paço, did not get to the landing place till after five. On leaving the boat the Royal Family was met by the members of the Cabinets and Court dignitaries. King Carlos seems to have had a presentiment of what was coming a little later. . . . As usual, crowds lined the royal route; but amongst them there were some political fanatics who had come under the pretext of looking at the King, but in reality to imbue their hands in Royal blood. They carried loaded firearms, which were not noticed by the crowd or the police until the royal carriage was about to turn the corner of the Praça do Commercio up the street of the Arsenal, when a young man jumped up behind the vehicle and fired a revolver, hitting King Carlos in the left side of the neck. Seizing a bouquet presented to her a few moments before, the Queen vainly endeavoured to prevent the assassin from again firing by striking him in the face with the flowers. In spite of this courageous attempt, the murderer succeeded in pulling the trigger a second time, mortally wounding the King. A struggle ensued, in the course of which the assassin was killed by a police bullet. In the confusion a tall black-bearded man sprang from behind the pillars of the arcade of the Ministry of the Interior and, pulling a gun from under his cloak, leapt towards the royal carriage and fired at the Crown Prince, who, notwithstanding that the Queen Mother heroically interposed her own person to save him, fell, struck by two bullets, one in the face and the other in the breast. The assassin was about to fire another shot when the police at once dispatched him. He was afterwards proved to be a certain Buíça, an

ex-sergeant of cavalry and dismissed school teacher. . . . When the carriage was driven into the Arsenal, the King was dead and the Crown Prince died a few moments after. . . . Soon after his accession to the throne King Manuel II published a general amnesty in favour of all political prisoners and abolished dictatorship. On 7th February, the day before the funeral of King Carlos and the Crown Prince, all political prisoners under detention were set free, and the dictatorial decrees of the 20th June, the 21st November 1907, and the 31st January 1908 were revoked. The decree of the 20th June was the one that had put the liberty of the press at the mercy of administrative authorities, and that of the 21st November had empowered the *juiz da instrucção criminal* to decide all political crimes. The third decree—and the most arbitrary of all—was, of course, that of the 31st January, 1908, by which the Government could transport to Africa or expel from the kingdom any political offender. The decrees increasing the King's Civil List and reorganising the House of Peers were also repealed. The municipal councils that had been suppressed by the dictator were restored, and the so-called administration commissions appointed by Franco were dissolved. It was, of course, only right that the dictatorship which had disturbed all sources of national tranquillity should have been repealed, and it was next in order and equal in importance that most of the political prisoners who had withstood the oppressive measures of the dictator should have been released. . . . But amidst all this weakness and confusion there was one force steadily pressing forward to a definite aim. . . . In spite of the electoral system, with its anomalies and iniquities, the Republicans had succeeded in returning fourteen members to Parliament, Lisbon alone having placed the Republican list at the head of the poll."—V. de B. Cunha, *Eight centuries of Portuguese monarchy*, pp. 234-237, 241-242, 252.—The unpopularity incurred by the government caused the resignation of the premier and his two "Independents," and the cabinet was reconstituted under Senhor Campos Henriques, who together with Senhor Wenceslao de Lima, minister of foreign affairs, continued to represent the Regenerador party. The late Premier's "Independents" made way for the Progressistas, who thus held five seats in the cabinet to two held by the Regeneradores. Senhor Vilhena, who had brought about the fall of the late government, was not offered a seat in the new one, and he immediately resumed his opposition; but on this occasion he only carried two-thirds of his party with him, twenty-two members deciding to support the government. This defection of the Regeneradores under Senhor Vilhena, the first serious indication of a return to the old system of "rotativism," was shortly followed by that of the late premier and his "Independents," so that when the Cortes met on March 1, 1909, the imposing government majority of a year before had dwindled to ten or fifteen.

1907.—Represented at second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1909 (April).—Earthquake at Lisbon.—Lisbon and the country surrounding it were shaken violently on the evening of Friday, April 23, 1909. There were no fatalities in the city, but the outlying districts suffered severely, especially the towns of Benavente, Samora, and Santo Estevan. Reports three days after the disaster announced 46 killed and 38 injured at Benavente and Samora. Both villages were completely destroyed, and their

6000 inhabitants, starving and homeless, were encamped in the fields.

1909-1912.—**Attempted suppression of religious orders.**—**Separation of church and state.**—Free-thinkers from all political parties in Portugal, represented by a Liberal committee, on Aug. 3, 1909, presented to the Cortes a petition for the suppression of the religious orders in Portugal and the abrogation of the existing laws against freedom of conscience. This step was an outcome of the meeting held in Lisbon, August 2. The committee was accompanied to the Houses of Parliament by an immense crowd, and some wild scenes ensued. Among other things the petitioners asked for the abrogation of the recent law permitting religious associations to acquire landed property, a procedure which up to that time had been illegal. Senhor Camacho moved the consideration of the subject, and when the motion was voted down the galleries broke out in protestation. There was considerable violence on the floor of the House. The Deputies engaged in a struggle in which desks and chairs were overturned, and the Chamber had to be cleared twice. The tumult was continued in the streets, but without serious results. "In 1911 the Portuguese Republic passed a law separating the state and church and abolishing diplomatic relations with the Holy See. In 1912 the state voted to take over all church properties, many of which were owned or controlled by Roman Catholic religious orders. Foreign governments objected to the treatment of properties owned by the religious of their nationalities established in Portugal. As a consequence, the arbitral tribunal is, by the compromise, 'charged with passing upon the claims relative to the properties of French, British and Spanish nationals expropriated by the government of the Portuguese Republic after the proclamation of the Republic.'" —Based on E. Krehbiel, *Nationalism, war and society*, p. 261.

1910.—**Republican revolution.**—**Republic proclaimed.**—**Flight of former royal family.**—"But the respite given to the Crown was no long one. In the autumn of 1910 a ministry under Teixeira da Sousa had been in power since June, the seventh ministry in eighteen months, and the elections held in August had returned 89 Ministerialists, 41 Royalist opposition, and 14 Republican opposition. On September 23 King Manuel opened Parliament with a programme of reforms which left little to be desired other than some prospect of their being realized; and he later attended a review at Busaco on the anniversary of Wellington's battle, where he was fairly well received by the army. . . . On October 3 Dr. Bombarda, a recent recruit to Republicanism from Royalism, was assassinated by a half-witted fanatic. The Republicans had by this time won over the greater part of official and industrial Lisbon, the guardships, and the Marines, together with the First Artillery and 16th Infantry Regiments of the garrison. . . . The insurrection was started that same day under the command of Admiral Candido dos Reis and, meeting with more opposition than had been expected, was that evening assumed to have failed. The admiral, in despair at the supposed disaster, committed suicide that same night, and several of the political leaders went into hiding. But the gunboats in the river having thrown a few shells in the course of the night over the palace, the young king, deserted by his advisers, who on their part had assumed the success of the Revolution, and ignorant of the real course of events, fled from the palace early in the morning of the fourth, and with the queen and

the Duke of Oporto, his uncle, boarded the royal yacht at Ericeira, and steamed straight off to Gibraltar, [and the House of Braganza 'ceased to reign' for the third time]. Meantime the small Republican force under Lieutenant Machado Santos had held out in a building in the town called the Rotunda until the flight of the king became known, with the result that the further resistance to the Revolution that was being organized never materialized. The Republican political leaders then reappeared and resumed command; whereas the king was beyond all possibility of recall by those still in arms in his cause. . . . The Republic was proclaimed on the morning of October 5, 1910, and welcomed by the population of Lisbon as the opening of a new era. . . . Such a feat could never have been accomplished except by rulers representing a new national energy and enthusiasm, and to this extent the Republic of Portugal has justified its claim to be a national renaissance."—G. Young, *Portugal: An historical study*, pp. 275-278.—"The Portuguese monarchy was dead; and the causes of death, as disclosed by the autopsy, were moral bankruptcy and intellectual inanition. It could not point to a single service that it rendered to the country in return for the burdens it imposed. . . . The suspicion that royal caprice was responsible for the tragedy may have been unfounded; but at any rate the incident showed that the Court was no wholesome environment for heroes. The monarchy could boast neither of good deeds nor of good intentions. Its cynicism was not tempered by intelligence. It drifted towards the abyss without making any reasonable effort to save itself; for the dictatorship was scarcely an effort of reason. 'The dictatorship,' said Bernardino Machado, . . . Foreign Minister, 'left us only one liberty—that of hatred.' And again, 'The monarchy had not even a party—it had only a clientèle.' That one word explains the disappearance of Royalism."—W. Archer, *Portuguese republic* (*Fortnightly Review*, Feb., 1911).

1910-1912.—**Establishment of republican government.**—**Provisional government.**—**First presidential elections.**—**Promulgation of constitution.**—"On October 5, [1910] there was established at Lisbon a provisional government composed of nine ministers and presided over by . . . Theophile Braga [as the provisional president (October 5, 1910 to August 24, 1911)]. The members of this government were drawn principally from the group of Republican deputies representing the Lisbon constituencies. A few had held high office under the monarchy, but most of them, including Braga, were men of little or no experience in administrative work. The flight of the king and the collapse of the monarchist cause cleared the way for a speedy establishment of the new order, and without awaiting a formal remodelling of the constitution, the Braga government proceeded to carry into execution a number of features of the Republican programme. October 7 it promised amnesty to political and press exiles, the revocation of various illiberal press and judicial laws, the suppression of summary magisterial powers, and a long list of other administrative and judicial reforms. October 18 it abolished the monarchy and proscribed forever the royal house of Braganza. On the same day it abolished likewise the Council of State and the House of Peers, together with all hereditary titles and privileges. In the course of further measures of reform relating to public finance, agriculture, education, religion, and social welfare, it issued a new elec-

toral law and effected arrangements for the convening of a national assembly to which should be committed the task of framing a republican constitution. The electoral decree of March 15, 1911, conferred the franchise upon all Portuguese citizens of the age of twenty-one who under the monarchy were entitled to its exercise, and upon all, in addition, who were able to read and write, barring soldiers, bankrupts, and ex-convicts. The two cities, Lisbon, and Oporto, were created electoral districts in each of which eight members were to be chosen by *scrutin de liste* [vote by ticket] after the Belgian, or d'Hondt, plan of proportional representation, and the remainder of the country (including the colonies) was divided into districts in each of which four members were to be chosen, also with provision for the representation of minorities. The elections to the Constituent Assembly took place May 28, 1911. There were no monarchist candidates and, there having been neither time nor occasion for the appearance of serious differences among the Republicans, the event was attended by little excitement and by no disorder. In many districts the candidates approved by the Provisional Government were unopposed. The Assembly was convened June 19. By unanimous vote of its 192 members the decree by which the monarchy had been abolished and the Braganza dynasty banished was enacted into law, whereupon the body addressed itself to the framing of a budget and the adoption of organic laws relating to the nature and manner of exercise of the political powers of the republic. A draft of the constitution, framed by the Republican leaders, was read to the delegates July 3, and August 18 it was voted, amid general acclamations, almost without modification. The presidential election was fixed for August 23. Of the two principal candidates, Dr. Manoel Arriaga represented the more moderate wing of the Republic element, Dr. Machado Santos (the provisional president) the more radical. Dr. Arriaga was elected by a vote of 121 to 86, [and held office until May 27, 1915]. August 24 the Assembly terminated its proceedings and the new constitution was put in operation. The first cabinet, presided over by João Chagas, was announced at the beginning of September. It was at this point that France, Spain, and a number of other European powers for the first time recognized officially the republic's existence."—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, pp. 641-642.—In June, 1912, a new ministry was constituted under Leite. —See also LISBON: 1911-1912.

1911-1914.—Difficulties of new republic.—Political factions.—Economic and colonial questions.—Royalist uprisings.—Syndicalism.—Disintegration of republican party.—“During the autumn of 1911 the Moderates split into two rival groups, and the more important of them, led by Dr. Almeida, definitely withdrew its support from the Government. The result was a ministerial crisis, and November 7 the Chagas cabinet resigned. . . . The lines of party cleavage have tended to be accentuated and the stability, if not the existence, of the republic to be increasingly menaced.”—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, p. 642.—“The chief debates in the Chambers were concerned with economic and colonial questions. The proposed creation of free ports at Lisbon, at Leixoes, near Oporto, and at Madeira, drew energetic protests from the representatives of the higher ranks of Commerce; the Ministry postponed the plan for such a port at Madeira, but passed the Bill establishing one at Lisbon. It did not per-

sist in its demand for the discussion of that projected at Leixoes, where the works would involve expenditure that certain companies holding concessions were prepared to undertake on condition of receiving certain privileges regarding which an agreement had not yet been fully reached. As regarded the Colonies, the Ministry once more (in February) contradicted the rumours of a cession of Angola to Germany and to Great Britain.”—*Annual Register*, 1913.—“While reforming decrees gave almost daily evidence of the activity of the Revolution and their rigid enforcement gave satisfactory assurance of its reality, there were forces at work which seriously embarrassed the progress of the Republic and prejudiced its prestige. . . . Of these enemies the least formidable but the most difficult to deal with was the annual Royalist rising. The proclamation of the Republic had caused a general exodus of the aristocracy and courtiers. . . . The first of these [uprisings] was the incursion in September 1911 into North Portugal of a Royalist force under Pablo Couceiro. Both in the character of its leader—a soldier of the crusader type, in its object—the restoration of King Manoel, and in its operations—the raising of provinces known to be predominantly Royalist in sentiment—this first insurrection commands respect as a legitimate gamble of double or quits. Its complete failure, however, due to the inefficiency of its own arrangements, the indifference of the population, the complete . . . control of the situation by the ‘Carbonario’ intelligence organization and the unexpected administrative and military strength exhibited by the Republican Government, convinced all patriotic Portuguese, among them Couceiro himself, that the Royalist cause was for the time hopeless. . . . Unfortunately, the Royalists, for the most part, went the way of all *émigrés* who having lost contact with their own countrymen, associate themselves with foreign governments against that of their own country. The later risings accordingly show a difference both in motive and in method. They now become obscure in their object other than that of weakening the Republican Government, and rely more and more on the support of Spain and the Central Powers—a support that became more subterranean as the Republic of Portugal secured abroad first official and finally public recognition. For this reason the ‘Miguelists’ who looked to Spain and the Central Powers took the lead of the ‘Manoelists,’ who . . . relied on the sympathy of the English upper class; and there were even factions in favour of annexation to Spain or of becoming a German protectorate under a Prussian prince. At the same time the procedure of open invasion over the Spanish frontier by a fighting force for the purpose of raising the country, tended to become mere plotting of mutinies in garrisons and secret tampering with the troops, for the purpose of embarrassing the Government. These plots had never any prospect of success, and the principals ran little risk, while the ignorant participants were invariably ruined. The rising of the summer of 1912 was more insurrection than incursion, and the principal, João d’ Almeida, a Portuguese under Austrian protection, was caught and imprisoned. In October, 1913, a Royalist plot centring round one Azevedo Coutinho, broke out in small provincial disorders, the ringleaders, as usual, making dramatic escapes abroad while the rank and file of ignorant peasants were left to pay. So insignificant were the results and so complete the Government control of the situation that the Royalist press showed an inclination to repudiate foreign responsibility and ascribe it to *agents provocateurs*. . . . The chief embarrassment to the

Republic from these risings lay in the resentment they caused among the Radicals, in the consequent repressive measures forced on the Government, and in the resulting reaction on a foreign press prepossessed against the Republic. . . . The moderate Government did its best to restrain the damaging activities of its zealots and correct the bad impression they caused. No penalties were enforced worse than a short imprisonment, even against revolutionaries taken under arms. . . . On the third anniversary of the Republic, October 1913, a decree released all persons prepared to ask for it, just in time to make room for the 'suspects' of the October rising. A second amnesty in February, 1914, the first act of the ministry of Dr. Bernardino Machado, was unconditional and complete, all political prisoners being released and only eleven ringleaders banished for ten years, and even this sentence was repealed a year later. . . . If the Royalists were indirectly a difficulty to the Republic, the 'Reds' were for a time a direct danger to it. Their activities in strikes not only disturbed the peace but disorganized the whole economy of the country. . . . An industrial proletariat had for a generation been developing in Portugal under a Government that not only afforded it no protection against exploitation but did not even allow it to protect itself by organization and strikes. Before the revolution the rights of labour were regulated in Portugal by the Civil Code, based on Roman law and the Code Napoléon. Trade unions had obtained bare toleration under a decree of 1891, but strikes were still a contravention of the penal code. Portugal was at this time with one exception, Russia, the only country in Europe where striking was a crime. . . . Consequently, when the Republican Provisional Government legalized striking the result was naturally enough an excessive and exaggerated use of the new liberty by labour organizations. . . . The great increase of labour troubles that immediately followed the revolution was only indirectly a result of it. . . . One most serious feature in this phenomenon was the extraordinarily rapid growth of Syndicalism. . . . In 1911, the difficult first year of the Republic, Lisbon was threatened with a general strike, and local strikes were epidemic everywhere. . . . In January, 1912, a revolutionary strike in Lisbon was only quelled by the declaration of martial law and the arrest of over a thousand Syndicalists. . . . Afonso Costa, . . . by a free use of troops ended the syndicalist control of the railways, and with the help of the 'Carbonarios' succeeded in . . . breaking up their organization. The third difficulty of the Republic was more intimate than either of these. It lay in the complete disintegration of the Republican party as a political factor the moment it had the political field to itself. This disintegration did not become obvious until the provisional government, under the presidency of . . . Dr. Theophile Braga, had given way to the constitutional Republic with Dr. Manoel de Arriaga as President, in August 1911. The constitution was unfortunately devised to meet what the example of the constitutional monarchy and of the South America republics had shown to be the most serious dangers in principle, with the result that it contained certain practical disadvantages. Thus the president is elected for four years only, not being re-eligible; and Congress cannot be dissolved for three years, senators being elected for six years, one-half renewable at each election. An electoral law was to secure independence of the election from the Government of the day, but its passage was repeatedly postponed. Under this régime the Premier or President of the Council, as he is called, can make

himself all-powerful, while the President is scarcely powerful enough. . . . The proceedings of Congress in fact, were resumed much at the stage where the development of the old monarchical Cortes had been broken off. The leading politicians each had his group of partisans and his party name, and his object was to lobby and log-roll with other groups until there was an aggregation large enough to get a majority and form a government. But there was now even less reality underlying this game than before, because the Royalists and 'Reds,' the only real opposition, were not represented, and there was in fact . . . only one political party that had any existence in the country outside Congress—the 'Carbonario' organization, now transformed into the Democratic party under Dr. Afonso Costa. The other groups consisted of 'Evolutionists' under J. A. de Almeida, of 'Unionists' under Brito Comacho, and of 'Independents' under Machado Santos. The 'Democrats,' having monopolized the full progressive programme of Republican radicalism, the 'Evolutionists' were compelled to adopt a more moderate colour, while the 'Unionists' stood for little more than the personality of Brito Comacho, the 'Cato' of the Republic, and a policy of holding the balance between the two larger groups. The 'Independents' and their leader came nearer to a real opposition, as they were dissatisfied with the political situation in general and that of their own party in particular. Republican dissatisfaction with the political situation was legitimate, for the political training and traditional procedure that were necessary for successful parliamentary government were conspicuously wanting, and it looked as though the Republican Congress was going to be as hopeless a machine for reform as the monarchist Cortes. The first necessity of efficient government was an adequate period of power for the ministry; but whereas during the ten years that preceded the revolution there were ten changes of government, during the five years that succeeded it there were twelve. . . . The new Government, that of João Chagas, was not radical enough for the Democrats, and lasted only ten weeks. The first Royalist rising and the growing labour troubles reconsolidated factions a little, and another coalition ministry, of Augusto de Vasconcellos, lasted from November 1911 to June 1912. . . . The Democrats got restive again, and another coalition combination came in under Duarte Leite in June. This was no better than its predecessor. . . . In January, 1913, Afonso Costa became Premier and held office for just a year in which term he undoubtedly succeeded in getting the Republic out of the worst of its difficulties. . . . He could not have done this had his power been any less than that of a dictatorship. . . . His constructive success in reform was so sensational and stimulating that it would have justified more drastic action with Congress than he ever attempted. . . . The constitutional relations between the Senate and the Chamber were strained by a controversy between Costa and a crypto-royalist Senator João de Freitas, and those between President and Premier by a circular letter sent by the former in excess of his powers to the Premier and leaders of the Opposition calling for a release of all political prisoners, a revision of the Law of Separation, and a non-partisan regulation of the elections. This programme, good in itself, and better as removing the grievances of Royalists and of Reds, of the clergy and of the politicians, was adopted by Costa, and in January 1914 Dr. Bernardino Machado, who, with great prudence, had kept out of the early chaos of the congressional cosmogony as ambassador to Brazil, was summoned by Costa, . . . to deal with the situation. . . . His services as Premier during this

critical year, in keeping the machinery of government oiled and operating, are not inferior to those of Dr. Costa, who first raised steam enough to move it. It was, fortunately for Portugal, this combination of its strongest administrator and its most skilful statesman that had to face the crisis in which Portugal was plunged by the European War."—G. Young, *Portugal: An historical study*, pp. 279-291.

1914-1918.—Part in the World War.—Cooperation with the Allies previous to entering the war.—German declaration of war on Portugal.—Internal conditions.—"Dr. Bernardino Machado took office in February 1914 and at once began his work of reconciliation. Under his diplomatic direction of affairs the crisis in Congress was tided over, while the release of all the imprisoned Royalists by a general amnesty should have terminated the civil warfare. Thereby, at some cost to the radical reconstruction in social and financial reform, the political position of Portugal, both at home and abroad, was greatly improved. The Revolution had thus entered its last chapter and was reaping the first fruits of its success when the European War again put the whole situation in question. . . . The 'Democrats' were for instant and insistent belligerency, whereas the other Republican factions were either for postponing action until . . . asked for it or for a benevolent neutrality. On the other hand, the 'Miguelites' made no concealment of their pro-Germanism, and carried with them into the German camp the whole fighting force of royalism with a programme of a restoration under German protection, or even under a German prince. The 'Manuelites' and a small moderate section resident in England were professedly pro-ally, though without severing connexions with their pro-German *confères*. Finally, those Royalists who had rallied to the Republic saw the best interests of Portugal in neutrality. It was evident from the first that the insistence of the Radicals on belligerency would impose a severe strain on the whole structure of the new régime. The call to a crusade on behalf of the lesser nations was popular with the press and reading public, . . . but as the full force of the enemy's war-engine developed . . . public opinion turned more to a benevolent neutrality, such as by its benevolence would maintain the British alliance and by its neutrality would prevent a breach with Germany, or at least postpone it until it could be of some practical use to the allied cause. . . . When Congress was summoned, on August 7, in special session, the emergency produced an enthusiasm and a unanimity which was somewhat deceptive, and the Premier easily secured full powers on a pronouncement of policy that was pro-ally though unprovocative. The first instalment of support . . . was pacific enough, being no more than the signing of . . . the long-delayed Treaty of Commerce, which put us [Great Britain] more or less on an equality with Germany; though even so it only came into force in September 1916. We on our part renewed a popular relationship interrupted since the Revolution to the detriment of our prestige in Portugal, by sending a cruiser on a visit of courtesy to Lisbon in September. The next Portuguese measure, though military, was still non-committal, and consisted in increasing the garrisons of the African colonies contiguous to German territory. More marked was the next step—our acceptance in October, for use in France, of an offer, as a free gift, of a considerable portion of the Portuguese artillery; which led to a definite invitation in November from the British Government to take part in the war. Congress, summoned in a second

special session on November 23 to consider this invitation, again gave its unanimous support to the pro-Ally policy of the Premier, and sanctioned the mobilization of a division apart from colonial reinforcements; but the moment for sweeping the country into war was past. The enemy had had time to develop his strength, and with his usual strategic insight had already carried the war into Portugal. . . . The entire first months of the war passed in the belligerents of the Government trying to carry the neutralists with them into some act that would provoke a German declaration of war—while the neutralists and pro-Germans outside the Government were doing what they could to embarrass this policy. As early as October 20 small military mutinies had been excited by Royalists in Mafra and other garrisons, which in spite of their futility postponed belligerency while proving by their failure that the people would not purchase neutrality at the price of Royalism. . . . On December 7 [1917] was published an army order, dated November 23, definitely committing Portugal to co-operation on the Western Front, and by December 9, Dr. Bernardino Machado had been forced out of office. The dissent of his neutralist colleagues from the principle of his belligerent policy and the distrust of the Democratic congressional majority for his cautious procedure, combined with the defection of President Arriaga, created a crisis no diplomacy could longer defer. He was succeeded by a purely Democratic Government under V. H. de Azevedo Coutinho, and thereupon all semblance of national unity disappeared. By December 18 all the opposition factions had left the Chamber and the Unionists, under Brito Comacho, had renounced their seats. It became evident that it would require a civil war to carry Portugal into the war for civilization. . . . It has already been said that the passion of loyalty to the Crown, once strong in Portugal, was replaced by a passion of loyalty to the State as represented by Congress; and this feeling survived the disappointment when Congress failed to embody the high ideals of the national renaissance, even as the older feeling could survive a bad king. . . . The Democrats having secured a majority at the elections, under conditions such as gave their opponents no ground for complaints, Dr. Costa returned to power in November [1915], and could resume a belligerent policy with general consent, or at any rate without the possibility of opposition. But Germany met these Portuguese belligerents half way, for the British blockade had by now made Portugal useless as a source of supply, while the course of the campaigns in Europe gave Berlin hopes of an early settlement in which Portuguese Africa might conveniently be included. The sixty ships in Portuguese ports were the only consideration in favour of peace, and when these were seized by Portugal, in February, 1916, to fill the gaps in the Allies' shipping caused by the first submarine campaign, little deference was paid to the formulae by which the Portuguese Government did their best to legalize and alleviate the blow. On March 9 [1916] came the German declaration of war—a long denunciation of Portugal's breaches of neutrality."—G. Young, *Portugal: An historical study*, pp. 293-300.—Although Portugal was only a small country and not very rich, the Allies received the announcement of its accession to their side with enthusiasm. The following account of the new ally's action appeared in England: "At a time when they [the Portuguese] were less rich in munitions than at present she sent whatever stores were available, and despatched her cannon, as a free gift, to the Flanders trenches,

generally assisting in every way she could, while Herr Rosen, the German Minister at Lisbon, poured his daily hate of protests into the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. She also sent a considerable force to protect her African colonies against their German neighbours, with whom the Portuguese troops repeatedly came into conflict. More recently they had been able to co-operate with the British and the Belgians in the conquest of the German East Africa, and their rapid advance north of the Rovuma river over a difficult country is a minor but a spirited chapter of the war. Finally, at the beginning of 1916, Portugal set an excellent example to other countries by deciding to utilise the German shipping lying idle in the Tagus, whereupon Germany, seeing that Portugal was one of her favourite enemies, a small country, immediately declared war. This declaration was received with much enthusiasm when it was read out in the Portuguese Parliament on March 10th, and Portugal at once set herself to train her troops."—A. F. E. Bell, *Portugal's effort (Contemporary Review, Jan., 1917)*.—At the end of 1919 it was announced that Portugal had mobilized 200,000 men, of whom 8,367 had been killed. The total cost of the Portuguese expeditionary force was stated to have been \$140,000,000. (See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 3.) About 60,000 men were sent to France and 35,000 European troops served in Angola and Mozambique, rendering good service in the conquest of Germany's African colonies.—See also WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 21; 1917: VII. East African campaign: a; 1918: II. Western front: d, 5.

1915-1920.—Changing governments.—The second president of the republic was Theophile Braga, who was elected to fill out the term of the first president, Manoel de Arriaga (May 29 to October 5, 1915). The third president was Bernardino Machado who held office from October 5, 1915, to December 8, 1917, when the revolution swept away the existing government and substituted a revolutionary junta under the leadership of Sidonio Paes, who on December 12, 1917, was appointed premier, and on December 28, 1917, became acting president. On April 28, 1918, he was elected president by direct suffrage under the provision of the new constitution, and held office until December 14, 1918, whereupon João de Canto e Castro Silva Antunes became provisional president and held office until the election of Antonio José de Almeida, August 6, 1919. The Liberal ministry under the premiership of Fernando Costa lost the support of parliament and a coalition cabinet was formed, March 30, 1919, under the leadership of Dominigo Pereira which in turn was overthrown March 6, 1920, on account of the railway strike. A new government under Antonio Baptista was organized March 12, 1920, on a platform of order and lowered living costs. Colonel Baptista died June 6, and was succeeded by Ramos Petro, who, in turn gave way to Liberato Pinto.

1916.—Allied economic conference. See WORLD WAR: 1916: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: a.

1916.—Allied reply to peace notes of Central Powers and United States. See WORLD WAR: 1916: XI. Peace proposals: b, 2; b, 3.

1916.—Represented at Paris conference on tariff. See TARIFF: 1916.

1918.—Represented at Paris scientific conference. See INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

1919.—Royalist uprising crushed.—Leader a

prisoner.—"The attempt at a Royalist revolution which began in Northern Portugal on Jan. 19 [1917], with the proclaimed idea of restoring Dom Manuel failed on Feb. 14, when the citizens of Oporto, assisted by the republican troops, dispersed the last of the revolutionists and captured their leader, Paiva Couceiro. Certain preceding events appeared to many to have led to the uprising, particularly the assassination of President Sidonio Paes on Dec. 14 [1918], and the anarchist riots in Lisbon and Oporto in the middle of January. On Dec. 17 Admiral Canto y Castro, who had been a Colonial Governor under the old régime, and, during the war, Minister of Marine and in active control of the coast defense, was elected by Parliament to fill the late President's unexpired term [and the ministry reorganized under T. Barbosa]. When the Royalist uprising took place his Government had sufficiently investigated the assassination and the riots to enable it to make the following official statement in regard to the uprising: 'A revolutionary movement broke out on Jan. 19, at 1 P.M., at Oporto, Braga, and Vizeu. The movement is restricted to these three localities. Forces loyal to the Government are marching against the revolutionaries. All the garrisons of the country have declared their loyalty to the Government and to the republic. At Lisbon and in all the rest of the country order has not been disturbed. The present political strifes in Portugal are not to be attributed to Bolshevism; they are all fought on questions of party politics, and do not aim at any social reform.' Although the revolution first proclaimed itself behind the ægis of Dom Manuel, there is evidence to show that other hands held that protecting shield. Dom Manuel himself formally denounced the revolution, and his representative in Portugal, Senhor Ornellas, the head of the Royalist Party there, did the same by pledging his support to the Government of Admiral Canto y Castro and ordering all Royalists to refrain from disturbing the public peace. It is believed that Couceiro's movement, although appropriated by the rank and file of the Dom Manuel faction as their own, was really instituted for Dom Miguel, the pretender."—*New York Times Current History, Mar., 1919, p. 418.*

1919.—Represented at Conference of Paris and Treaty of Versailles. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1920.—Treaty of Sèvres. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920.

1921.—Extent of possessions. See EUROPE: Modern: Political map of Europe; BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the world; AFRICA: Map.

1921-1922.—Insurgent movement.—Revolutionary junta.—Introduction of budget system.—Agreement of April 17.—Since the proclamation of the republic on October 5, 1910, there have been no fewer than seven revolutions, or attempted revolutions, in Portugal. Two of these have been monarchical for the restoration of the deposed King Manuel II, now living in England—the rest have been due to one faction of the Republican party attempting to oust its rivals. In consequence of insurgent movement among the military and professional classes the Pinto ministry resigned February 18, 1921, and a new ministry was appointed under Bernardino Machado, February 24. This government was succeeded May 23, by a ministry under Thomé Barros Queiroz. The July elections gave the Queiroz faction sixty-five seats in the parliament where its financial reform won the additional support of fifty-seven Democrats but

the Liberals revolted with the result that the Queiroz ministry was overthrown. On August 30, Senhor Antonio Granjo formed a coalition ministry. The "Carbonario, or professional revolutionary elements, had long cherished the idea of punishing all the partisans of the Moderate President, Sidonio Paes, who had not already been accounted for, as well as other Conservative Republicans. The revolution of Oct. 19 gave them their . . . opportunity. . . . A deputation of the revolutionary junta . . . waited upon President Almeida and demanded the dismissal of the Granjo Government and the dissolution of the July Parliament. . . . The proposal of the junta was accepted, and a Cabinet was announced, headed by Colonel Coelho. The first act of the new Government was to issue a proclamation, on the morning of Oct. 20, repudiating the events of the previous night. . . . Senhor Granjo . . . was arrested and taken with the other prisoners to the naval arsenal, [where he was shot]. . . . The new Government was kept busy cleaning its hands of the charges of being responsible for the assassinations, but public opinion was so aroused that on Nov. 4 Colonel Manuel Maria Coelho thought it best to withdraw in favor of Senhor Pinto, who then assumed the the Premiership and portfolio of the Interior, and reconstructed the Cabinet."—*Another revolution in Portugal* (*New York Times Current History*, Dec. 15, 1921, pp. 513-514).—On Dec. 15 a new government was elected with the premiership passing to Cunha Leal. "It was generally recognized in Portugal that the fall of Cunha Leal as Premier on Feb. 3 [1922] was due to no fault of his own, but that he was a victim of the democratic landslide in the general elections. . . . Antonio da Silva, . . . head of the new Government . . . took office on Feb. 7. . . . The National Guard, from which most of the revolutionary movement emanated, was reduced and dispersed throughout the country, to do purely police work under control of the Minister of the Interior. . . . That the revolutionary movement was still formidable was proved by the precipitate departure of Senhor da Silva with all his Cabinet soon after he assumed power. On his return, his first step was to clip the wings of the Republican Guard. Having thus removed the main danger from the capital, the Government turned its attention to the deplorable state of the republic's finances. For the first time since 1918 a budget was introduced. Though it showed a deficit of about \$6,000,000 (revenue about \$25,000,000, as against expenditure about \$31,000,000), it was an earnest of the Government's desire to carry out the long-promised program for retrenchment and reform. Another hopeful sign was the securing of a loan from Great Britain for £3,000,000, the first foreign loan the republic has ever received. This sum was obtained under the Export Credit scheme, and marked, according to the statement of the Minister of France (Senhor Duraõ), 'the re-entry of Portugal into the financial comity of nations.' While the small republic still struggles to win for itself a permanent position, the expelled monarchists, like the monarchist exiles of Russia, are counting confidently on an eventual return to power. On May 5 the *Correio de Manhã*, the press organ of ex-King Manoel, published an agreement signed in Paris on April 17 by Senhor Ayres d'Oruellas and by the Conde de Almada e Avranches on behalf of the young Dom Duarte Nuno, in whose favor Dom Miguel renounced his succession right to the Portuguese throne in 1920. This agreement, consisting of only three clauses, and based on a restoration of the monarchy, recognizes King Manoel as the rightful King of Por-

tugal, and binds him, in case he has no direct heir, to accept the successor to be chosen by the restored Cortes, and to consult the latter on the Constitution and respecting a new concordat with the Vatican. This ended the century-old feud between the throne and the 'Miguelist' pretenders, which convulsed Portugal in the '20s and '30s of the nineteenth century.'—*Checking revolution in Portugal* (*New York Times Current History*, July, 1922, pp. 698).—The Silva ministry was attacked in the Chamber, October 23, for interference with the liberty of the press; and was obliged to resign November 8, whereupon a reconstructed cabinet under Silva was effected November 30, only to be threatened by a crisis over the question of public school instruction. On December 30, bomb outrages were reported at Lisbon.

1922.—Shipping agreement with Norway. See NORWAY: 1922.

See also ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: Portugal; FLAGS: Portugal; HISTORY: 29; LIBRARIES: Modern: Spain and Portugal; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Portugal; PHILOLOGY: 9; RAILROADS: 1834-1908; RURAL CREDIT: Portugal; SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Portugal.

PORTUGAL, Russian hospital ship. It was torpedoed by the Germans on March 17, 1916. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: e.

PORTUGAL, Constitution of: Principal provisions.—A new constitution was adopted, Aug. 20, 1911. An abstract of the principal provisions follows: "Aside from five articles of a temporary nature, the constitution of 1911 is arranged in eighty-two articles, grouped in seven 'titles' or divisions. The two divisions or principal length are those which relate to the rights and liberties of the individual and the organs and exercise of sovereign power. The guarantees extended the individual comprise a bill of rights hardly paralleled in comprehensiveness among the constitutions of European nations. To Portuguese citizens and to aliens resident in the country are pledged full liberty of conscience, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, liberty of association, inviolability of domicile and of property, the privileges of the writ of habeas corpus, privacy of correspondence, and freedom of employment and of trade save only when restriction is required for the public good. Law is declared to be uniform for all and no public privilege may be enjoyed by reason of birth or title. No one may be required to pay a tax which has not been levied by the legislative chambers or by an administrative authority specifically qualified by law, and, save in case of enumerated offenses of serious import, no one may be imprisoned except upon accusation according to the forms of law. No one may be compelled to perform an act, or to refrain from the performance of an act, except by warrant of law. The constitution is subject to amendment under regulations of a somewhat curious character. Revision of the fundamental law may be undertaken normally by Congress at the end of every decennial period, the Congress whose mandate coincides with the period of revision being endowed automatically with constituent powers and the process of revision differing in no respect from that of ordinary legislation. At the end of a five-year period from the date of promulgation, however, amendment may be undertaken, providing two-thirds of the members of the chambers sitting jointly vote favorably. Under all circumstances amendments must be specific rather than general, and in no case may an amendment be received or debated which has for

its object the abolition of the republican form of government. Sovereignty is lodged in the nation, and the organs of the sovereign will are the independent but supposedly harmonious executive, legislative and judicial authorities. The powers of the executive are exercised by the President and the ministers. The President is chosen by the two houses of Congress assembled in joint session sixty days prior to the expiration of the presidential term. Voting is by secret ballot and a two-thirds majority is required for election, although in default of such a majority choice is made on the third ballot by simple plurality between the two candidates receiving the largest number of votes. If the office falls vacant unexpectedly the chambers choose in the same manner a president to complete the unexpired term. The term is four years, and after retiring from office and ex-president may not be re-elected for a full term prior to the lapse of four more years. Only native Portuguese citizens at least thirty-five years of age are eligible. Without the permission of Congress the President may not absent himself from the national territory, and he may be removed from office by the vote of two-thirds of the members of the chambers sitting jointly. The duties of the President are, among other things, to negotiate treaties and to represent the nation in its external relations generally, to appoint and dismiss the ministers and public officials, to summon the Congress in extraordinary session, to promulgate the laws of Congress, together with the instructions and regulations necessary for their enforcement, and to remit and commute penalties. If two-thirds of the members of the chambers so request, projected treaties of alliance must be laid before Congress, and the appointment and suspension of public officials may be effected only on proposal of the ministers. Every act of the President must be countersigned by at least one minister, and every minister is responsible politically and legally for all acts which he countersigns or executes. One member of the ministerial group, designated by the President, exercises the functions of premier. Ministers may be members of Congress, and in any case they are privileged to appear in the chambers to defend their acts. Among offenses for which ministers may be held to account in the ordinary tribunals the constitution specifies all acts which tend to subvert the independence of the nation, the inviolability of the constitution and of the republican form of government, the political and legal rights of the individual, the internal peace of the country, or the probity of administrative procedure. The penalty imposed for guilt in respect to any of these offenses is removal from office and disqualification to hold office thereafter. The exercise of legislative power is vested exclusively in Congress. There are two houses, the Council of Municipalities, or senate, and the National Council or chamber of deputies. The members of both are chosen by direct vote of the people. Senators are elected for six years, one-half of the body retiring triennially. Each district returns three members, but to assure the representation of minorities electors are permitted to vote for but two. Members of the Chamber of Deputies are chosen for three years. Senators must be at least thirty-five years of age and deputies twenty-five. Congress is required to meet in regular session each year on the second day of December. The period of a session is four months, and a prorogation or an adjournment may be ordered only by the chambers themselves. Extraordinary sessions may be convoked by one-fourth of the members or by the President. Each chamber is authorized to judge the qualifications of its

members, to choose its president and other officers, and to fix its rules of procedure. The presiding official at joint sessions is the elder of the two presidents. Members are accorded the usual privileges of speech and immunities from judicial process, and they are guaranteed compensation at rates to be regulated by law. The functions and powers of the chambers are enumerated in much detail. Most important among them is the enactment, interpretation, suspension, and abrogation of all laws of the republic. Still more comprehensive is the power to supervise the operation of the constitution and of the laws and 'to promote the general welfare of the nation.' More specifically, the chambers are authorized to levy taxes, vote expenditures, contract loans, provide for the national defense, create public offices, fix salaries, regulate tariffs, coin money, establish standards of weights and measures, emit bills of credit, organize the judiciary, control the administration of national property, approve regulations devised for the enforcement of the laws, and elect the President of the republic. To the Chamber of Deputies is accorded the right to initiate all measures relating to taxes, the organization of the forces on land and on sea, the revision of the constitution, the prorogation or adjournment of legislative sessions, the discussion of proposals made by the President, and the bringing of actions against members of the executive department. Initiative in respect to all other matters may be taken by any member of either branch of Congress or by the republic. A measure which is adopted by a majority vote in each of the two houses is transmitted to the President to be promulgated as law. The President possesses not a shred of veto power. He is required to promulgate within fifteen days any measure duly enacted; if he fails to do so, the measure takes effect none the less. When the chambers fall into disagreement regarding proposed changes in a bill, or when one chamber rejects a bill outright, the subject is debated and a decision is reached in joint session. The organs of judicial administration comprise courts of first instance, courts of appeal, and a supreme tribunal sitting at the capital. Judges are appointed for life, but may be removed from office in accordance with procedure to be established by law. The employment of the jury is optional with the parties in civil cases but obligatory in all criminal cases of serious import. With respect to local government the constitution goes no further than to lay down certain general principles and to enjoin that the actual working arrangements be regulated by subsequent legislation. Among the principles enumerated are the immunity of the local authorities from intervention on the part of the central executive power, the revision of the acts of the public officials in administrative tribunals, the fiscal independence of the local governmental units, and, finally, the employment for local purposes of both proportional representation and the referendum."—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, pp. 643-645.

PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA, comprises three colonies on the southeast coast of Africa: Mozambique (295,000 square miles), Companhia de Mocambique (59,840 square miles), and Companhia do Nyassa (73,202 square miles). These colonies were acquired by Portugal in the fifteenth century as trading posts on the way to India. Their estimated population in 1922 was 3,011,600. The chief products are sugar, coconuts, beeswax, and mining products. Coal deposits and gold bearing reefs have been discovered recently. See **AFRICA**: Modern European occupation: 1914; 1914-1920: Lack of railway and industrial developments.

1895-1896.—War with Gungunhana. See AFRICA: 1895-1896.

1918.—Campaign during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VII. East African theater: a. 1919.—"Kionga Triangle" granted to Portugal. —By the Treaty of Versailles, 1919, the part of German South East Africa known as the "Kionga Triangle" was allotted to Portugal.

ALSO IN: G. Young, *Portugal, an historical study*.—H. W. Nevins, *Modern slavery*.

PORTUGUESE GUINEA, on the coast of West Africa, is entirely surrounded on the land side by French territories. Its boundaries were fixed by the convention of 1886 with France. In 1923 the estimated population was 289,000. The capital, Bolama, is situated on an island of the same name. The chief port is Brissau and its commercial products are rubber, ivory, hides, wax, and oil seeds. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Early 19th century; 1914.

PORTUGUESE INDIA.—"The Portuguese territories in India now consist of Goa, conquered by Albuquerque (1510) and capital of Portuguese India, Daman, and Diu, acquired 1535 as trading posts. The settlement of Goa lies about 250 miles south-southeast from Bombay on the coast and extends between 14° 53' and 15° 48' N. latitude, and between 73° 45' and 74° 24' E. longitude. . . . Its extreme length from north to south is 62 miles; its greatest breadth from east to west 40 miles; and the total area 1,469 square miles. The population in 1910, including Anjediva, was 515,772 persons. The inhabitants may be divided into three classes, viz., Europeans, the descendants of Europeans, and natives. The last class may be again divided into Christians and Pagans. The native Christians, who constitute a little more than half the population, are the descendants of Hindus converted to Christianity on the subjugation of the country by the Portuguese, and can still trace the caste to which they originally belonged. All classes of the people, except Europeans, use the Konkani language with some admixture of Portuguese words, but the official language is Portuguese, which is principally spoken in the capital and the chief towns, as well as by all educated persons. The majority of the population profess the Roman Catholic religion. . . . The Hindus and Mohammedans enjoy perfect liberty in religious matters. . . . Daman is a town and settlement in the Province of Gujarat, Bombay Presidency, situated [on the coast] about 100 miles north of Bombay. . . . The portion of Daman proper contains an area of twenty-two square miles, and 29 villages; it lies at the entrance of the Gulf of Cambay, and is divided by the river Daman-Ganga into the two separate tracts known as Daman Grande (Great Daman) and Daman Pequeno (Little Daman). . . . Diu is an island forming a portion of the Portuguese possessions in Western India, situated in latitude 20° 43' 20" N. and longitude 71° 2' 30" E., and separated by a narrow channel through a considerable swamp from the southern extremity of the Peninsula of Káthiáwár, in the Bombay Presidency. Its extreme length from east to west is about seven miles, and its greatest breadth from north to south, two miles."—F. C. Danvers, *Portuguese in India*, pp. xli-xliii; xlvii-li.—The population of Daman and Diu was estimated in 1910 as 32,700. Manganese is exported to the United States for the steel industry. Other exports of commercial importance to the country are salt, cocoanuts, and copra.

PORTUGUESE INQUISITION. See INQUISITION: 1487-1567.

PORTUGUESE LANGUAGE. See PHILOLOGY: 9; 11.

PORTUGUESE TIMOR, eastern section of the island of that name in the Malay archipelago. It includes the territory of Ambeno and the island of Pulo Cambing. In 1859 Portugal and Holland divided the island between them. Timor, formerly governed from the Portuguese possession of Macao, was made an independent district in 1896. Boundary arrangements were settled in that year by a treaty between Holland and Portugal. Its population in 1915 was 377,815. Its chief exports are coffee, sandal wood, sandal root, copra, and wax. Dilly is its chief port.

PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA. See ANGOLA.

PORTUS ALBUS. See ALGECIRAS.

PORTUS AUGUSTI, PORTUS TRAJANI, harbors, about two miles north of Ostia, Italy. See OSTIA.

PORTUS CALE, ancient name of Oporto, whence came, also, the name of Portugal. See PORTUGAL: Early history.

PORTUS ITIUS, port on the French coast from which Cæsar sailed on both his expeditions to Britain. Boulogne, Ambleteuse, Witsand and Calais have all contended for the honor of representing it in modern geography; but the serious question seems to be between Boulogne and Witsand, or Wissant.—Based on T. Lewin, *Invasion of Britain*.—See also Britain: B. C. 55-54.

PORTUS LEMANIS, important Roman port in Britain, at the place which still preserves its name, Lymne.

PORTUS MAGNUS, important Roman port in Britain, the massive walls of which are still seen at Porchester or Portchester.

PORUS (d. 317 B. C.), Indian king. Conquered by Alexander the Great, but restored to his kingdom with added territory on recognition of the overlordship of Macedonia; assassinated by a Macedonian satrap.—See also INDIA: B. C. 327-312.

POSEIDON. See NEPTUNE.

POSEN, or Posnania, capital and fortress of the province of the same name in Poland, at the confluence of the Warthe and the Cybina rivers. (See GERMANY: Map.) It was the cradle of the Polish race. During the tenth century the city became the seat of a bishopric and was the capital of the early Polish kings. A member of the Hanseatic League, Posen reached the height of its prosperity in the sixteenth century, after which it began to decline. The Germans founded the western part of the city in 1253, which was governed as a separate municipality until Posen was annexed to Prussia in 1793. It reverted to Poland by the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. (See POLAND: 1919 [June].) Its chief manufactures are furniture, sugar, cigars, and machinery. The inhabitants of the city are chiefly Catholics. Its population in 1921 was 156,691.

1806.—Treaty between Saxony and France. See GERMANY: 1806 (October-December).

1815.—Retained by Prussia. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1886-1908.—Attempt at Germanization.—Pan-Slavism. See POLAND: 1872-1910.

POSITIVE RAYS. See CHEMISTRY: Radioactivity: Positive or canal rays.

POSITIVISM, system of philosophy formulated by Auguste Comte, 1830-1842, in his "Cours de philosophie positive." "All departments of our knowledge are component parts of one and the same science, the science of humanity. All other sciences are but the prelude or development of

this. . . This object of Sociology is to explain all historical facts, not justify them indiscriminately. . . So we see that for all sound thinkers, History and Philosophy are inseparable."—A. Comte, *General view of positivism* (tr. by J. H. Bridges), pp. 45, 63.

ALSO IN: J. Fiske, *Outlines of cosmic philosophy*.—H. D. Hutton, *Comte's theory of man's future*.—J. Watson, *Comte, Mill, and Spencer*.

POSKA, Jaan (d. 1920), Estonian statesman. Negotiated Peace of Dorpat with Russia, 1919-1920. See **BALTIC STATES**; **Estonia**; 1919-1920.

POSNANIA. See **POSEN**.

POST, Régis Henri (1870-), governor of Porto Rico, 1907-1909. See **U.S.A.**; 1909 (March): End of President Roosevelt's term.

POST EXCHANGES. See **YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION**; **World War activities**; 1917-1919: Post exchanges.

POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT, United States: Development.—"The Post Office Department originated in a central, or general, post office at the seat of Government. The legislation of 1782, passed under the Articles of Confederation, provided for a Postmaster-General and a small administrative office, separate and distinct from the post office. The Postmaster-General was at first an officer of the Treasury Department, and Samuel Osgood, the first to hold the office under the constitution, made his reports to Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury. . . . William T. Barry, . . . Postmaster-General in 1829, . . . was called by President Jackson to be a member of the Cabinet. From that time the administrative offices of the postal service in Washington were regarded as constituting a coördinate Executive Department of the Federal Government, altho legislation recognizing that fact was not passed until 1872. . . . [There are four assistant postmasters-general]. . . . The First Assistant Postmaster-General has charge of the establishment of post offices and the appointment of postmasters, and the conduct of the service at post offices. The Second Assistant Postmaster-General controls the transportation of the mails between post offices, the railway mail service, and the mail service with foreign countries. The Third Assistant Postmaster-General controls the classification of mail, the finances of the service, the banking facilities maintained at post offices, and the registry service. The Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General controls the supplies and equipment for post offices and the service performed by rural carriers. The officers reporting directly to the Postmaster General are the Solicitor (who is carried on the rolls of the Department of Justice and detailed to the Post Office Department), the Chief Inspector, the Purchasing Agent, the Chief Clerk of the Department, the Appointment Clerk, and the Disbursing Clerk. The Chief Clerk of the Department exercises some vicarious control over these officers and is also charged by the Postmaster-General with supervision over the personnel and quarters of the Post Office Department. The largest bureau in the Post Office Department is not controlled in any way by the Postmaster-General, or any of his subordinates. It is the office of the Auditor for the Post Office Department, who is an officer of the Treasury Department. The office of the Auditor is the largest accounting-house in the world. Postmasters' accounts aggregating a million in number, and representing transactions in excess of two and one-quarter billion dollars, are received and audited each year. [In 1921 there were 52,168 post offices in the United States, doing a total business of \$15,179,424.018.]"—D. C. Roper,

United States post office, pp. 294-295, 297-298.—See also **CIVIL SERVICE REFORM**: **United States**; 1902-1903; 1908; 1913-1920. During the World War an added function of the Post Office Department was that of censorship. See **CENSORSHIP**: **World War**; **ESPIONAGE ACT**: **United States**: **Trials**, etc.

ALSO IN: F. A. Ogg, *National progress*, pp. 138-144.—M. L. Hinsdale, *History of the president's cabinet*.—J. H. Brown, *How we got the R.F.D.* (*Michigan Historical Magazine*, no. 2-3, 1922).

POSTAL CENSORSHIP: Great Britain. See **World War**: **Miscellaneous auxiliary services III**. **Press reports and censorship**: a, 1.

United States. See **CENSORSHIP**: **World War**; **ESPIONAGE ACT**: **United States**: **Trials**, etc.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS: Origin.—The system of postal savings banks originated in England in 1861 and was adopted by all the leading countries within fifty years, the United States being the last large country to put the system into operation.

1861.—United Kingdom.—Sir Rowland Hill, the father of the English postal system, introduced a bill in 1861 providing for postal savings banks. The postal savings banks were a success from the day when they opened, September 16, 1861. During the first year 2,535 depositors deposited £2,000,000 with the government. The government did not receive deposits of less than one shilling but to encourage thrift among children and the very poor people, blanks were furnished containing spaces for twelve penny stamps, the depositor affixing stamps until the blanks were filled when he could open an account. Until 1895 only £30 annually could be deposited by any one person but this was disadvantageous to workmen who were not allowed to save in season of great prosperity against time of want, so the limit was advanced to £50.—Based on W. H. Handy, *Banking systems of the world*, pp. 162, 176.—Interest was to be at the rate of 2½ per cent per annum, none being paid on deposit exceeding £50, and £200 was the maximum limit of deposit. The government was to buy and sell consols for depositors, charging 9d on each transaction of less than £25. Facilities to depositors also included insurance for not less than £5 nor more than £100 and the purchase of annuities. Depositors might include benevolent and charitable societies, penny banks, registrars of county courts, schools, registered trades unions, and soldiers wherever in service. Transfer of accounts was established in 1904.

1865-1869.—Belgium.—Legislation for postal savings was begun in Belgium in 1865. The minimum deposit was fixed at one franc; stamps might be used for smaller amounts until they aggregated one franc; no maximum limit was set, but the bank, after notifying the depositor, might convert into public Belgian securities any sum necessary to reduce his deposit to 3,000 francs, or in case of a society it might thus invest all over 20,000 francs. Interest was to be at the rate of 3 per cent per annum up to 3,000 francs, any larger deposit receiving 2 per cent per annum on the whole amount of the deposit. Opportunities were to be afforded to depositors to purchase government securities (*rentes*) at 2, 2½, and 3 per cent.

1868.—Canada.—Postal savings banks were opened in Canada in 1868. The minimum deposit was to be one dollar; no more than \$1,000 might be deposited at one time, and the maximum deposit was set at \$3,000. Interest was to be 3½ per cent, and none was to be paid on \$3,000 or more. The centralized system was adopted, deposits at local offices being transmitted to the

treasury, and a certificate of deposit returned to the depositor who must leave his application at his local post office; this was to be forwarded to Montreal, and a check returned.

1875.—Italy.—Italy adopted the postal savings system in 1875. The minimum deposit was to be one lire; stamps were accepted for smaller amounts; the maximum deposit was limited to 1000 lira. Interest was to be 2.04 per cent. Deposits were to be convertible into government bonds at $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. This line of investment became more popular in Italy than elsewhere because of the higher rate of interest on state securities. Collecting dividends on these securities and converting them into deposits was begun in 1878. The bank also was to collect lottery prizes and deposit them in the banks, thus partially, at least, converting gamblers into savings bank depositors.

1875.—Japan.—Postal savings banks were opened in 1875 in Japan. The minimum deposit was to be 10 yen, the maximum deposit, 1000 yen. Interest was at $4\frac{1}{5}$ per cent. Deposits exceeding 1000 yen were to be invested in national loan bonds if the depositor's account were not reduced after notification. Withdrawals were to be made by 'ordinary' and 'special' methods. The first required that notification of partial withdrawal of funds must be written, signed, and addressed to the postal savings banks, while total withdrawal would necessitate sending a formal application to the post office. Under the second method, withdrawals were in no instance to be allowed to exceed 30 yen per day or 100 yen per month.

1881.—France.—France also provided for a postal savings system in 1881. The minimum deposit was to be one franc, with stamps for less; and the maximum limit, 1500 francs for individuals, and 15,000 francs for associations. Interest was originally 3 per cent per annum, but was reduced in 1895 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Deposits and withdrawals might be effected at any post office, and withdrawals might be made by telegraph and, in Paris, by pneumatic tube. A reserve fund was provided for, the funds to be invested in government securities, and in negotiable obligations of the departments, communes, in the chamber of commerce, in real estate or in the *credit foncier*. Minors might deposit in their own names and withdraw after they were sixteen years old. Married women might make deposits and withdrawals except in the case of opposition of their husbands. Branch banks were established on French warships where naval service men could deposit, withdraw, send money away, or buy government securities.

1881.—Netherlands.—The postal savings bank was established in the Netherlands in 1881. Minimum deposit was fixed at 25 Dutch cents; stamps could be used for smaller amounts. No maximum limit of deposit was determined. A fee of 5 cents was to be paid to the postmaster for every new account. Interest was to be 2.64 per cent per annum. Funds were to be invested in state and municipal securities and such other securities as the Bank of the Netherlands would accept. Withdrawals might be made at any post office, and by post or wire.

1882.—India.—India introduced postal savings in 1882. The minimum deposit was to be 4 annas, the maximum deposit, 5000 rupees. Interest was to be 3 per cent per annum on sums less than 2000 rupees; $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, on fixed deposits. Funds might be invested in government securities.

1883.—Austria.—The first postal savings bank established in Austria was in 1883. The minimum

deposit was to be one crown; post office savings cards could be used for smaller amounts; the maximum deposit was 2000 crowns. Deposits exceeding that amount were to be invested in government securities. In 1898 the reserve fund was 4,000,000 crowns. The system was in use on ships of the royal and imperial navy. After 1901 the bank granted loans on title deeds at $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 per cent interest, accepting as collateral security government consols, stocks, title deeds, and shares and securities of the Austro-Hungary Bank. Rural postmen were authorized to collect deposits not exceeding 1000 crowns.

1884.—Sweden.—Sweden established postal savings in 1884. The minimum deposit was to be one krone, while stamps could be used for smaller amounts. Interest was to be 3.6 per cent per annum and none was to be paid on deposits exceeding 2000 crowns. The banks were to invest deposits in government securities free of charge. Deposits might be made in money, in coupons of state securities, or the special savings stamp. Withdrawals might be made at any post office. Minors might deposit in their own names, and withdraw after the age of fifteen years. Married women were given the unlimited right to deposit and withdraw.

1886.—Hungary.—Postal savings banks were established in Hungary in 1886. The interest rate was 3 per cent per annum. Deposits exceeding 2000 crowns were to be invested in government securities. The stock transactions became of large importance. Differing from other nations, the Hungarian post office savings bank was authorized of itself to invest the sums at its disposal.

1889.—Russia.—Russia adopted a postal savings system in 1889. The minimum deposit was to be 25 kopecks, and the maximum for individuals was made 1000 rubles. Churches and monasteries were allowed to deposit without limit, interest to be paid on the entire account. Interest was to be 4 per cent per annum. Deposits were invariably invested in government notes and bonds, and deposited with the Imperial Bank of Russia. Unlike other nations, Russia made no provision for the permanent investment of a depositor's funds when they reached the maximum limit.

1901.—Egypt.—Postal savings banks were established in Egypt in 1901. The minimum deposit was to be 50 millimes. The maximum deposit in one year was set at \$247.15 and maximum deposit for any one depositor was to be \$683.60. Interest was to be $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Funds were to be invested in bonds of the Egyptian debt. Benevolent, charitable, and other organizations could be depositors on the same terms as individuals. Withdrawals could be made on demand but only at the post-office where the deposit book was issued.—Based on *Senate Document no. 658, 61st Congress*.

1910.—United States.—"On June 25, 1910, the bill creating the United States postal savings system was signed by President Taft. After nearly forty years of discussion, [against the active opposition of the American Bankers Association], after eight Postmasters-General had recommended the establishment of postal savings banks and ten times as many bills had been introduced into Congress for this purpose, the United States found itself in line with most of the other great nations of the world in this matter. . . . This was not, however, the first experience of the United States with postal savings banks. To be exact, this is the third postal savings bank to exist under the American flag; the first being the Hawaiian postal savings bank, and the second being the Philippine

postal savings bank. For 'the control, supervision, and administration of the postal savings depository offices' and of the funds received on deposit, the act created a Board of Trustees consisting of the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Treasury and the Attorney-General. . . . Accounts may be opened by persons ten years of age or over. The minimum deposit is one dollar, the maximum deposit for one month is \$100 and the maximum limit is \$500. To encourage petty savings, particularly among children, postal savings stamps in denominations of ten cents could be sold, which when pasted upon a card provided for the purpose could be deposited in sums of one dollar. . . . The interest rate is 2 per cent., the lowest rate paid on savings deposits by any postal savings bank in the world. When it is remembered that the prevailing rate of interest was normally higher in the United States than in most countries of Europe, it is clear that Congress did not err in the direction of too high a rate. The most difficult problem which Congress had in formulating its postal savings bank plan in 1910 was that of the investment of the deposited funds. Investment in the national debt, as in most other countries, was not feasible because the U. S. debt was small and not regarded as permanent. It was finally decided that postal savings funds should be divided in three parts: a five per cent. reserve to be kept in lawful money in the U. S. Treasury; a sum not exceeding 30 per cent. of the amount of postal savings funds, which" may at any time be withdrawn by the trustees for investment in bonds or other securities of the United States; and a sum, normally not less than 50 per cent. of the total postal savings deposits, to be kept on deposit in solvent banks, this residual deposit to be a working balance and a fund which might "be withdrawn for investment in bonds or other securities of the United States; but only by direction of the President, and only when, in his judgment, the general welfare and the interests of the United States so require. Postal savings funds deposited in banks were to bear interest at not less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. It was provided that the depositor could convert his account, in sums from \$20 to \$500 (in multiples of \$20) into United States coupon or registered bonds at the interest rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. payable semi-annually, to be redeemable one year from date and payable twenty years from date, such bonds to be issued only when there are outstanding U. S. bonds subject to call, or when the government desires to issue bonds for the purpose of replenishing the treasury. The question of raising the maximum limit of deposit was early in arising and in 1913 a bill to that effect was introduced by Representative Moon of Tennessee. It was vetoed in 1914 because one of its provisions authorized the deposit of postal savings funds in banks not members of the Federal reserve system. A new bill was introduced by Representative Moon in the next session of Congress, and, as the American Bankers Association had by this time withdrawn its opposition to the legislation, the bill became law in 1916, raising the limit of deposit to \$1000. The effect of the liberalizing legislation was an immediate and pronounced increase in postal savings deposits.—Based on E. W. Kemmerer, *Postal savings, an historical and critical study*.—During the participation of the United States in the World War, an especial campaign was conducted by the government to interest people in saving their money through the postal savings banks. On June 30, 1917, the deposits had increased by \$45,934,811 over the previous year. But after the war, patronage mark-

edly declined. The figures of 1921 showed a loss of \$4,886,419 over the previous year.

1923.—Statistics.—In 1923 the volume of business in the postal savings banks of these respective countries was as follows: Canada, 116,541 depositors, \$41,654,920 total deposits; Egypt, 224,760 depositors, \$3,961,419 total deposits; France, 6,908,854 depositors, \$194,119,692 total deposits; Italy, 6,273,500 depositors, \$547,211,842 total deposits; Japan, 20,088,713 depositors, \$301,832,170 total deposits; Netherlands, 1,887,362 depositors, \$107,811,734 total deposits; Sweden, 661,686 depositors, \$22,607,418 total deposits; United Kingdom, 15,215,842 depositors, \$89,174,810 total deposits; United States, 466,109 depositors, \$152,389,903 total deposits. Other countries which have adopted the postal savings system are Argentina, Finland, Spain, Union of South Africa, British India, and the Philippines. Reliable statistics for Austria and Russia are not available since the World War.

POSTAL SYSTEMS: Origin and development.—The need of communication was doubtless one of the earliest activities of the ancient world, not for public use, but for government use. There are evidences that the Assyrians and Persian nations established posts a day's journey apart at which horses were kept ready saddled with waiting couriers. The Romans employed couriers for the promulgation of military and public orders, private letters being sent by slaves. Their great post roads connecting the vast empire facilitated delivery.—Based on L. Melius, *American postal service*, p. 11.

476-1600.—Decay of Roman posts.—Beginnings of national posts in Germany, France, Italy, and England.—"The first attempt of any importance, to rescue postal communication from the well-nigh hopeless condition into which it had fallen [after the fall of Rome] was made in Germany in 1386, by the order of Teutonic Knights, who established properly equipped post-messengers for home and international service."—*Postal communication, past and present* (*Living Age*, July 30, 1887).—"As early as the thirteenth century the need of personal communication was recognized and the University of Paris arranged for the employment of foot-messengers to bear letters from its thousands of students to the various countries in Europe from . . . [which] they came. . . . The real beginning of letter posts for private . . . purposes dates from . . . 1516 when the Emperor Charles V. made . . . riding posts general throughout his dominions."—L. Melius, *American postal service*, p. 12.—"It is to Francis von Thaxis that must be accorded the title of the first postal reformer. So eager was his interest in the work he had undertaken, that, in order to gain the right of territorial transit through several of the small states of Germany where his plans were strongly opposed, he actually agreed for a time to carry the people's letters free of charge, an instance of generosity, for a parallel of which we look in vain in the history of the Post Office. The mantle of this reformer seems, strangely enough, to have fallen in turn upon many of his descendants, who not only in Germany, but also in Spain, Austria, Holland, and other countries, obtained concessions for carrying on the useful work started by Francis von Thaxis."—*Postal communication, past and present* (*Living Age*, July 30, 1887).

1600-1800.—Further development and improvement of postal systems.—Throughout western Europe the postal system continued to develop and improve. By 1627 France had originated a system for transmitting money by post, and for registering letters cheaply. A private penny post

was started in Paris in 1653. Between 1682 and 1790 the postmastership was sold to the highest bidder, who himself profited by the revenues. Napoleon thoroughly remodeled the system in 1802 and it is his organization, with extensive adaptations and improvements, that still obtains to-day. In Germany a government post was established from Cleves to Memel in 1646. Previous to 1803 the family of Thaxis held the hereditary office of postmaster. In Austria a parcels post system on a prepayment basis was in operation in 1772. In England "James I established a regular post for inland letters, and Charles I, recognizing, no doubt, the financial importance of the Post Office, declared it in 1637, by royal proclamation, to be State property. It was, however, during the Protectorate, twenty years later, that the first act of Parliament relating to the formation of a State Post Office was passed. This statute was entitled, 'An Act for the settling of the postage of England, Scotland, and Ireland.' . . . The first trace which can be found of a regular tariff of postal charges is in the reign of Charles I, and even regarded by the light of to-day these charges cannot be held to be exorbitant; for example, a single letter from London, for any distance under eighty miles, was charged twopence; fourpence up to one hundred and forty miles; sixpence for any greater distance in England, and eightpence to all parts of Scotland."—*Postal communication, past and present* (*Living Age*, July 30, 1887).—"A penny post was established in London, in 1683, two years before the death of Charles II, for the conveyance of letters and parcels within the City, by Robert Murray, an upholsterer by trade, who, like a great many others, was dissatisfied with the Government, which, in its anxiety to provide for the postal requirements of the country, had entirely neglected the City and suburbs. The post, established by Murray at a vast expense, was ultimately handed over to a William Docwray, whose name is now well known in the annals of Post Office history. The arrangements of the new penny post were simple, and certainly liberal enough. All letters or parcels not exceeding a pound weight, or any sum of money not exceeding £10 in value, or parcel not worth more than £10, could be conveyed at a cost of one penny; or within a radius of ten miles from a given centre, for the charge of twopence. Several district offices were opened in various parts of London, and receiving houses were freely established in all the leading thoroughfares. . . . The deliveries in the City were from six to eight daily, while from three to four were found sufficient to supply the wants of the suburbs. The public appreciated and supported the new venture, and it soon became a great commercial success, useful to the citizens, and profitable to the proprietor. No sooner, however, did a knowledge of this fact reach the ears of those in authority over the General Post Office, than the Duke of York, acting under instructions, and by virtue of the settlement made to him, objected to its being continued, on the ground that it was an invasion of his legal rights. . . . The authorities . . . applied to the court of King's Bench, wherein it was decided that the new or so-called penny post was an infraction of the privileges of the authorities of the General Post Office, and the royal interest, and that consequently it, with all its organization, profits, and advantages, should be handed over to, and remain the property of, the royal establishment."—W. Tegg, *Posts and telegraphs*, pp. 21-23.—The first postal system in the American colonies was privately established in New England in 1676, by

John Heyward, under authority from the General Court of the colony of Massachusetts. "In 1683 the government of Penn established a postal system for the Colony of Pennsylvania. In 1700 Col. J. Hamilton organized 'his postal establishment for British America' including all the English colonies, but soon after disposed of his right to the English crown. In 1710 the English Parliament established by law the first governmental postal system with the general office at New York, which continued until in 1776 the Continental Congress adopted and set in action the postal system proposed by Franklin, who was appointed the first Postmaster General. The first law of the Federal Congress continued this system in operation as sufficient for the public wants, but the postal service was not finally settled until the act of 1792. This law (1792) fixed a tariff which with unimportant changes remained in force until the adoption of the system of Uniform Postage in the United States. Single, double and triple letters were charged 8, 16 and 24 cents respectively when sent to other countries, and four cents plus the internal postage when arriving from foreign countries. The internal postage between offices in the United States was 6, 8, 10, 15, 17, 20, 22 and 25 cents for distances of 30, 60, 100, 150, 200, 250, 350, or 400 miles respectively for single letters and double, triple, etc., this for double, triple, etc. letters. A single letter was defined by the law to be a single sheet or piece of paper, a double letter, two sheets or pieces of paper, etc. . . . The earliest letters which we have seen, consist of single sheets of paper folded and addressed upon the sheet. An envelope would have subjected them to double postage."—J. K. Tiffany, *History of the postage stamps, introduction*.

1803-1914.—Progress in communication.—The chief phenomena of the development of postal systems in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries are: (1) the great increase in speed through the use of railroads and steamships for conveying mail; (2) the extension of the European and American postal systems to all parts of the world with which occidentals hold communication; and (3) the progressive decrease in the price, and increase in the volume, of mail carried. The development of Great Britain and America, in this respect, is cited as typical of the progress of the postal system everywhere. The method of preparing the passage of a letter by the use of prepaid stamps was suggested in England by "Mr. Charles Whiting in 1830, and the eminent publisher, the late Mr. Charles Knight, also proposed stamped covers for papers. Dr. T. E. Gray, of the British Museum, claimed the credit of suggesting that letters should be prepaid by the use of stamps as early as 1834."—W. Tegg, *Posts and telegraphs*, pp. 100-101.—"On the morning of the 10th of January, 1840, the people of the United Kingdom rose in the possession of a new power—the power of sending by the post a letter not weighing more than half an ounce upon the prepayment of one penny, and this without any regard to the distance which the letter had to travel. . . . To the sagacity and the perseverance of one man, the author of this system, the high praise is due, not so much that he triumphed over the petty jealousies and selfish fears of the post-office authorities, but that he established his own convictions against the doubts of some of the ablest and most conscientious leaders of public opinion. . . . Mr. Rowland Hill in 1837 published his plan of a cheap and uniform postage. A Committee of the House of Commons was appointed in 1837, which continued its inquiries throughout the ses-

sion of 1838, and arrived at the conviction that 'the mode recommended of charging and collecting postage, in a pamphlet published by Mr. Rowland Hill,' was feasible, and deserving of a trial under legislative sanction. . . . Lord Ashburton, although an advocate of Post Office Reform, held that the reduction to a penny would wholly destroy the revenue. Lord Lowther, the Postmaster-General, thought twopence the smallest rate that would cover the expenses. Colonel Maberly, the secretary to the post office, considered Mr. Hill's plan a most preposterous one, and maintained that if the rates were to be reduced to a penny, the revenue would not recover itself for forty or fifty years. . . . Public opinion, however, had been brought so strongly to bear in favour of a penny rate, that the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Spring Rice, on the 5th of July, 1839, proposed a resolution, 'that it is expedient to reduce the postage on letters to one uniform rate of a penny postage, according to a certain amount of weight to be determined—that the parliamentary privilege of franking should be abolished, and that official franking be strictly limited—the House pledging itself to make good any deficiency that may occur in the revenue from such reduction of the postage.' A Bill was accordingly passed to this effect in the House of Commons, its operation being limited in its duration to one year, and the Treasury retaining the power of fixing the rates at first, although the ultimate reduction was to be to one penny. This experimental measure reduced all rates above fourpence to that sum, leaving those below fourpence unaltered. With this complication of charge the experiment could not have a fair trial, and accordingly on the 10th of January, 1840, the uniform half-ounce rate became by order of the Treasury one penny. . . . In 1840 the number of letters sent through the post had more than doubled, and the legislature had little hesitation in making the Act of 1839 permanent, instead of its duration being limited to the year which would expire in October. A stamped envelope, printed upon a peculiar paper, and bearing an elaborate design, was originally chosen as the mode of rendering prepayment convenient to the sender of a letter. A simpler plan soon superseded this attempt to enlist the Fine Arts in a plain business operation. The plan of preparing letters by affixing a stamp bearing the head of the ruler of the country, came into use here in May, 1840 [see also ENGLAND: 1840]. The habit of prepayment by postage stamps has now become so universal throughout the world, that in 1861 the system was established in eighty different countries or colonies."—C. Knight, *Popular history of England*, v. 8, ch. 24.—The postal money order system was instituted in 1859. Penny post cards, which had been introduced in Austria in 1869 appeared in Great Britain in 1876. In the United States "a summary of historical data covering some of the principal features of postal progress may be given in chronological order as follows: Postal stamps first issued at New York, July, 1847; stamped envelopes first issued, June, 1853; letters registered, July, 1855; [railway mail service, 1861;] newspaper wrappers, Act of Congress, February, 1861; Free City Delivery, July, 1863; Money Order System, November, 1864; International Money Orders, October, 1867; Postal Cards, May, 1873; Postage reduced to 2 cents, October, 1883; Special Delivery, October, 1885; Rural Delivery, October, 1896; Postal Savings, January, 1911 [see POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS]; Parcel Post [see PARCEL POST], January, 1913."—L. Melius, *American postal service*, pp. 16, 20.—See also POST

OFFICE DEPARTMENT, UNITED STATES: Development; RAILROADS: 1862-1911.—In the Europeanization of the world through colonization, commerce, and conquest during the 19th century, a postal system on the European plan has followed everywhere in the steps of the white men. In Japan, after the Restoration in 1868, Frenchmen were employed to organize the postal system on the modern occidental pattern. In China, where ex-territorial rights are still held by Europeans, post-offices were established by different nationalities for their own mail. In Shanghai, for instance, there is a British, an American, and a Japanese post-office, in addition to the Chinese post-office. In the European colonies from Tsingtau to Cape Town postal systems developed as fast as white men appeared. For inland points not reached by rail, courier systems are still employed, sometimes by municipalities, or local governments, sometimes by groups of individuals.

1873-1875.—Union with telegraph system. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1867-1875; 1873; Belgium; Rumania; Serbia; Spain.

1874-1901.—Postal union.—The Postal Union, which embraces most of the civilized and semi-civilized countries of the world, was formed originally by a congress of delegates, representing the principal governments of Europe, and the United States of America, which assembled at Berne, Switzerland, in September, 1874. A treaty was concluded at that time, which established uniform rates of postage (25 centimes, or 5 cents, on half-ounce letters), between the countries becoming parties to it, and opening the opportunity for other states to join in the same arrangement. From year to year since, the Postal Union has been widened by the accession of new signatories to the treaty, until very few regions of the globe where any postal system exists lie now outside of it. The late accessions to the Postal Union have been North Borneo, the German East African Protectorate, and the British Australasian Colonies, in 1891; Natal and Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1892; the South African Republic (Transvaal) in 1893. By the action of an international postal congress, held at Vienna, in 1891, a kind of international clearing-house for the Postal Union was established at Berne, Switzerland, and the settlement of accounts between its members has been greatly facilitated thereby. In 1901 a two cent postage between Great Britain and the United States was agreed upon by treaty.

1898.—Imperial penny postage. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1898.

1914-1921.—World War and its effects.—Seventh International Postal Union Congress.—At the opening of the World War, practically the whole civilized world was bound together by the postal means of communication, and this civilizing agency remained one of the soundest influences for morale for those at the front and at home. "The new postage stamps issued in 1919 were more numerous and of greater variety than those of any other year since the first adhesive stamp came into existence. About 2,500 of these appeared in 1919 as part of the aftermath of the war. Many of these were issued by new States [Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, Jugo-Slavia, Latvia, Lithuania, Esthonia, Russia]. The stamps of 1919 are in themselves a vivid chronicle of great events."—*New postage stamps—thousands of them* (New York Times Current History, v. 11, p. 468).—In 1921, at the Seventh International Postal Union Congress, held at Madrid, domestic rates were established between all the states of the Pan-American Union.—See also U.S.A.: 1921: Pan-American Postal Union.

1917-1919.—Increase of rates during World War. See U.S.A.: 1917-1919: Taxation and expenditures.

1918-1921.—Aerial mail service. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Air service after the World War.

See also BLUE SKY LAWS; FRANKING; PONY EXPRESS; PARCEL POST.

ALSO IN: A. D. Smith, *Development of rates of postage, an historical and analytical study*.—R. Lindsay, *The postal power of Congress*.—I. G. J. Hamilton, *History of the postal system*.—J. C. Hemmeon, *History of British post office*.—G. D'Avènel, *Evolution des moyens de transport*.—*Post Office Appropriation Bill, 1923, 67th Congress, House of Representatives, no. 9859.*

POSTAL TELEGRAPH. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES.

POSTAL UNION. See POSTAL SYSTEMS: 1874-1901.

POST-IMPRESSIONISTS. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

POSTLIMINIUM.—“The term ‘postliminium’ is originally one of Roman law derived from *post* and *limes* (i.e., boundary). According to Roman Law the relations of Rome with a foreign State depended upon the fact whether or not a treaty of friendship existed. If such a treaty was not in existence, Roman individuals coming into the foreign State concerned could be enslaved, and Roman goods coming there could be appropriated. Now, *jus postliminii* denoted the rule, first, that such an enslaved Roman, should he ever return into the territory of the Roman Empire, became *ipso facto* a Roman citizen again with all the rights he possessed previous to his capture, and, second, that Roman property, appropriated after entry into the territory of a foreign State, should at once revert to its former Roman owner *ipso facto* by coming back into the territory of the Roman Empire. Modern International and Municipal Law have adopted the term for the purpose of indicating the fact that territory, individuals, and property, after having come in time of war under the sway of the enemy, return either during the war or with the end of the war under the sway of their original Sovereign. . . . Although a territory and the individuals thereon come through military occupation in war under the actual sway of the enemy, neither such territory nor such individuals fall, according to the rules of International Law of our times, under the sovereignty of the invader. They rather remain, if not acquired by the conqueror through subjugation, under the sovereignty of the other belligerent, although the latter is in fact prevented from exercising his supremacy over them. Now, the moment the invader voluntarily evacuates such territory, or is driven away through a levy *en masse*, or by troops of the other belligerent or of his ally, the former condition of things *ipso facto* revives, the territory and individuals concerned being at once, as far as International Law is concerned, considered to be again under the sway of their legitimate Sovereign. For all events of international importance taking place on such territory the legitimate Sovereign is again responsible towards third States, whereas during the time of occupation the occupant was responsible for such events. . . . Postliminium has no effect upon such acts of the former military occupant connected with the occupied territory and the individuals and property thereon as were legitimate acts of warfare. On the contrary, the State into whose possession such territory has returned must recognise all such legitimate acts of the former occupant, and the latter has by International Law a right to demand such recognition.

. . . If the occupant has performed acts which are not legitimate acts of warfare, postliminium makes their invalidity apparent. Therefore, if the occupant has sold immovable State property, such property may afterwards be claimed from the acquirer, whoever he is, without any indemnity. If he has given office to individuals, the latter may afterwards be dismissed. If he has appropriated and sold such private or public property as cannot legitimately be appropriated by a military occupant, it may afterwards be claimed from the acquirer without payment of damages.”—L. Oppenheim, *International law, v. 2, p. 293.*

POSTMASTER-GENERAL. See POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT, UNITED STATES: Development.

POSTS, Frontier. See FRONTIER POSTS.

POSTUMIAN ROAD, one of the great Roman roads. It led from Genoa to Aquileia, by way of Placentia, Cremona and Verona.

POTEMKIN, Gregor Alexandrovitch, Prince of Taurida (1739-1791), Russian statesman. Took part in the plot to dethrone Peter III; instrumental in the southern expansion of Russia, notably in the annexation of the Crimea, 1783, and in the development of Sebastopol.

POTESTAS.—The civil power with which a Roman magistrate was invested was technically termed potestas.—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman Antiquities, ch. 5.*

POTESTAS TRIBUNITIA.—The powers and prerogatives of the ancient tribunitian office, without the office itself, being conferred upon Augustus and his successors, became the most important element, perhaps, of the finally compacted sovereignty of the Roman emperors.—Based on C. Merivale, *History of the Romans, ch. 30.*—See also ROME: Republic: B.C. 494-492.

POTIDÆA, Siege of.—The city of Potidæa, a Corinthian colony founded on the long peninsula of Pallene which projects from the Macedonian coast, (see GREECE: Map of ancient Greece), but which had become subject to Athens, revolted from the latter 432 B.C., and was assisted by the Corinthians. This was among the quarrels which led up to the Peloponnesian War. The Athenians reduced the city and expelled the inhabitants after a siege of three years.—Thucydides, *History, bk. 1-2.*—See also GREECE: B.C. 432; B.C. 431-429.

POTOCKI, Count Stanislaw Felix (1752-1805), Polish statesman. See POLAND: 1791-1792.

POTOMAC, river in the eastern part of the United States, having its source in the Alleghany mountains and flowing southeast into Chesapeake bay. It was considered an advantageous site for the national capital. See U.S.A.: 1789-1792.

Army of the. See U.S.A.: 1861 (July-November); 1862, (March-May), and after.

POTOSÍ, southwestern department of Bolivia, bordering on Chile and Argentina. (See LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.) The area is 45,031 square miles. Its estimated population in 1915 was 530,748, composed, in great part, of Indians. It contains the richest silver mines in South America and also produces gold and tin. The capital is Potosí. See ARGENTINA: 1580-1777; CHARCAS, LAS.

POTOWOTAMIES, North American Indian tribe. See SACS.

POTREROS, South American Indian tribe. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

POTSDAM, capital of a district of the same name in the province of Brandenburg, Germany, sixteen miles southwest of Berlin. It was a royal residence from the reign of Frederick William I until the abdication of William II. Its population in 1919 was 50,469.

POTSDAM, Alleged Imperial Council of (1914). See **WORLD WAR**: Diplomatic background: 9; 71 (xxii); 76.

POTSDAM AGREEMENT.—The negotiations between Germany and Russia in 1910 regarding the project of the Berlin-Bagdad railroad were conducted at Potsdam, where the Tsar Nicholas II visited William II of Germany. It was there agreed that Russia should not oppose Germany's Bagdad railroad scheme.

POTTAWATTAMIES, North American Indian tribe. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America; Eastern woodlands area; **ALGONQUIAN FAMILY**; **OJIBWAS**, OR **CHIPPEWAS**.

POTTER LAW (1874). See **WISCONSIN**: 1873-1907.

POTTERY. See **ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION**: Neolithic Age; Minoan Age; **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Southwest area; **INVENTIONS**: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes; **PERU**: 1200-1527.

POTWALLOPER, name given to that class of persons in certain English boroughs who were entitled to the parliamentary franchise. See **SURFRAGE**, **MANHOOD**: British empire: 1295-1832.

POUND, gold monetary unit of Great Britain. See **MONEY AND BANKING**: Medieval: Coinage and banking in the Middle Ages.

POUNDAGE. See **TONNAGE AND POUNDAGE**.

POURTALES, Count Frederick de (1853-), German statesman. Ambassador to Russia at the outbreak of the World War. See **WORLD WAR**: Diplomatic background: 3; 33.

POUSSIN, Nicholas (1594-1665), French painter. See **PAINTING**: French.

POWER, Balance of. See **BALANCE OF POWER**.

POWER, Electric. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: Electric power.

POWER, Steam. See **STEAM AND GAS ENGINES**: Development up to Watt's time.

POWER, Water. See **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Power.

POWER LOOM, weaving machine invented by Edmund Cartwright in 1786. See **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Industry.

POWERS, Concert of the. See **CONCERT OF EUROPE**: Meaning of term.

POWERS, Great. See **EUROPE**: Modern: Wars of the great powers; New balance of power; **INTERNATIONAL LAW**: 1815-1914.

POWERS, Presidential. See **PRESIDENT**: United States: Presidential powers and functions.

POWHATAN (c. 1550-1618), North American Indian chief. See **POWHATAN CONFEDERACY**.

POWHATAN CONFEDERACY.—"At the time of the first settlement by the Europeans, it has been estimated that there were not more than 20,000 Indians within the limits of the State of Virginia. Within a circuit of 60 miles from Jamestown, Captain Smith says there were about 5,000 souls, and of these scarce 1,500 were warriors. The whole territory between the mountains and the sea was occupied by more than 40 tribes, 30 of whom were united in a confederacy under Powhatan, whose dominions, hereditary and acquired by conquest, comprised the whole country between the rivers James and Potomac, and extended into the interior as far as the falls of the principal rivers. [See **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Eastern woodlands area.] Powhatan was a remarkable man; a sort of savage Napoleon, who, by the force of his character and the superiority of his talents, had raised himself from the rank of a petty chieftain to something of imperial dignity and power. He had two places of abode, one called Powhatan, where Richmond now stands, and the

other at Werowocomoco, on the north side of York River, within the present county of Gloucester. . . . Besides the large confederacy of which Powhatan was the chief, there were two others, with which that was often at war. One of these, called the Mannahoacs, consisted of eight tribes, and occupied the country between the Rappahannoc and York rivers; the other, consisting of five tribes, was called the Monacans, and was settled between York and James rivers above the Falls. There were also, in addition to these, many scattering and independent tribes."—G. S. Hillard, *Life of Capt. John Smith (Library of American Biography)*, ch. 4.—"In his younger days Powhatan had been a great warrior. Hereditarily, he was the chief or werowance of eight tribes; through conquest his dominion had been extended. . . . The name of his nation and the Indian appellation of the James River was Powhatan. He himself possessed several names."—E. Eggleston and L. E. Seelye, *Pocahontas*, ch. 3.—"His good will was much influenced by his daughter Pocahontas, who probably saved the life of Smith, made many visits to Jamestown, and finally married Rolfe, one of the colonists. In 1618 Powhatan died, and his able brother, Opechancanough, who disliked the English and wished to expel them before it was too late, began to plot war. In March, 1622, the tribes generally went on the warpath, and swept through the outlying plantations with a trail of blood. Nearly 400 persons perished, and the planters who survived the first attack fled to the older settlements. . . . As soon as the spring crops were planted the whites divided in bands and took a terrible vengeance. For twenty-two years there was peace. But Opechancanough, at last the head chief, only waited an opportunity. In 1644 there was civil war in England, and he thought the expected moment was at hand. Old and blind as he was, he acted with energy, and in two days over 300 settlers were slain. Again the whites took up arms, and in 1646 the aged head chief himself was taken and killed."—J. S. Bassett, *Short history of the United States*, p. 52.—See also **ALGONQUIAN FAMILY**.

Also in: J. Smith, *Description of Virginia, and general historie of Virginia (Arber's reprint of works, pp. 65 and 300)*.

POYNINGS, Sir Edward (1459-1521), English deputy in Ireland, 1404. See **IRELAND**: 1485-1509.

POYNINGS' LAW. See **IRELAND**: 1485-1509; **JAMAICA**: 1655-1706.

POZIÈRES, village four miles northeast of Albert, northeastern France, on the road to Baupême. In 1916 it was taken from the Germans by the Australians. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: d, 7; d, 9.

PRADO, Mariano Ignacio (1826-1901), Peruvian soldier. Became president of Peru in 1867, but was overthrown the next year; president, 1875-1879. See **PERU**: 1826-1876; 1872-1883.

PRADO, Museo del, Madrid.—The museum, begun 1785 during the reign of Charles III, was not completed until the reign of Ferdinand VII. The treasures of Charles V, a large number of French pictures of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries belonging to Philip II and Philip IV and V, a collection of pictures from the palaces of Ferdinand VII, and the addition in 1840 of the pictures of the "Museo Nacional de la Trinidad," combined to make the Prado one of the most valuable collections in Europe. The museum is especially famous for its old paintings. It contains representative works of almost every school of painting, notably that of the Spanish school. Unrivalled is its collection of the paintings of Velasquez. There is also a sculpture gallery, comprising

works brought to Spain by Isabella Farnese which were originally collected in Rome by Queen Christina of Sweden.

PRÆFECTS, or **Prefects**. See **ROME**: **Empire**. B. C. 31-A. D. 14; **PRÆTORIAN PRÆFECTS**.

PRÆMUNIRE, Statute of (1353). See **ENGLAND**: 1306-1393.

PRÆNESTE, Sulla's capture of.—Præneste, the ancient city of the Latins, held against Sulla, in the first civil war, by young Marius, was surrendered after the battle at the Colline Gate of Rome. Sulla ordered the male inhabitants to be put to the sword and gave up the town to his soldiers for pillage.—Based on W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 7, ch. 19.

PRÆNOMEN, **NOMEN**, **COGNOMEN**. See **GENS**; **CARTOUCHE**.

PRÆSUS. See **PRESIDENT**.

PRÆTOR, ancient Roman title of a magistrate next in rank to the consul. See **ROME**: **Republic**: B. C. 367.

PRÆTOR, rank or grade in Jesuit schools. See **EDUCATION**: **Modern**: 16th-17th centuries: **Jesuit teaching**, etc.

PRÆTORIAN GUARDS, **PRÆTORIANS**.—"The commander-in-chief of a Roman army was attended by a select detachment, which, under the name of 'Cohors Prætoria,' remained closely attached to his person in the field, ready to execute his orders, and to guard him from any sudden attack. . . . Augustus, following his usual line of policy, retained the ancient name of 'Prætoriae Cohortes,' while he entirely changed their character. [See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 11.] He levied in Etruria, Umbria, ancient Latium, and the old Colonies, nine or ten Cohorts, consisting of a thousand men each, on whom he bestowed double pay and superior privileges. These formed a permanent corps, who acted as the Imperial Life Guards, ready to overawe the Senate, and to suppress any sudden popular commotion."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquity*, ch. 12.—The Prætorian Guard had been quartered, during the reign of Augustus, and during the early years of the reign of Tiberius, in small barracks at various points throughout the city, or in the neighboring towns. Sejanus, the intriguing favorite of Tiberius, being commander of the formidable corps, established it in one great permanent camp, "beyond the north-eastern angle of the city, and between the roads which sprang from the Viminal and Colline gates." This was done A. D. 23.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 45.—See also **ROME**: **Empire**: 14-37.

A. D. 41.—Their elevation of Claudius to the throne. See **ROME**: **Empire**: 41.

193.—Murder of Pertinax and sale of the empire. See **ROME**: **Empire**: 192-284.

193.—Reconstitution by Severus.—Severus, whose first act on reaching Rome had been to disarm and disband the insolent guard which murdered Pertinax and sold the empire to Julianus, had no thought of dispensing with the institution. There was soon in existence a new organization of Prætorians, increased to four times the ancient number and picked from all the legions of the frontiers.—Based on E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 5.

238.—Murder of Balbinus and Pupienus. See **ROME**: **Empire**: 192-284.

312.—Abolition by Constantine.—"By the prudent measures of Diocletian, the numbers of the Prætorians were insensibly reduced, their privileges abolished, and their place supplied by two faithful legions of Illyricum, who, under the new titles of Jovians and Herculians, were appointed to perform the service of the imperial guards. . . .

They were old corps stationed at Illyricum; and, according to the ancient establishment, they each consisted of 6,000 men. They had acquired much reputation by the use of the plumbata, or darts loaded with lead."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 13, with foot-note.—Restored and augmented by Maxentius, during his brief reign, the Prætorians were finally abolished and their fortified camp destroyed, by Constantine, after his victory in the civil war of 312.

PRÆTORIAN PRÆFECTS.—"As the government degenerated into military despotism, the Prætorian præfect, who in his origin had been a simple captain of the guards, was placed not only at the head of the army, but of the finances, and even of the law. In every department of administration he represented the person, and exercised the authority, of the emperor. The first præfect who enjoyed and abused this immense power was Plautianus, the favourite minister of Severus. . . . They [the Prætorian præfects] were deprived by Constantine of all military command as soon as they had ceased to lead into the field, under their immediate orders, the flower of the Roman troops; and at length, by a singular revolution, the captains of the guards were transformed into the civil magistrates of the provinces. According to the plan of government instituted by Diocletian, the four princes had each their Prætorian præfect; and, after the monarchy was once more united in the person of Constantine, he still continued to create the same number of four præfects, and intrusted to their care the same provinces which they already administered. 1. The Præfect of the East stretched his ample jurisdiction" from the Nile to the Phasis and from Thrace to Persia. "2. The important provinces of Pannonia, Dacia, Macedonia, and Greece, acknowledged the authority of the Præfect of Illyricum. 3. The power of the Præfect of Italy" extended to the Danube, and over the islands of the Mediterranean and part of Africa. "4. The Præfect of the Gauls comprehended under that plural denomination the kindred provinces of Britain and Spain, and . . . to the foot of Mount Atlas. . . . Rome and Constantinople were alone excepted from the jurisdiction of the Prætorian præfects. . . . A perfect equality was established between the dignity of the two municipal, and that of the four Prætorian præfects."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 5 and 17.—See also **ROME**: **Empire**: B. C. 31-A. D. 14; A. D. 192-284; 323.

PRÆTORIUM.—"In the very early days of Rome, before even Consuls had a being, the two chief magistrates of the republic bore the title of Prætors. Some remembrance of this fact lingering in the speech of the people gave always to the term Prætorium (the Prætor's house) a peculiar majesty, and caused it to be used as the equivalent of palace. So in the well-known passages of the New Testament, the palace of Pilate the Governor at Jerusalem, of Herod the King at Caesarea, of Nero the Emperor at Rome, are all called the Prætorium. From the palace the troops who surrounded the person of the Emperor took their well-known name, 'the Prætorian Guard.'"—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3.

PRAGA, Emilio (1839-1875), Italian poet. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1830-1912.

PRAGA, Marco (1862-), Italian dramatist. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1880-1920.

PRAGA, Battle of (1831). See **POLAND**: 1830-1832.

PRAGMATIC ARMY. See **AUSTRIA**: 1743.

PRAGMATIC SANCTION.—"No two words convey less distinct meaning to English ears than those which form this title: nor are we at all prepared to furnish an equivalent. Perhaps 'a well considered Ordinance' may in some degree represent them: i. e. an Ordinance which has been fully discussed by men practised in State Affairs. But we are very far from either recommending or being satisfied with such a substitute. The title was used in the Lower [the Byzantine] Empire, and Ducange ad v. describes 'Pragmaticum Rescriptum seu Pragmatica Sanctio' to be that which 'adhibitâ diligente causâ cognitione, ex omnium Procerum consensu in modum sententiæ lecto, a Principe conceditur.'"—E. Smedley, *History of France*, pt. 1, ch. 15, footnote.—"Pragmatic Sanction being, in the Imperial Chancery and some others, the received title for Ordinances of a very irrevocable nature, which a sovereign makes, in affairs that belong wholly to himself, or what he reckons his own rights."—T. Carlyle, *History of Frederick II*, bk. 5, ch. 2.—"This word [pragmatic] is derived from the Greek 'pragma,' which means 'a rule.'"—E. de Bonnechese, *History of France*, v. 1, epoch 2, bk. 1, ch. 5, footnote.

1220.—Of Emperor Frederick II. See GERMANY: 1250-1272.

1232.—Of Emperor Frederick II. See GERMANY: 1250-1272.

1268 (?).—Of Saint Louis. See FRANCE: 1268.

1438.—Of Charles VII of France, and its abrogation. See FRANCE: 1438; 1515-1518.

1547.—Of Emperor Charles V for the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1547.

1718.—Of Emperor Charles VI. See AUSTRIA: 1718-1738; 1740 (October).

PRAGUE, capital of the republic of Czecho-Slovakia, chief city of Bohemia, and center of Bohemian history since the tenth century. (See GERMANY: Map.) It lies on both banks of the Moldau river, which is spanned by nine bridges. The city comprises seven districts. Of these the Altstadt is most medieval in appearance. The famous university is located in this quarter. Prague has a large sugar trade. In 1921 its population was 676,476.—See also BOHEMIA: General location; CIVIC BEAUTY: Prague.

1348-1409.—University and German secession. See BOHEMIA: 1405-1415.

1419-1434.—Center of Hussite activities. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434.

1618.—Defenestration of royal delegates. See BOHEMIA: 1611-1618.

1620.—Battle of the White Mountain.—Abandonment of crown and capital by Frederick. See GERMANY: 1620.

1631.—Occupied and plundered by Saxons. See GERMANY: 1631-1632.

1648.—Surprise and capture of the Kleinsite by the Swedes.—Siege of older part of the city.—End of Thirty Years' War. See GERMANY: 1646-1648.

1741.—Taken by the French, Saxons and Bavarians. See AUSTRIA: 1741 (August-November).

1742.—French blockaded in the city.—Retreat of Belle-Isle. See AUSTRIA: 1742 (June-December).

1744.—Won and lost by Frederick the Great. See AUSTRIA: 1743-1744; 1744-1745.

1757.—Battle.—Prussian victory.—Siege.—Relief by Count Daun. See GERMANY: 1757 (April-June).

1848.—Bombardment by the Austrians. See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

1848.—Pan-Slavic congress.—Revolutionary

outbreak. See BOHEMIA: 1848-1897; SLAVS: 1830-1914.

1918.—Declaration of Czecho-Slovak republic by the national assembly. See CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: 1918-1920.

PRAGUE, Congress of. See GERMANY: 1813 (May-August).

Treaty of (1634). See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

Treaty of (1866). See GERMANY: 1866; Map: After the Congress of Vienna: Insert.

PRAGUE SCHOOL OF PAINTING. See BOHEMIA: Status of art and education.

PRAGUE UNIVERSITY. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1348-1826.

PRAGUERIE.—The religious revolution produced by John Huss, at Prague, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, gave the name of Praguerie, at that period to all sorts of popular disturbances.

PRAIRIAL, ninth month of the French revolutionary calendar. See CHRONOLOGY: French revolutionary era and calendar.

PRAIRIAL FIRST, Insurrection of. See FRANCE: 1795 (April).

PRAIRIAL TWENTY-SECOND, Law of the. See FRANCE: 1794 (June-July).

PRAIRIE DU CHIEN, Treaty of (1825). See WISCONSIN: 1812-1825.

PRAIRIE FARMING. See AGRICULTURE: Modern: United States: 1833-1860.

PRAIRIE OIL AND GAS COMPANY. See TRUSTS: United States: 1904-1909.

PRAKRIT, term applied to the vernacular languages of India as opposed to the literary Sanskrit. See INDIA: Language; PALI; PHILOLOGY: 5; SANSKRIT.

PRASNYSZ. See PRZASNYSZ.

PRATO, Sack of (1512). See FLORENCE: 1502-1569.

PRATT, Charles (1830-1891), American philanthropist. Founded Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, 1887. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

PRATT, Enoch (1808-1896), American philanthropist. Founded the Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, 1886. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

PRATT, John, American inventor. Aided in developing the typewriter. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Typewriter.

PRAVDA, Russkaia, oldest legal code of Russia. See RUSSIA: 1016-1054.

PRAXITELES (fl. 4th century B.C.), Greek sculptor. See SCULPTURE: Greek: B.C. 5th century.

PRAYER OF TWENTY MILLIONS, letter addressed to President Lincoln by Horace Greeley urging the emancipation of negro slaves. See U.S.A.: 1862 (September).

PRAYER UNION, society which developed into the Young Women's Christian Association. See YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1848-1904.

PREBLE, Edward (1761-1807), American naval officer. Took part in war with the pirates off the coast of Tripoli, 1803. See BARBARY STATES: 1803-1805; U.S.A.: 1812-1813.

PRE-CHELLEAN IMPLEMENTS. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Stone age: Pre-Chellean.

PRECIANI, ancient tribe of Aquitaine. See AQUITAINE: Ancient tribes.

PRECIEUSES, coterie gathered about the Marquise de Rambouillet early in the 17th century. Under their influence fantastic turns of speech replaced simple terms of expression to such a degree that the whole movement acquired a ridiculous character. This led Molière to write his brilliant satire "Les Précieuses ridicules," which dealt a

deathblow to the school. See RAMBOUILLET, HÔTEL DE.

PRECIOUS METALS, Production of. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 16-17 centuries.

"**PREDOMINANT MEMBER**," Speech on the (1894). See ENGLAND: 1894-1895 (March-September).

PREFECTS, or *Præfects*. See ROME: Empire: B. C. 31-A. D. 14; *PRÆTORIAN PREFECTS*.

PREFERENTIAL PRIMARIES. See PRIMARIES IN THE UNITED STATES: Preferential primaries.

PREFERENTIAL TRADE. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1902; 1907.

PREFERENTIAL VOTING, San Francisco. See SAN FRANCISCO: 1916-1917.

PREHISTORIC DISCOVERIES. See ARCHAEOLOGY: Development; ARCHITECTURE: Prehistoric; CAVE DWELLERS; EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.; Stone Age; AFRICA: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples; PAINTING: Pre-Classical; AMERICA: Prehistoric.

PREHISTORIC ITEMS. See HISTORY: 9.

PRELATES. See VATICAN: Present-day papal administration.

PRE-LITERARY HISTORY. See HISTORY: 9.

PRELLER, Friedrich (1804-1878), German landscape painter and etcher. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

PREMIUM PLAN OF WAGES. See LABOR REMUNERATION: Methods.

PREMIER, or Prime minister. See CABINET: English.

PREMISLAUS, king of Poland, 1289-1296.

PREMONSTRATENSIAN ORDER.—This was the most important branch of the Regular Canons of St. Augustine, founded by St. Norbert, a German nobleman, who died in 1134. It took its name from Pré-montré, in Picardy, where the first house was established.—E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and characters of the Middle Ages*, ch. 3.—See AUSTIN CANONS; MONASTICISM: 9th-13th centuries.

PRÉMONT, town in northern France, about thirteen miles northeast of St. Quentin. It was taken by American troops in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: r.

PREMPEH, king of Ashanti, 1888-1896. Overthrown by the British, 1896. See ASHANTI: 1895-1900.

PREMUDA, island in the Adriatic sea, off the coast of Dalmatia. It was promised to Italy by the Treaty of London, in 1915, but was assigned to Jugo-Slavia in 1919. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

PRE-RAPHAELITE BROTHERHOOD, term properly signifying the Italian painter before Raphael, now commonly applied to a school of art and literature that arose in England about the middle of the nineteenth century. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1833-1909; PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

PRESBURG. See PRESSBURG.

PRESBYTER. See BISHOP: His character, etc.

PRESBYTERIAN CABAL. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1646-1651.

PRESBYTERIAN CHURCHES: Definition and claims of Presbyterianism.—"Presbyterianism is a system of church government by presbyters. It is thereby distinguished from the other systems of church government, the papal, the prelatical, the consistorial, and the congregational. . . . In the presbyterian system all ecclesiastical authority is in the body of presbyters. . . . Presbyterianism does not claim that the presbyters of any branch of the Church of Christ have

the exclusive authority over the church. It recognizes the ordained presbyters of the congregational and consistorial systems. It recognizes that the pope and the prelates are presbyters, but declines to recognize them as of a higher order than presbyters."—C. A. Briggs, *American Presbyterianism*, pp. 1-2.

Theory of origin.—"An attempt has sometimes been made to trace a continuous line of Presbyterian history from the apostolic period to the organization of the Church in the time of the Swiss Reformation. . . . But Presbyterianism as an organized form of church life dates from the time of the Reformation."—C. L. Thompson, *Presbyterians*, p. 10.—"As the Lutheran churches represent those features of the Reformation emphasized by Luther, so the Presbyterian and Reformed churches represent those emphasized by Calvin [1509-1564]. The doctrinal and ecclesiastical system developed at Geneva, modified somewhat in Holland and in France, and transferred to Scotland, became solidified there largely under the influence of John Knox in 1560."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pp. 2, 549.

1557-1646.—Struggle and victory of early Presbyterianism in Scotland.—First Covenant.—Confession of Faith.—National Covenant.—Act of 1592.—Charles I and the National Covenant.—Westminster Assembly.—"In 1557 a number of the Scottish reformers, buoyed up in their waning enthusiasm by the written exhortations of the absent Knox, met in Edinburgh and 'Signed a Covenant.' . . . [See SCOTLAND: 1547-1557; 1557; 1568-1572.] The Confession of Faith was ratified by Parliament on 17th August, 1560. . . . The first General Assembly of the Reformed or Protestant Church of Scotland met in Edinburgh on 20th December, 1560. . . . In the beginning of 1581, a second Confession of Faith, commonly called the King's Confession and known by the name of the National Covenant was signed by the King and his household. [See SCOTLAND: 1581.] . . . The Act of Parliament, 15th June, 1592, may be regarded as the constitutional charter of the Presbyterian Church government in Scotland. . . . For many years following the passing of this Act the Presbyterian Church of Scotland was in a flourishing condition."—J. Macpherson, *History of the church in Scotland*, pp. 101-102, 111, 117, 131, 152.—The attempt of Charles I to impose on the church a book of canons and a liturgy [1637] was met by a renewal of the National Covenant and the restoration of Presbyterian forms [see SCOTLAND: 1638], coming to a logical conclusion in the Westminster confession of faith in 1646 [see ENGLAND: 1643 (July-September); 1646 (March)], which, with the catechism, was a chief part of the work of the Westminster Assembly which met in London 1645-1649.—See also ENGLAND: 1638-1640; 1643 (July); WESTMINSTER ASSEMBLY.

1649-1919.—Effect of Westminster Assembly on later history of non-conformity.—Final establishment of Presbyterianism in Scotland.—Disruption.—Resulting divisions.—"This [the Westminster Assembly] was not a distinctively Presbyterian body. Called by act of Parliament to consider the state of the entire country in matters of religion, it represented in its membership all English-speaking Christians, although the Anglicans took no active part in its deliberations. It had no ecclesiastical authority, yet its deliverances on doctrine have furnished the basis both for Presbyterian and many non-Presbyterian bodies, and the form of ecclesiastical government it recommended has gone far beyond the country

where it was formulated, and has had a marked influence not only on church life but in civil and national development. In England it fostered the development of the Independents who afterwards became the Congregationalists. In Scotland in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, it resulted in the development of several Presbyterian bodies each insisting upon some specific administrative phase, and one of its strongholds was the north of Ireland where so many Scotch found a more congenial home for the time being until they should cross the Atlantic."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, p. 549.—"At the Restoration [see ENGLAND: 1658-1660; 1661] the church again became Episcopal [see SCOTLAND: 1660-1666], but Presbyterianism was reestablished by the Scotch Parliament in 1690. [See SCOTLAND: 1688-1690.] The final treaty of union between England and Scotland (1706) provided for the securing of the Presbyterian forms in the Church of Scotland [see SCOTLAND: 1707-1708] and the first official act of a new British sovereign is his oath to preserve this settlement. Early in the nineteenth century the Evangelical movement in the established Church of Scotland led to the disruption. The Free Church thus came into existence in 1843. In 1847 the formation of the United Presbyterian Synod marked the consolidation of the dissenting Presbyterianism of Scotland. These events had their effect in England when in 1876 the English section of the synod united with the older Presbyterian body in England and brought a needed vigor into its ranks. Of the 353 congregations of the Presbyterian Church of England, twenty-eight originated in the seventeenth century, forty-two in the eighteenth and 283 have been established in the last 118 years."—*New Hazell Almanac*, 1921, p. 319.—"The several subdivisions today of Scottish Presbyterianism and its development in the British Empire are the United Free Church of Scotland, formed by the union in 1900 of the Free Church of Scotland and the United Presbyterian Church [see SCOTLAND: 1900-1905]; the Calvinistic Methodist (Presbyterian) Church of Wales which is in federation with the United Free Church of Scotland and the Presbyterian Church of England; the Presbyterian Church in Ireland formed in Ulster by Scottish settlers during the reign of James I; the Presbyterian church of England; and several less numerous divisions such as the remnant of the Free Church of Scotland, the Reformed Presbyterian Synod, the Eastern Reformed Synod, the United Original Seceders, the Secession Presbytery in Ireland, and the Synod of the Church of Scotland in England. In December, 1919, the established Church of Scotland had 728,329 members, the United Free Church 528,084 members, the Welsh Presbyterian Church 184,694 members, the Irish Presbyterian Church 104,778 members."—*Ibid.*, p. 319.—In 1918 the Presbyterian church in England had 85,551 members.

1683-1789.—Presbyterianism in America.—Colonial churches.—"Old Side" and "New Side" parties.—Reunion in 1758.—First general assembly in 1789.—"The earliest Presbyterian churches in . . . [the United States] go back to the first half of the seventeenth century. The elements composing them were chiefly English Puritans and Scotch and Irish immigrants. On Long Island a church was organized as early as 1640 by a Puritan minister named John Young. Another church was founded at Hempstead two years later. Presbyterian services were held on Manhattan Island in 1643 by Francis Doughty, and a Presbyterian church was established at New-ark, N. J., in 1667. The claim has recently been

advanced that the oldest Presbyterian church is the First Church of Norfolk, Va., which was established as a congregation on Elizabeth River in the first quarter of the seventeenth century. Rev. Francis Makemie, generally regarded as the father of American Presbyterianism, came to this country in 1683 from Ireland. . . . He organized a Presbyterian church at Snow Hill, Md., at the close of the century, and in 1706, with John Hampton, an Irishman, and George McNish, a Scotchman, and four other ministers . . . organized the first presbytery in America, the Presbytery of Philadelphia. . . . In 1716, the number of ministers having increased to seventeen and covering an extensive territory, a synod, the Synod of Philadelphia, was formed, and the presbytery was divided into three 'subordinate meetings, or presbyteries.' In 1741 there was a division in the synod in consequence of differences respecting subscription to the profession of faith and doctrines and practices, which an extensive revival movement brought into prominence. Those contending for a strict subscription and opposing what they regarded as errors of doctrine in the revival movement were known as Old Side, and the other party as New Side, Presbyterians. The latter organized the Synod of New York. In 1758 the two bodies were reunited as the Synod of New York and Philadelphia. At the opening of the Revolutionary War, in 1775, there were in connection with the synod 17 presbyteries and 170 ministers. The church suffered severely in the war for independence, but it became prosperous after peace was declared, and in 1788 the synod decided to organize a general assembly with four synods. It revised and adopted the Westminster Confession and Larger Catechism, form of government, book of discipline, and directory of worship. The first meeting of the general assembly was held in Philadelphia in 1789."—H. K. Carroll, *Religious forces of the United States*, pp. 279-280.—See also SOUTH CAROLINA: 1680.

1792-1837.—Plan of union with Congregationalists.—"Old School" and "New School."—"The first important movement in the church after the adoption of the constitution was the formulation of a Plan of Union with the Congregational associations of New England. [See CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH: 1800-1916.] . . . This plan allowed Congregational ministers to serve Presbyterian churches and vice versa; and also allowed to churches composed of members of both denominations the right of representation in both presbytery and association. It remained in force until 1837, and was useful to both denominations in securing the results of the great revivals of religion throughout the country, and also in furthering the causes of home and foreign missions. What is known as the Cumberland separation took place during this period."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, p. 552.—"The Cumberland Presbyterian Church . . . owes its existence to a revival which began among the Presbyterian churches within the bounds of the Presbytery of Transylvania, Ky., in 1800. The awakening was first manifested in the congregation of the Rev. James McGready, at Gasper River, Logan County, and soon extended throughout the Cumberland Valley, in Kentucky and Tennessee. . . . Some of the ministers looked upon the revival with disfavor, and opposed the licensing and ordaining of laymen to preach. . . . The outcome of the matter was the organization of an independent presbytery in 1810, which was called the Cumberland Presbytery. . . . In 1813 . . . the Cumberland Synod was constituted. The synod authorized an expression of dissent from the

teaching of the Westminster Confession as to reprobation, a limited atonement, infant salvation, and the calling of the elect only. The new church was rapidly extended."—H. K. Carroll, *Religious forces of the United States*, p. 289.—"In this period also the first theological seminary of the church was founded at Princeton, N. J. (1811), and most of the missionary and benevolent boards were established. About the year 1825 controversies arose respecting the Plan of Union and the establishment of denominational agencies for missionary and evangelistic work. . . . The party . . . opposed to united work was known as the 'Old School,' and that favoring the continuance of the plan as the 'New School.' . . . The Old School majority in the assembly of 1837 brought the matters at issue to a head by abrogating the Plan of Union, passing resolutions against the interdenominational societies, exsclinding . . . [certain] synods . . . and establishing the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions. . . . The exsclinded synods met . . . setting forth the views of the New School . . . and elected commissioners to the assembly in 1838. When that assembly met, the New School commissioners protested, . . . organized an assembly of their own, . . . and then withdrew."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, p. 552.

1810.—Action on liquor problem. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States; 1810-1826.

1838-1869.—Two schools.—Divisions caused by Civil War.—Reunion of schools.—Both schools or branches of the church grew steadily though slowly, until disruption caused by the slavery discussion, when the southern presbyteries of each school formed new organizations. The United Synod, New School, and the Presbyterian Church in the Confederate States (also New School), joined forces in 1864, and upon the cessation of hostilities in 1865 became known as the Presbyterian Church in the United States, the official name of the northern body being the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America. On account of the resemblance of titles these two churches are generally referred to as the Northern and the Southern Churches. It was during this period that the United Presbyterian Church of North America came into existence. "This body is not historically connected with the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland, though it was formed in a similar way and of similar elements. The Scottish body was organized in 1847 of Secession or Associate Burgher, and Relief Presbyterians. The American branch was constituted in 1858 of Associate and Associate Reformed Presbyterians. The Associate Presbyterians included both Burghers and Secession Presbyterians, and the Associate Reformed, Associate and Reformed Presbyterians. All these divisions were brought to the United States by Scotch immigrants. In 1858 most of the Associate and Associate Reformed Presbyterians agreed to unite, and the United Presbyterian Church in North America was the result. A number of each of the bodies, however, refused to enter the union, and hold still a separate existence."—H. K. Carroll, *Religious forces of the United States*, p. 298.—The most important event of this period for the Presbyterian churches, however, was the reunion of the New School and the Old School which came about at a conference meeting at Pittsburgh, Pa., on November 12, 1869 on "the doctrinal and ecclesiastical basis of our common standards." At the same time a memorial fund of \$7,883,083 was raised in connection with the reunion movement.

1870-1920.—Movement towards church union.

—Divisions of Presbyterian and Calvinistic churches in the United States.—"Since 1870 the church has made steady progress along all lines. . . . The controversy (1891-1894) as to the sources of authority in religion and the authority and credibility of the Scriptures . . . terminated in the adoption by the General Assembly . . . 1899, of a unanimous deliverance affirming the loyalty of the church to its historic views on these subjects. In the year 1903 a movement for the revision of the Confession of Faith came to a successful close. This year was also noteworthy for the beginnings of the movement for union with the Cumberland Presbyterian Church. This union was brought about in 1906 (although a minority refused to accept it and retained the old name and constitution). . . . In 1907 the Council of the Reformed Church in the United States holding the Presbyterian System was organized, bringing into coöperative relations seven of the churches of the Presbyterian family in the country. The Presbyterian Church in the United States of America has been identified with every movement for international fellowship and church union. It was an important factor in 1905 and 1908 in the preliminary arrangements for, and the organization of, the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America; and is represented on the Advisory Committee of the World Conference on Questions of Faith and Order."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, p. 553.—Besides those branches of Presbyterianism already mentioned "the Calvinistic Methodists' of Wales are represented by the Welsh Calvinistic Methodist Church [Presbyterian in all but name]. Five Presbyterian denominations are directly connected with the Secession and Relief movement of the Church in Scotland in the eighteenth century: The United Presbyterian Church of North America; the Associate Synod of North America, known also as the Associate Presbyterian Church; the Associate Reformed Presbyterian Church, formerly the Associate Reformed Synod of the South; the Synod and the General Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church. In close harmony with these distinctively Presbyterian churches are the Reformed churches traceable to the influence of immigration from the continent of Europe; the Reformed Church in America (Dutch) and the Christian Reformed Church, both of which originated in Holland; the Reformed Church in the United States (German) whose beginnings were in Switzerland and Germany; and the Hungarian Reformed Church in America, representing the State Reformed Church of Hungary."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, p. 549.—"Statistics available in 1920 report 16,066 churches with 2,243,678 members of Presbyterian bodies and 2,779 churches with 535,040 members of Reformed Calvinistic bodies in the United States."—S. R. Warburton, ed., *Year book of the churches*, p. 201.

1919-1920.—Interchurch and New Era Movements.—The various Presbyterian bodies in the United States took part in the Interchurch World Movement during 1919-1920, a movement which was initiated by the proposals of the Foreign Missions Board of the Southern Presbyterian Church in 1918. (See INTERCHURCH WORLD MOVEMENT.) In 1919 the Presbyterian church inaugurated its "New Era Movement," partly to provide an organization for promoting its part in the Interchurch World Movement, partly as the means of a general awakening of the denomination throughout the United States. The movement included a drive for funds for home and foreign missions, after-war relief work, etc. "The seven-fold de-

partmental organization of the New Era Movement . . . [included] the Departments of Spiritual Resources, Stewardship, Social Service, Gospel Extension, Missionary Education, Every Member Mobilization and Publicity. . . . Through a thoroughly organized Field Department these seven departments of creative or suggestive activity carry their plans and programs to the individual church."—*Second Annual Report of Committee on New Era Movement*, 1920, p. 6.—Dissatisfied with the policy of the Interchurch movement, which was undergoing a severe strain due to the vastness of its program, the Presbyterian Church (North) withdrew during the summer of 1920.

Presbyterianism outside the United States and Great Britain.—In Australia a Presbyterian church was built in New South Wales as early as 1803, a congregation organized in Queensland in 1840, one in Victoria in 1841 and presbyteries established in various other colonies and districts of the country about the middle of the century. "In 1885 a federation of all Australian churches was created. . . . The Australian church has no synods, nor any courts between its presbyteries and the general assembly. This church has discussed the question of union with some of the other denominations. . . . The church reports [1911] 43 presbyteries, about 500 congregations with about 60,000 communicant members. In New Zealand, in 1855, the presbytery of Otago was formed in the South. In the north a large settlement was made at Auckland, where a presbytery was organized in 1856. Other presbyteries were soon nucleated from the union of which there came, in 1862, the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church of New Zealand, embracing not only all the congregations and presbyteries on the north island but five presbyteries that had been formed in the northern portion of the southern island. . . . A large portion of the southern church from the very beginning desired union with those of the north, but an influential minority successfully resisted. . . . By degrees, however, this party softened its attitude, so that an organic union was formed between the two churches in 1901, the United church taking the name of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church of New Zealand. The synod of Otago provided that it should continue its separate existence for the sake of preserving its interest in the control of the endowment it had received [on settlement] from the company. . . . At the census of 1906 . . . more than one-fifth of the whole population called themselves Presbyterians. As organized the Presbyterian Church reports 16 presbyteries, 215 congregations with a communicant church roll of some 32,000 persons. . . . There is now but one Presbyterian Church in the Dominion of Canada, comprising eight synods and sixty-seven presbyteries [1911]. . . . An interesting movement has been going on since 1903 with the view of forming a union between the Methodist, Congregational, and Presbyterian Churches in the Dominion. . . . Numerous bodies of Presbyterians organized or unorganized are found in many other countries."—S. M. Jackson, ed., *New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia*, v. 9, pp. 223-225, 237, 239.

ALSO IN: R. C. Reed, *History of the Presbyterian churches of the world*.—J. V. Stevens, *Presbyterian churches, divisions and unions in Scotland, Ireland, Canada, and America*.

PRESCOTT, William (1726-1795), American soldier. Served in the Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April); (June).

PRESCOTT, William Hickling (1796-1859), American historian. See HISTORY: 30.

PRESIDENT.—The title *praeses*, or president, was given in classical Latin to all provincial governors. Later it was confined to the procurators who governed the smaller provinces. In Charlemagne's time *praeses provinciae* was applied to counts, and later, *praeses* or *praesidens* was used to refer to royal seneschals and other royal officials. In this sense—as a lieutenant of the crown—the word persisted in England till late in the Middle Ages. In colonial New Hampshire, Pennsylvania and South Carolina there was a president of the council, and even after Pennsylvania and New Hampshire became states, one member of the Executive Council was called president. Delaware, South Carolina, and New Hampshire had a single executive head known as the president. During the period of the Revolution the Continental Congress was presided over by an officer known as the president and it was natural, when the Constitution of the United States was framed (1787) that the already familiar title should be applied to the head of the Federal government. The South American republics copied the United States' title for their chief executives, as did also France (in 1849) and the Swiss republic (in 1848). "A century ago there was in the Old World only one spot in which the working of democracy could be studied. In 1914 there were five republics. Within a few months the number has been trebled. It has been a remarkable period of constitution drafting. . . . [But for these new governments created since the World War], the rigid system of the United States apparently had no attractions. Yugoslavia is the only instance in which the titular executive is a king. Czechoslovakia and Poland took for their models the French constitution; they have presidents elected by the chambers but with powers somewhat greater than those of the President of France. Germany has a President elected by the people but a cabinet responsible to the legislature. Most interesting of all, however, is the arrangement in Estonia and in the German states (Länder). The ceremonial executive is dispensed with; the Swiss collegial executive is the model that is most closely followed, with the important difference that it is responsible to the legislature, and that, in determining the result of conflicts the people are to be consulted directly."—H. McBain and L. Rogers, *New constitutions of Europe*, pp. 4, 28.

Argentina. See ARGENTINA, CONSTITUTION OF.

Austria. See AUSTRIA, CONSTITUTION OF.

Baltic states. See BALTIC STATES: Estonia: 1918-1919; Latvia: 1918.

Brazil. See BRAZIL, CONSTITUTION OF.

China. See CHINA: 1914.

Czecho-Slovakia. See CZECHO-SLOVAKIA, CONSTITUTION OF.

Finland. See FINLAND: 1919-1920.

France.—"When the executive of France is spoken of, in connection with legislation, it is not the President who is intended, but the ministers. [See CABINET: French.] In fact his position with reference to the ministers of state is exactly opposite to that of an American president in relation to the members of his cabinet. . . . Following the example of England, in 1875, the Republic decided that its President should be responsible only in the event of high treason, and that, on the other hand, the ministers, appointed by him to direct the great public services, should be responsible to the Chambers as a solidarity in matters of General policy and individuality for their personal actions. This division of responsibilities is the great characteristic of the constitutional sys-

tem which is today that of France, and which is known as the parliamentary system. . . . The ministers, in fact, being alone responsible, are those who actually exercise authority; the President presides, but does not govern; he can form no decision save in agreement with his ministers, and the responsibility is theirs. . . . The President therefore exercises no power alone. Each of his proclamations must be countersigned by a minister.' (Note—Raymond Poincaré, 'How France is Governed' (1914), p. 172.) The third article of the Constitution of 1875 declares that 'the President of the Republic shall have the initiative of laws concurrently with the members of the two chambers.' But in practice this has come to mean not a direct and personal initiative on the part of the President, but an initiative exercised by him in conjunction with one or more of the ministers, or perhaps, rather, nothing more than his formal assent to an initiative exercised by a minister. For any projected law put forward in the name of the President must be countersigned by a minister, and this minister must therefore appear in person before the Chambers to explain and defend the measure. The President has no personal access to Parliament and cannot take part in the debates. It might easily result that the President of the French Republic should be only a figure-head, a mere puppet in the hands of his ministers. Historically it is the fact that this does result when he is a man of mediocre gifts. It was Casimir-Perier retiring from office who said that he had been 'nothing but a master of ceremonies,' and Grevy who described the presidency as merely 'an honorable retreat for an old servant of the country.' But it . . . [was] far otherwise with M. Raymond Poincaré."—H. C. Black, *Relation of the executive power to legislation*, pp. 47-48.—See also FRANCE: 1875-1889.

ALSO IN: J. E. C. Bodley, *France*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 2.—A. L. Lowell, *Government and parties in Continental Europe*, v. 1, ch. 2.

Georgia. See GEORGIA, REPUBLIC OF: 1800-1918.

Germany. See GERMANY, CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC.

Mexico. See MEXICO, CONSTITUTION OF.

Poland. See POLAND, CONSTITUTION OF.

Portugal. See PORTUGAL, CONSTITUTION OF.

Prussia. See PRUSSIA, CONSTITUTION OF.

Switzerland.—"By the constitution of the Swiss Confederation the legislative power is vested in the Federal Assembly. 'The supreme directive and executive authority of the Confederation shall be exercised by a Federal Council, composed of seven members,' and which is presided over by the President of the Confederation. Also it is declared that the Federal Council 'shall introduce bills or resolutions into the Federal Assembly, and shall give its opinion upon the proposals submitted to it by the councils or by the cantons.' It will be seen, therefore, that the executive branch of the government is possessed of something more than a mere advisory authority, having a direct right of initiative; and it is customary practice for the legislature to invite the executive to prepare and submit drafts of bills upon important subjects of legislation."—H. C. Black, *Relation of the executive power to legislation*, pp. 49-50.—See also SWITZERLAND: 1848-1890.

United States.—"No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President [See U.S.A.: Constitution]; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the

age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States. . . . The President shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors."—*Constitution of the United States*, Art. 2, and Art. 12 of Amendments.—"The provisions of the Constitution regarding the Presidential succession, in case of the death or resignation of both President and Vice-President, are: 'In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed or a President shall be elected.' (Article II, Section 6.) In pursuance of the power thus granted to it in the last half of this section, Congress in 1792 passed an act declaring that in case of the death, resignation, etc., of both the President and Vice-President, the succession should be first to the President of the Senate and then to the Speaker of the House. This order was changed by the act of 1886, which provided that the succession to the presidency should be as follows: 1. President. 2. Vice-President. 3. Secretary of State. 4. Secretary of the Treasury. 5. Secretary of War. 6. Attorney General. 7. Postmaster General. 8. Secretary of the Navy. 9. Secretary of the Interior. In all cases the remainder of the four-years' term shall be served out. This act also regulated the counting of the votes of the electors by Congress, and the determination of who were

legally chosen electors."—*Statutes of the United States passed at 1st Session of 49th Congress, p. 1.*

ALSO IN: E. Stanwood, *History of presidential elections, ch. 27*.—J. Story, *Commentaries on the constitution of the United States, v. 3, bk. 3, ch. 36-37*.—*Federalist, no. 66-76*.—J. Bryce, *American Commonwealth, v. 1, ch. 5-8*.—F. J. Goodnow, *Principles of the administrative law of the United States, pp. 73-94*.

United States: Need of a single strong executive.—Discussions in the Constitutional Convention.—"We know that every plan of government proposed or presented to the [constitutional] convention embodied in some form as a prominent feature of the establishment of an effective Executive; and I think it can be safely said that no subject was submitted which proved more perplexing and troublesome. We ought not to consider this as unnatural. Many members of the convention, while obliged to confess that the fears and prejudices that refused executive power to the Confederacy had led to the most unfortunate results, were still confronted with a remnant of those fears and prejudices, and were not yet altogether free from the suspicion that the specter of monarchy might be concealed behind every suggestion of executive force. Others less timid were nevertheless tremendously embarrassed by a lack of definite and clear conviction as to the manner of creating the new office and fixing its limitations. Still another difficulty, which seems to have been all-pervading and chronic in the convention, and which obstinately fastened itself to the discussion of the subject, was the jealousy and suspicion existing between the large and the small States. I am afraid, also that an unwillingness to trust too much to the people had its influence in preventing an easy solution of the executive problem. The first proposal made in the convention that the President should be elected by the people was accompanied by an apologetic statement by the member making the suggestion that he was almost unwilling to declare the mode of selection be preferred, 'being apprehensive that it might appear chimerical.' Another favored the idea of popular election, but thought it 'impracticable'; another was not clear that the people ought to act directly even in the choice of electors, being, as alleged, 'too little informed of personal characters in large districts, and liable to deception'; and again, it was declared that 'it would be as unnatural to refer the choice of a proper character for Chief Magistrate to the people as it would to refer a trial of colors to a blind man.' This imperfect review of the incidents that led up to the establishment of the office of President, and its rescue from dangers which surrounded its beginning, if not otherwise useful, ought certainly to suggest congratulatory and grateful reflections. The proposition that the selection of a President should rest entirely with the Congress, which came so near adoption, must, I think, appear to us as something absolutely startling; and we may well be surprised that it was ever favorably considered by the convention."—G. Cleveland, *Presidential problems, pp. 7-10*.—"Inasmuch as Senators are elected by the State legislatures [changed in 1913 by the Seventeenth Amendment], Representatives in Congress by the votes of districts or States, and judges are appointed by the President, it is only in the selection of the President that the body of the American people can by any possibility act together and directly in the equipment of their national Government. Without at least this much of participation in that equipment, we could hardly expect that a ruinous discontent and revolt could be

long suppressed among a people who had been promised a popular and representative government."—G. Cleveland, *Presidential problems, pp. 7-10, 12*.

ALSO IN: E. Stanford, *History of the presidency*.—W. B. Munro, *Government of the United States, pp. 88-90*.

United States: Present method of election. See ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: United States: Steps in election of president, etc.; Electoral college.

United States: Salary and allowances.—The President's salary is \$75,000 a year. He is given additional funds for traveling expenses, the maintenance of the White House, etc. See WHITE HOUSE.

United States: Presidential powers and functions.—Executive power in the early national government.—"The national constitution provided for a President, in whom the executive power should be vested. . . . The meaning of those words . . . in 1787 . . . was that the President was to have a military and political power rather than an administrative power. The meaning of these words is further explained by the enumeration of the specific powers which were granted to the President by the constitution. These are the same powers possessed by the governors of the commonwealths. They are the power of military command, the diplomatic power, the limited veto power, the power of pardon, the power to call an extra session of Congress, to adjourn it in case of a disagreement between the houses, and the power to send a message to the Congress. The general grant of the executive power to the President means little except that the President was to be the authority in the government that was to exercise the powers afterwards enumerated as his. The only other enumerated power is an administrative power, and is also the only purely administrative power that is mentioned clearly in the constitution. This is the power of appointment. Finally it is to be noted that, in accordance with the American conception of the executive power, the President did not have any power to issue general ordinances, even to supplement existing law, which would bind the citizen. The only ordinance power which the President had at the beginning of our history, and indeed now, is the power to issue ordinances when the legislature has specifically delegated to him the power to regulate a given subject. The only possible exception to this rule is that in times of war the war power which is generally recognized as belonging to the President is susceptible of very great extension and may be construed, indeed in the past has been construed, as giving to the President quite an ordinance power. . . . But American development has completely changed this conception of the power possessed by the President. In the first place the duty imposed upon him by the constitution, to see that the laws are faithfully executed, has been construed by the Congress as giving it the power of imposing duties and conferring powers upon the President by statute, and has led to the passage of almost innumerable laws which have greatly increased the importance of the President's position, and have given him powers and duties relative to the details of many administrative branches of the national government. . . . The second cause of the change in the position of the President is to be found in the interpretation of the constitution made by the first Congress relative to the power of removal. The constitution gave the power of removal to no authority expressly. The question came up before the first Congress in the discussion of the act

organizing the department of foreign affairs. Although there was a difference of opinion in the Congress as to who under the constitution possessed this power, it was finally decided by a very small majority that the power of removal was a part of the executive power and therefore belonged to the President. This was the recognized construction of the constitution for a great number of years, although it did not meet with the approval of some of the most eminent statesmen. After more than three-quarters of a century Congress deliberately reversed this decision and by the tenure-of-office acts of 1867-1869 (later incorporated in the Revised Statutes as sections 1767-1769) decided that the constitution had not impliedly or expressly settled this point, and that Congress was therefore the body to decide who possessed the power of removal. Congress then decided that the power of removal of senate appointments belonged to the President and the senate. For twenty years this was the law of the land though no one was able to explain exactly what the tenure-of-office acts meant, on account of the obscurity of their wording; but finally in 1887 Congress repealed them. The result is that the early interpretation of the constitution must be regarded as the correct one at the present time. That is, the President alone has the power of removal of even senate appointments. . . . From this power of removal has been evolved the President's power of direction and supervision over the entire national administration. . . . The power of direction and control over the administration through which the President has become the chief of administration is hardly recognized in the constitution. The only provision from which it might be derived is that which permits him to 'require the opinion in writing of the principal officer in each of the executive departments upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices.' . . . [By 1885] it was pretty well recognized that the President had a power of direction over all of the departments regardless of the fact whether the law organizing the department had made mention of such a power or not. . . . The effect of giving to the President these powers of removal and direction has been to give him the administrative power, and to make him the chief of administration."—F. J. Goodnow, *Comparative administration law*, v. 1, 2, pp. 62-66, 69-70.—See also U.S.A.: 1921: Budget Act.

ALSO IN: B. Harrison, *This country of ours*.—W. H. Taft, *Presidency*.—C. A. Beard, *American government and politics*, pp. 187-193.—J. A. Fairlie, *National administration of the United States*, ch. 1-2.

United States: War powers of the president.—"The power to declare war is vested in Congress, but the President may so conduct negotiations as to make war inevitable, as did President Polk in 1846. He may, as commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and in pursuance of his duty 'to take care that the laws be faithfully executed,' employ forces abroad to protect the rights of American citizens, as was done by President Pierce in the case of Martin Koszta, 1856, and by President McKinley in the Boxer rebellion of 1900. He may also employ the forces to execute treaties, as was done by President Roosevelt in restoring order in Cuba in 1906 as required by the Cuban treaty of 1903, and for defense. Thus Jefferson, the man of peace, opened his administration by a defensive war against Tripoli which was not sanctioned by Congress until after the principal engagement. The President makes war subject to congressional approval. He decides

independently when it is proper to employ the forces in measures short of war, subject always to the power of Congress to withhold supplies. He terminates war, subject, unless there is complete conquest, or protracted suspension of hostilities, to approval by two-thirds of the Senate."—Q. Wright, *Control of foreign relations* (*American Political Science Review*, Feb., 1921).—See also WAR POWERS OF THE UNITED STATES: Distribution of power; Power of the president; WAR DEPARTMENT, UNITED STATES.

ALSO IN: C. A. Beard, *American government and politics*, pp. 194-195.—A. Berdahl, *War powers of the executive in the United States*.—F. G. Caffey, *Federal executive power* (*Central Law Journal*, July 7, 1922).

United States: President and foreign affairs.—"The power to make treaties belongs to the President acting with the advice and consent of two-thirds of the Senate, but since Washington's administration the President has seldom sought the advice of the Senate prior to or during negotiations. He has negotiated and signed treaties independently and submitted the completed work to the Senate for consent to ratification. . . . In only ten later cases has such prior advice been sought, though informal conferences with individual senators or with the Senate committee on foreign relations have been frequent. The Senate under the Constitution must give its advice and consent to the appointment of officers of the United States and has asserted that all persons authorized to negotiate treaties are thus included. [See CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: Senate: Powers.] However, the President has often negotiated treaties in person or through agents appointed by himself alone. The practice began with Washington's commission to John Paul Jones to treat with Algiers; was followed in Nicholas Trist's mission, resulting in the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, ending the Mexican war; in Perry's famous mission to Japan in 1852; in the missions which concluded the treaty of peace with Spain in 1898; the Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907; and the Algeciras General Act of 1906. A Senate report of 1887 stated that 438 special agents had been appointed by the President without consent of the Senate, and the majority report of the Senate in 1893, upon Blount's mission to Hawaii, stated: 'Precedents show that the Senate of the United States, though in session, need not be consulted as to the appointment of such agents.' The Senate may, however, refuse consent to ratification of treaties as it has done in 17 of about 650 negotiated treaties. Among the more important treaties thus vetoed may be mentioned commercial reciprocity treaties with Switzerland, 1835; with the German Zollverein, 1844; with Great Britain for Canada in settlement of the fisheries question, 1888; and the Kasson reciprocity treaties of 1899; annexation treaties with Texas, 1844; Hawaii, 1855; San Domingo, 1869; and Denmark for the Virgin Islands, 1868; arbitration and claims treaties including the Johnson-Clarendon treaty for settlement of the Alabama claims, 1868; and the Olney-Paunccefote general arbitration treaty with Great Britain, 1897. It is to be noticed that in most of these cases, the end sought was eventually achieved, though in the matter of annexing Hawaii and the Virgin Islands, and in the settlement of the Canadian fisheries question, not until many years later. The Senate's right to qualify its consent to ratification by reservations, amendments, and interpretations was established through a reservation to the Jay treaty of 1794 and has been exercised in about seventy cases. In fifteen of

these the President has objected to the Senate conditions and refused to ratify. Among the number may be mentioned the Roosevelt and Taft arbitration treaties of 1904 and 1911. There seems to be no doubt but that the final act of ratification belongs to the President, and he may withdraw a treaty from the Senate at any time or refuse to ratify even after the Senate has consented to the treaty without qualification. The other party to the treaty may refuse to accept Senate amendments or reservations in which case the treaty fails. Thus, in 1803, after Senate alteration, Great Britain rejected a boundary settlement treaty; in 1824, a slave trade convention; and in 1900, the first Hay-Pauncefote Canal treaty. The claim, occasionally asserted by the House of Representatives, of a right to participate in treaty making has not been sustained in practice. It is true that action by Congress may be necessary to execute a treaty, as when an appropriation is necessary; but in such a case, as President Washington explained in his message on the Jay treaty in 1796, Congress is under a moral obligation to act. Though formal treaties must gain the positive consent of the Senate, less formal agreements may be made by the President alone. Of this character were the preliminary peace protocol with Spain of 1898, the Boxer indemnity agreement of 1900, the executive agreement under which President Roosevelt authorized the administration of San Domingan customs houses in 1904, and the preliminaries of peace and the armistice with Germany of November 5, and 11, 1918. Commitments to permanent policies have also been made under the sole authority of the President. Such were the exchanges of notes establishing the Hay open door policy in 1900, the Root-Takahira, and Lansing-Ishii agreements for a far eastern policy in 1908 and 1917. Practice seems to sanction independent initial negotiation and denunciation of treaties by the President. The power of the Senate is confined to a qualified or unqualified veto of formal treaties; and that of Congress is limited to their impairment or termination as municipal law. . . . In 1906, Democratic senators, led by Senator Bacon of Georgia, disapproved of President Roosevelt's participation, without consulting the Senate, in the Algeiras conference on Morocco. 'The Constitution,' said Senator Spooner of Wisconsin, defending the President, 'vests the power of negotiation and the various phases—and they are multifarious—of the conduct of foreign relations exclusively in the President. And . . . he does not exercise that constitutional power, nor can he be made to do it, under the tutelage or guardianship of the Senate or of the House or of the Senate and House combined.' Presidents themselves have displayed no less jealousy in guarding their prerogative in foreign negotiations. 'Sympathizing as I do,' wrote President Grant as he vetoed a congressional resolution in response to Argentinian congratulations upon our centennial exposition, 'in the spirit of courtesy and friendly recognition which has prompted the passage of these resolutions, I cannot escape the conviction that their adoption has inadvertently involved the exercise of a power which infringes upon the constitutional rights of the executive.' Perhaps the language of these statements is extreme. Our Constitution recognizes no 'mysteries of state' excluded from congressional examination. The constitutional powers of the Senate and Congress justify them in requesting information and exercising a very real check on presidential foreign policies. Yet practice in recognition, treaty making and war making accords to the President the initiative,

and much independence in carrying out foreign policies."—Q. Wright, *Control of foreign relations* (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1921).

ALSO IN: E. S. Corwin, *President's control of foreign relations*.—C. H. Butler, *Treaty-making power of the United States*.—J. B. Moore, *Digest of international law*, v. 1, pp. 164-247.—W. W. Willoughby, *Constitutional law of the United States*, v. 1, pp. 458-518.—S. M. Crandall, *Treaties, their making and enforcement*, pp. 70-462.—D. H. Miller, *Some legal aspects of the visit of President Wilson to Paris* (Harvard Law Review, Nov., 1922).

United States: Power in government of territories. See PORTO RICO: 1900: April; TERRITORIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

United States: Power over transportation systems for war use. See RAILROADS: 1861-1865; 1916-1920.

United States: Pardoning power.—Message to Congress.—Veto.—"In judicial matters the President has the power to pardon any offences except in cases of impeachment."—A. B. Hart, *Actual government*, p. 270.—"The President presents a message at the opening of each annual or special session, and at such other times as he may desire to make a communication. Besides a discussion of the routine affairs of the Government, such messages may include reports from heads of departments, the promulgation of the ratification of constitutional amendments, communications or petitions from foreigners, and letters impeaching the conduct of federal civil officials. Presidents Washington and John Adams, flanked by the Vice-President and Speaker, presented their annual messages in person. Subsequently the Vice-President, attended by the Speaker and members of the two Houses, proceeded to the President's audience chamber and presented a joint address in reply. President Jefferson preferred to communicate in writing, a custom which continued until President Wilson (1913) revived the earlier practice. Although one way is as proper as the other, the applause which greets the Chief Executive, especially after he has appeared several times in person, is likely to be confined to one side of the chamber, giving the ceremony something of a partisan character, which occasions a subtle embarrassment. If a message be transmitted in writing, it is promptly received by the House, the Committee of the Whole, if it be in session at the time, informally rising for the purpose. If presented before the organization of the House, it remains in the custody of the clerk. If of a confidential character, a rule of the House, though not invoked since 1843, provides for a secret session. An annual message is formally laid before the House at a time prescribed by the order of business. It is then read in full, entered in the Journal, printed in the *Congressional Record*, and referred to the Committee of the Whole House on the State of the Union, which, on motion of the chairman of Ways and Means, distributes the various topics to appropriate standing or select committees with or without instructions. Special messages, however, even when relating to matters of great importance, are ordinarily referred to committees by the Speaker without reading or debate. To lay a communication from the President on the table, other than a veto message, is considered a mark of disapprobation. All enrolled bills and such resolutions as are legislative in effect, except those proposing amendments to the Constitution, go to the President for his approval, and, if signed, are deposited with the Secretary of State for preservation and publication.

If not signed or returned within ten days, they become laws, unless in the meantime Congress expires. It is doubtful, however, if adjournment for a recess invalidates. A bill returned with the President's objections is privileged, and if a quorum be present it is usually considered at once. It cannot be postponed indefinitely, but if returned too late in the session for consideration because of the absence of a quorum, it may be acted upon at the next session of the same Congress. To lay it on the table, or to refer it, is equivalent to agreeing to the President's objections. If passed in both Houses by two-thirds of those present it goes directly to the Secretary of State. As a rule Presidents have used the veto sparingly. In a measure this has been due to the watchfulness of Congress and the frankness of the Chief Executive, for members not infrequently obtain the President's views in advance. On more than one occasion President Roosevelt publicly announced a veto if a pending measure passed. The original purpose of the veto was to safeguard the Executive against the encroachments of Congress, but for many years it has been exercised to defeat measures objectionable in principle or in probable results. President Lincoln, speaking of executive influence, said: 'By the Constitution, the Executive may recommend measures which he may think proper, and he may veto those he thinks improper, and it is supposed he may add to these certain indirect influences to affect the action of Congress. My political education strongly inclines me against a very free use of any of these means by the Executive to control the legislation of the country. As a rule I think that Congress should originate as well as perfect its measures without external bias.' President Cleveland regarded the right of veto as intended 'to invoke the exercise of executive judgment and invite executive action.' Of two hundred and sixty-five private pension bills heretofore vetoed by all the Presidents he disapproved two hundred and sixty. Washington used the veto but twice, and Adams, Jefferson, John Quincy Adams, Van Buren, William Henry Harrison, Taylor, Fillmore, and Garfield, not at all. Lincoln vetoed three. Johnson was not so modest. He thought ten bills unconstitutional and many others inadvisable. McKinley disapproved fourteen bills; Roosevelt, forty.—D. S. Alexander, *History and procedure of the House of Representatives*, pp. 356-359.

ALSO IN: W. H. Taft, *Our chief magistrate and his powers*.—E. C. Mason, *Veto power*.—J. A. Fairlie, *National administration of the United States*.—J. A. Woodburn, *American republic and its government*.

United States: Limitations of president's powers.—"There is little danger to the public weal from the tyranny or reckless character of a President who is not sustained by the people. The absence of popular support will certainly in the course of two years withdraw from him the sympathetic action of at least one House of Congress, and by the control that that House has over appropriations, the Executive arm can be paralyzed, unless he resorts to a coup d'état, which means impeachment, conviction and deposition. . . . The Constitution does give the President wide discretion and great power, and it ought to do so. It calls from him activity and energy to see that within his proper sphere he does what his great responsibilities and opportunities require. He is no figurehead, and it is entirely proper that an energetic and active, clear-sighted people, who, when they have work to do, wish it done well, should be willing to rely upon their judgment in selecting their Chief Agent, and having selected

him, should entrust to him all the power needed to carry out their governmental purpose, great as it may be."—W. H. Taft, *Our chief magistrate and his powers*, pp. 156-157.

United States: Impeachment proceedings.—"The Constitution alone governs cases of impeachment. It provides that 'the President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, and other high crimes and misdemeanors.' It further provides that 'the House shall have the sole power of impeachment,' and 'the Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments.' • In other words, the House indicts as a grand jury and prosecutes as a district attorney; the Senate hears and pronounces judgment as a court. . . . If the President be tried, the Chief Justice presides. . . . Whenever the House indicts it appoints a committee, usually of two members, to notify the Senate of its action. A committee is also appointed to prepare articles of impeachment. After their adoption five or more members are selected by ballot or designated by the Speaker to act as managers, upon whom rests the entire responsibility of conducting the prosecution. The House, if it attends the trial, appears as in Committee of the Whole. During the trial of Justice Chase, of the Supreme Court (1804), and of President Johnson (1868), it appeared daily in the Senate. Preliminary to the trial of President Johnson, the Senate, perhaps fearing the influence of Chief Justice Chase, manifested a disposition to rid itself of the character of a judicial body. The claim that the ordinary restrictions of judicial process had not more application than the guarantees accorded to the accused in jury trials was strengthened by the fact that no right existed to challenge a member of the Senate for any cause, or to appeal to any court, or to any law save the Constitution. Others argued that the presence of the Chief Justice fixed its status as a court. Moreover, the Constitution, by empowering the Senate to 'try' impeachments, contemplated the form of a judicial action. The peculiar character of the oath administered to Senators, as well as an adherence to the technical terminology of the law in the use of the words 'conviction' and 'judgment,' contributed to this conclusion. Precedent, too, had established its judicial character. The Senate, however, decided that it sat as a 'constitutional tribunal,' convened 'to inquire into and determine whether Andrew Johnson, because of malversation in office, is longer fit to retain the office of President, or hereafter to hold any office of honor or profit.' Having settled its status the Senate declined to require the Chief Justice to be sworn. It also questioned his right to decide on the admissibility of evidence. Some maintained that he acted not as a presiding judge, but simply as the mouthpiece of the Senate. He could decide nothing. No one not a senator could take any part in the trial save as a ministerial agent. This view did not satisfy the more conservative, and by a vote of 31 to 19 the Chief Justice received permission not only to decide all questions of law and evidence, subject to appeal if any senator demanded a roll-call, but to give the casting vote in case of a tie. It emphasized the judicial character of the body, too, when the Chief Justice, arrayed in his robe, appeared at the door of the Senate, attended by an Associate Justice, who subsequently administered the oath to him."—D. S. Alexander, *History and procedure of the House*, pp. 331-337.

Comparative powers of presidents.—"Many divergencies appear [in the powers of presidents].

In the first place the manner of election is various. The President of the United States is elected by an indirect election, which, through the purely mechanical nature of the electoral college, has become practically direct. In France the president is elected by the two houses of the legislature sitting together as a 'national assembly.' . . . The system of election varies among the republics of Central America and Southern America. Some of them, as Mexico, the Argentine Republic, and Chili, choose their presidents by indirect election. In others, as for example in Peru, in Brazil, and in Bolivia, the election is made directly by the people. Another difficult problem presents itself in the matter of the duration of the executive term of office. . . . The presidents of the different American republics hold office for terms varying from four to six years. . . . In France the president is elected for seven years and is reëligible."—S. Leacock, *Elements of political science*, pp. 189-191.—"The countries of Latin America offer a most interesting field for the study in which we are engaged, because they have generally tried, in their constitutions, to combine the essential features of the North American or 'presidential system' of government with some important details of the European or 'parliamentary' system. That is, while they have set up a chief executive vested with powers and duties corresponding with those of the President of the United States, and holding office for a fixed term and practically irremovable, they have also bestowed upon him (acting either personally or through his ministers) a direct access to the legislative bodies and the right of initiative therein, with the necessary result that his control over legislation is always a factor of serious importance, and may at any time become formidable. Both South American and European writers have seen in this attempt to blend two incompatible systems the chief cause of the conspiracies and revolutions which have too often disgraced the history of those countries. For, in their view, it leads to such a hypertrophy of the executive power—especially when the prestige of the president and his most powerful ministers is based upon military exploits or maintained by the army—as cannot fail to be a constant menace to the state. That it may make possible a self-perpetuating and absolutistic dictatorship (benevolent or otherwise) is abundantly shown by the history of Porfirio Diaz in Mexico. The following may suffice as a brief summary of the constitutional provisions on this point to be found in Central and South America: In the Argentine, Haiti, and Paraguay, the right of initiative is given to the members of the two houses of the legislature and also to 'the executive' or 'the executive power.' In Chile, 'laws may be initiated in the Senate or in the House of Deputies upon the motion of any member or by message of the President of the Republic,' and the same provision is found in Bolivia, with additional requirement that a bill submitted by the President 'shall be supported in the debates by at least one of the cabinet ministers, but he shall have no vote.' In Costa Rica and Uruguay, in addition to the initiative of the members of the legislature, laws may originate on the proposal of the executive power through the medium of the secretaries of state.' In Columbia and Panama, the initiative is not given directly to the President, but it is given to the cabinet ministers or secretaries of state. In Ecuador, 'the laws, decrees, and resolutions of Congress may originate in either of the chambers on the proposal of any of its members, or of the executive power, or of the Supreme Court in so far as con-

cerns the administration of justice,' and substantially the same provision is found in the constitutions of Guatemala, Peru, the Dominican Republic, Salvador, Nicaragua, and Honduras, except that in the three last-named countries a bill may be introduced not directly by the President but through a minister or secretary of state. In Mexico, 'the right to originate legislation pertains to the President of the Republic, to the representatives and senators of the Congress, and to the state legislatures. Bills submitted by the President of the Republic, by state legislatures, or by delegations of the states, shall be at once referred to committees. Those introduced by representatives or senators shall be subject to the rules of procedure.' Brazil and Cuba have more directly followed the example of the United States, and do not permit the direct initiation of legislation by the executive or the ministers."—H. C. Black, *Relation of the executive power to legislation*, pp. 52-54.—"In France, the President presides, but does not govern. In such parliamentary governments, however, there is a real ruler who exercises in some important respect a greater power than the President of the United States. He is the leader of the majority in the popular house and remains in office only as long as he has that majority behind him. He is the premier, and exercises both executive and legislative functions. The executive head of the state, whether King or President or Governor-General, follows his recommendation in executive work, and he with his colleagues in the Cabinet, as responsible Ministers so-called, controls the legislation."—W. H. Taft, *Our chief magistrate and his powers*, pp. 9-10.—"In Germany it was no doubt advisable to have a rather powerful chief of state. Not only were the people accustomed to authoritarianism, but during the revolutionary transition a strong executive authority was almost indispensable. The President of the Reich has larger powers than the President of the French Republic, particularly with regard to legislation. He has no direct veto power, but when a law has been passed he may, before promulgation, order a referendum upon it. In cases of disagreement between the Reichstag and Reichsrat he may order a referendum; and under Article 72 he may promulgate a law that the Reichstag and Reichsrat have declared urgent even if a third of the Reichstag has demanded that the promulgation be deferred in order to allow a referendum. The President, moreover, has the right to dissolve the Reichstag, although this is not the only way in which dissolution may be effected. But the President's power in this regard may be a very material factor in preventing such frequent Cabinet changes as occur in France; for the authority to dissolve the Reichstag, coupled with the discretion that he has with regard to a referendum, will probably give the German President a dominating position with respect to the responsibility of the Cabinet to the Reichstag. In Austria the President appears to have much less authority, and the general adjustment of relationships is such that ministries will probably not enjoy great stability. Poland's President, on the other hand, more nearly resembles the French executive. He has no right of veto, nor may he, like the President of France, initiate legislation and demand a reconsideration of a law to which he objects. There is ministerial responsibility, but the power of dissolution is much more limited than in Germany. The Assembly (Sejm) may dissolve itself by a two-thirds majority vote; or it may be dissolved by the President with the consent of three-fifths of the statutory number of

members of the Senate, *which is dissolved at the same time* (Article 26). This penalty which the Senate must suffer if it exercises its prerogative may be an effectual deterrent. It seems likely, therefore, that these constitutional adjustments in Poland will allow a legislative dominance over the ministry similar to that which prevails in France. In Czechoslovakia the advantage is with the executive. The President is the strongest executive of any of the new states. He may dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, and he also appoints and dismisses the ministers, who, however, are responsible to the Chamber. His powers of veto and of patronage, together with this power of dissolution, are likely to constitute an adequate protection of the Cabinet against the caprice of the legislature. As has been mentioned, however, the most novel arrangements are found in Esthonia and the German states. Esthonia has the simplest of the new constitutions—a unicameral legislature with a collegial executive responsible to it, and with the initiative and referendum to determine conflicts between the two branches. . . . Prussia's constitutional arrangements, which with minor differences are found in most of the other members of the German Reich, provide for the Swiss collegial executive; but they seek to approach Great Britain in allowing an adequate power of dissolution as a complement to ministerial responsibility. Dissolution may be effected in any one of three ways: by a committee consisting of the Minister President, the President of the Landtag, and President of the Staatsrat; by a referendum initiated by the people or by the Staatsrat; or by a decision of the Landtag itself. This gesture of self-abnegation will probably be made only when the Landtag is reasonably confident of its support in the country or when it sees that dissolution is to be forced upon it by one of the other available methods. But the ability of the Minister President to threaten dissolution if he can secure the coöperation of one of the legislative presidents seems likely to make for a measure of ministerial stability."—H. McBain and L. Rogers, *New constitutions of Europe*, pp. 30-33.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS. See ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL.

PRESIDENTIAL PLAN. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1865-1872.

PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION. See PRESIDENT: United States.

Act of 1886. See U.S.A.: 1886.

PRÉSIDI, town in Tuscany, Italy. It was ceded to France by the Treaty of Florence in 1801. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (June-February).

PRESS. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS.

PRESS ASSOCIATION, England. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1865-1917.

PRESS CONFERENCES. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1909 (June); 1920 (August).

PRESSBURG, or Presburg, city of Czechoslovakia, re-named Bratislava since the establishment of that republic (see DANUBE: 1921), on the north bank of the Danube, thirty-five miles east of Vienna. In 1921 the population numbered 93,329. It is a place of great antiquity, first mentioned in the 9th century. From 1541 to 1784 the city was the capital of Hungary, during which time it was known by its Magyar name of Pozsony.

Peace of (1491). See AUSTRIA: 1471-1491.

Treaty of (1805). See AUSTRIA: 1798-1806; GERMANY: 1805-1806; RUSSIA: 1801-1805.

PRESSED GLASS. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

PRESTER JOHN, Kingdom of.—“About the middle of the eleventh century stories began to be circulated in Europe as to a Christian nation of north-eastern Asia, whose sovereign was at the same time king and priest, and was known by the name of Prester John. Amid the mass of fables with which the subject is encumbered, it would seem to be certain that, in the very beginning of the century, the Khan of the Keraït, a tribe whose chief seat was at Karakorum, between Lake Baikal and the northern frontier of China, was converted to Nestorian Christianity—it is said, through the appearance of a saint to him when he had lost his way in hunting. By means of conversation with Christian merchants, he acquired some elementary knowledge of the faith, and, on the application of Ebed-Jesu, metropolitan of Maru, to the Nestorian patriarch, Gregory, clergy were sent, who baptized the king and his subjects, to the number of 200,000. Ebed-Jesu consulted the patriarch how the fasts were to be kept, since the country did not afford any corn, or anything but flesh and milk; and the answer was, that, if no other Lenten provisions were to be had, milk should be the only diet for seasons of abstinence. The earliest western notice of this nation is given by Otho of Freising, from the relation of an Armenian bishop who visited the court of pope Eugenius III. This report is largely tinged with fable, and deduces the Tartar chief's descent from the Magi who visited the Saviour in His cradle. It would seem that the Nestorians of Syria, for the sake of vying with the boasts of the Latins, delighted in inventing tales as to the wealth, the splendour, and the happiness of their convert's kingdom; and to them is probably to be ascribed an extravagantly absurd letter, in which Prester John is made to dilate on the greatness and the riches of his dominions, the magnificence of his state and the beauty of his wives, and to offer the Byzantine emperor, Manuel, if he be of the true faith, the office of lord chamberlain in the court of Karakorum. In 1177 Alexander III. was induced by reports which a physician named Philip had brought back from Tartary, as to Prester John's desire to be received into communion with the pope, to address a letter to the king, recommending Philip as a religious instructor. But nothing is known as to the result of this; and in 1202 the Keraït kingdom was overthrown by the Tartar conqueror Genghis Khan. In explanation of the story as to the union of priesthood with royalty in Prester John, many theories have been proposed, of which two may be mentioned here; that it arose out of the fact of a Nestorian priest's having got possession of the kingdom on the death of a khan; or that, the Tartar prince's title being compounded of the Chinese ‘wang’ (king) and the Mongol ‘khan,’ the first of these words was confounded by the Nestorians of Syria with the name John, and the second with ‘cohen’ (a priest). . . . The identification of Prester John's kingdom with Abyssinia was a mistake of Portuguese explorers some centuries later.”—J. C. Robertson, *History of the Christian church*, v. 5, bk. 6, ch. 11, with footnote.

Also in: Col. H. Yule, *Note to ‘The Book of Marco Polo,’* v. 1, pp. 204-209.

PRESTON, Francis (1765-1835), American general. See BOSTON: 1770: Fair trial of the soldiers; Soldiers and citizens, etc.

PRESTON, Battles of. See ENGLAND: 1648 (April-August); SCOTLAND: 1715.

PRESTON PANS, Battle of (1745). See SCOTLAND: 1745-1746.

PRESTONBURG, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1862 (January-February: Kentucky-Tennessee).

PRETENDERS, Stuart. See JACOBITES.

PRETORIA, capital of the province of Transvaal, South Africa. It was founded in 1855, and named after the Boer general, Pretorius. In 1877 the Transvaal was annexed to Great Britain, but four years later self-government was restored to the province by the convention at Pretoria. Peace, recognizing British sovereignty, was concluded at Pretoria, and the first Parliament of the Transvaal met there in 1907. When the Union of South Africa was formed in 1910, Pretoria became the administrative capital of the province. Its chief buildings are the Raadzaal and the government offices.

1881.—British treaty with Boers. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1884-1894.

1894.—Demonstration of British residents against Boers. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1894.

1900.—Occupied by British. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1900 (May-June).

1901-1902.—Peace negotiations of British and Boers. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1901-1902.

PREUSS, Hugo (1860-), German statesman. Minister of home affairs in the Scheidemann cabinet, 1910. See **GERMANY**: 1919 (July-August).

PREUSSEN. See **PRUSSIA**.

PREVENTION OF CORRUPTION ACTS.

—Various laws to supplement the common law have been enacted in the effort to eliminate dishonest methods of influencing public elections. British statutes of this sort were passed in 1720, 1809, 1827, 1842, 1854, 1868, and 1883. (See also **CRIMINAL LAW**: 1906.) The most important of these are, the "Corrupt Practices Prevention Act" of 1854, which repealed previous legislation, and dealt especially with bribery; the "Parliamentary Elections Act" of 1868; and the "Corrupt and Illegal Practices Prevention Act" of 1883, by which severe penalties were fixed for corrupt practices. A candidate for a seat in Parliament found guilty of committing or consenting to corrupt practices is forever debarred from representing his district in Parliament. In the United States, Congress, in 1907, passed an act forbidding corporations to contribute to campaign funds in federal elections. An act of 1910 provided for publicity of political contributions. On August 19, 1911, the foregoing act was amended to apply to individual candidates as well as to committees, and candidates for the House of Representatives were limited to a maximum election expenditure of \$5,000, while for senatorial candidates the maximum was fixed at \$10,000. All of the states and territories, whose governments control most of the election machinery, have enacted corrupt practices acts. Their earlier laws related chiefly to bribery, but later laws go into the subject of expenditures by party candidates in detail. Canada has notably strict laws, applying both to voter and candidate. The latter, if proved guilty of corruption, may be disqualified from voting or office-holding for seven years.

PREVENTION OF CRIMES ACT (1908). See **PRISON REFORM**: England.

PREVENTION OF CRIMES BILL. See **IRELAND**: 1882.

PRÉVOST, Antoine François (1697-1763), French novelist. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1700-1814.

PREVOST, Augustine (1725-1786), British general. Served in the American Revolution. See **U. S. A.**: 1779 (September-October).

PREVOST, Sir George (1767-1816), British general. See **U. S. A.**: 1814: (September).

PRIBILOV, or PRIBILOF, ISLANDS, group of islands in Bering sea, belonging to the United

States. They are situated about 200 miles north of the Aleutian islands and 320 miles west of Bristol bay, and have a total area of about 180 square miles. In 1919 there was a population of about 600 permanent residents. The islands are of great importance as the breeding place of the fur seal, as well as the sea bear, otter, and blue fox. "Enwrapped in constant summer sea mists, which concealed them almost absolutely from chance observation, the breeding grounds of the Alaskan fur-seal were finally discovered by a patient and persistent fur-hunter, Gerassim Pribilof [a Russian], in 1786, after whom the group of four islands is named. The principal islands, St. George and St. Paul, are 30 miles apart, and near by are the lesser islet of Otter and the waterless ledges of Walrus. St. Paul has an area of some 35 square miles, its highest elevation is 600 feet, and the population numbers about 300; St. George has an area of 27 square miles, its elevation is 930 feet, and the population about 100; uninhabited Otter Islet has an area of about 4 sq. m., while the flat-topped Walrus reef scarcely measures a tenth of a square mile. . . . [The others are islets of volcanic origin. The isolation of the region], the character of the frequented beaches, and the humidity of its almost sunless climate are elements that . . . [did] much to conserve . . . [the] immense herds of fur-seal as a limitless source of wealth, until the introduction of the exterminating pelagic or open-sea hunting, which presents another example of reckless commercial exploitation that is utterly regardless of the welfare of future generations. . . . The present method of rookery sealing was introduced by Pribilof in 1786, which speedily led to fierce rivalries and the settlement of the Pribilof group by 137 natives from Unalaska and Atka. The preservation of the herds from utter destruction was due to the monopoly granted the Russian Trading Company in 1799. Then the policy was adopted, which remains unchanged to-day, of restricting the killing of seals to agents of the leasing company. [The United States acquired the group with Alaska in 1867.] In 1868 Congress made them a fur-seal reservation, and in the Act of June, 1870, for the preservation of fur-bearing animals, provisions were made for the leasing of the islands for a term of years. The first lease was made in 1870 for twenty years to the Alaska Commercial Company, under well-guarded restrictions to insure the preservation of the seal and to guard the welfare of the inhabitants of the islands. . . . The high value of sealskins caused Canadian fishermen to attack the seals passing to and from the Pribilofs and to shoot them outside the three-mile limit, often killing both male and female; three-fourths were females. As this industry was equally important to Great Britain, where the skins are dressed and dyed, an arbitration conference was eventually held at Paris in 1893. Under the regulations there formulated, Great Britain and the United States agreed to limit pelagic sealing by prohibiting it at any time within sixty miles of the Pribilof Islands, and permitting it to be followed in the rest of Bering Sea only between May 1 and July 31 of each year. Sealers were to be licensed, and forbidden to use firearms or explosives in fur-sealing."—A. W. Greely, *Handbook of Alaska*, pp. 118-122.—See also **BERING SEA QUESTION**.—Pelagic, or open sea hunting means annihilation, as many so killed are mothers, and only a small proportion of those shot are saved. "Japan, Russia and China were not parties to the Tribunal and so their seal hunters continued to enjoy the freedom of waters that were forbidden to Americans, Canadians and

Britons. In the six years from 1890 to 1895, inclusive, we spent over a million and a half patrolling the Pacific. . . . In 1910 the Camp Fire Club started a movement as a result of which, in 1912, England, Russia and Japan agreed to stop pelagic sealing in consideration of a share in our gains through legitimate killing on the Pribilof Islands. Japan receives 15 per cent. and England 10 per cent. of all net profits, and for each close season which we see fit to establish each country receives \$10,000."—*New York Times*, Aug. 5, 1920.—In 1867, there were 5,000,000 seals at the Pribilof islands; in 1873, the number had dwindled to 3,200,000; in 1905, 200,000; and in 1920, the effect of the new agreement was evident in the recuperation to 525,000.

PRICE, Sterling (1809-1867), American general. Served in the Confederate army during the Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1862 (January-March: Missouri-Arkansas); 1864 (March-October: Arkansas-Missouri).

PRICE CONTROL: Ancient and medieval.—"Agitation against speculation and the middleman is not new; neither is the attempt to prevent the first and to control the latter by means of legislative enactments. As far back as 301 A.D. Diocletian undertook to fix the price of certain commodities, but his attempt proved a failure. In the thirteenth century public authorities in England 'felt themselves bound to regulate every sort of economic transaction in which individual self-interest seemed to lead to injustice.' Forestalling, engrossing and regrating [chief meaning of all three terms is, buying with intent to sell at the higher prices resulting], practices roughly corresponding to the more modern speculation and to the 'evil practices' of the present day middlemen, were punishable by law. By the command of the king, no forestaller was 'suffered to dwell in any town'; such a man was branded as 'an oppressor of the poor, the public enemy of the whole community and country.' Trade regulations were guided by the general principle that a just and reasonable price only should be paid, and only such articles be sold as were of good quality and of correct measure. Not only the state, but also guilds and municipalities acted as price fixers in the Middle Ages. Most enactments were promulgated at that time for the purpose of preventing some particular form of fraud in some particular commodity. But there were a number of measures passed more general in character. . . . An attempt to control both the wholesale and the retail price of wine by fixing a maximum was made by the British Government in 1199. The measure failed and in 1330, after a long period of ineffectiveness, a new law was passed, which required the merchants to sell at a 'reasonable' price, the latter to be based on import price plus expenses. This new measure of control proved as futile as the old one, and in a few years, because of changed conditions of production and trade, the price of wine went up far beyond what it had been, as well as beyond the government expectations. A result similar to this followed the many efforts to regulate the prices of wheat and bread. In this instance the government endeavored to fix not a maximum price but a sliding scale. The first attempt was made as early as 1202. The most important ordinance on the matter was 51 Henry III. This ordinance fixed changing weight or the farthing loaf to correspond to six penny variations in the price of the quarter of wheat from twelve pence to twelve shillings. The law was enforced locally on sundry occasions, but fell gradually into disuse."—S. Litman, *Prices and price*

control in Great Britain and the United States during the World War, pp. 5-6.

1462.—Food regulation in Scotland. See **FOOD REGULATION: 1462.**

1630.—Attempts in colonial New England.—"Many difficulties were sometimes created, sometimes aggravated, by the artificial efforts—common at that time [1630]—to control prices, and to force trade out of its natural courses. Beaver was an essential factor in all their commercial calculations. In the previous year the governor and council, in their correspondence, had estimated beaver in New England at 6s. in fair exchange for English goods at thirty per cent. profit, with the freight added. This was a normal value, as they estimated it. But Dudley, in his letter to the Countess of Lincoln, says that, in the scarcity of corn, which, whether English or Indian, sold at 10s. 'the strike,' they forbade the sale of the precious food to the Indians. Under this pressure, beaver advanced to 10s. and 20s. per pound; 'no corne, no beaver,' said the native. The Court was obliged to remove the fixed rate, and the price ruled at 20s. . . . One of the first difficulties encountered by the new society was in the adjustment of labor and wages. The conditions of European life were so much changed by the supply of land in the new world opened to every willing laborer that the employers of the Bay [Massachusetts] found great difficulty in carrying on their business. . . . The problem was further complicated by the prevailing ideas of government, which would extend its powers into the regulation of every function of society, whether political, religious, or economical. . . . The Court made at once a fruitless attempt to regulate the price of labor. Carpenters, joiners, bricklayers, sawyers, and thatchers were limited to two shillings per day. If any one paid more or received more, he was to be fined ten shillings. Sawyers could take 4s. 6d. for one hundred feet of boards, at 'six score to ye hundred,' if the wood is felled and squared for them; one shilling extra if they fell and square their own timber. Again, master carpenters, masons, joiners, bricklayers, were limited to sixteen pence per day, and the 'second sort' at twelve pence; at these prices board was furnished. These regulations lasted about six months and were repealed."—W. B. Weedon, *Economic and social history of New England*, v. 1, pp. 97-99.

1793-1798.—French Revolution.—Law of the maximum.—"Of particular interest is the . . . experience with maximum prices which France underwent at the close of the eighteenth century. The first law establishing a maximum passed on May 3, 1793. It was one of the extraordinary measures adopted by the Committee of Public Safety, along with a progressive tax on the rich and forced loans. Spurious decrees of the National Assembly, ordering the people not to pay more than one sou for a pound of bread, were circulated as early as March and April, 1790. The May law was passed in order to curb speculation and profiteering, as well as to assure comfort to the poor. The Committee promulgated it under the pressure of public opinion. The necessity for passing such a law of maximum had been hinted at by Saint Just in the latter part of 1792. As a result of over issue of paper money and the blockade, an intolerable economic situation gripped the country and led to widespread dissatisfaction; many petitions had been presented to the government, requesting it to take some definite action in order to stop the rapid rise in prices. The decree of May, 1793, applied to grain and flour, and it provided that in each department the price should be the average of local

market prices which prevailed from January to May. It was made a penal offense for the farmers to distinguish between payments in assignats and in coin. Thanks to an abundant harvest, the proletariat of the cities was in a measure supplied with bread, but the difficulties grew from day to day; farmers were inclined to keep their grain away from the markets, and in several departments the enforcement of the law was abandoned by the close of August, 1798, it being generally recognized that this first experiment with the maximum was a failure. Popular uprisings were taking place in different parts of France. [See FRANCE: 1795 (April).] In Saint Etienne-en-Forez the people killed one of the monopolists and appointed a new municipality, which was compelled to lower the price of bread; but thereupon the middle classes armed themselves and arrested many of the rebels. The Paris Commune was paying to the holders of wheat high prices at the expense of the state. To obtain bread at the low price, people were compelled to stand in a long line for hours, often through the night, at the baker's door. When it came to the reconsideration of the May measure, the Girondins declared themselves as opposed to any price fixing scheme, but their opposition was swept aside by the Montagne [the Mountain] party, who considered that the salvation lay not in the retraction of the measure but in its expansion, so that it should include all primary necessities. The extremists (Varlet, Jacques Roux) were agitating for the communalization and nationalization of all commerce, and for the organization of an exchange of all goods at cost price. On September 11, 1793, a plan was adopted of fixing a uniform price for commodities for the whole country making allowances for the cost of transportation. This plan was soon abandoned and the law of September 29 promulgated, decreeing that prices should be local prices of 1790, plus one-third. This system also proved unworkable, and on November 1 the convention decided that prices should be based upon those of 1790 at the place of production. To these prices were to be added one-third plus a rate per league for carriage and five per cent for the wholesaler and ten per cent for the retailer. Public authorities had a right to compel farmers to bring grain to the market, where it could be bought at the maximum price. A study of the situation shows that by means of such commandeering or requisitioning, French cities were kept provisioned with grain during the last half of 1793 and the larger part of 1794. It is obvious that such a system of force could be successful for but a short period. Commandeering of supplies was not conducive to keeping farmers at work, neither was the provision of the law setting definite margins to distributors conducive to their staying in business. The merchants had no interest in buying at the maximum in one place and transporting commodities to another when they were obliged to sell at the same price. Thus the accusation brought against farmers that their greed defeated the law was not wholly justified. Many of them after they brought their grain to market were not able to find any one willing to buy it. In criticizing the law of maximum, it is well, however, to remember that at the time of its promulgation the economic condition of France was most wretched. . . . Although proven untenable for any length of time, the maximum seems to have at least partially succeeded in alleviating the misery of the urban proletariat. It is true that food was scarce and of poor quality and that many unfortunate farmers and dealers who refused to put their goods on sale at legal prices

were dragged by *sans culottes* before the Revolutionary Tribunal and put to death, but it is difficult to say how many of them would have met a similar fate without the law and how far the infuriated mobs would have gone in their work of vengeance and destruction if no maximum was on the statute books. . . . One of the results of the maximum was the growth of contraband trade, which reached enormous proportions. Butter, eggs and meat, particularly, were peddled in small quantities by resellers, and it was practically impossible to control the prices charged by such persons, who made their way into alleys, to the doors of apartments and to the service entrances of the rich. The growth of the contraband trade was one of the contributing causes which made the law unpopular. With the defeat of the extremists in the convention the measure was doomed. It was repealed in December, 1794.—S. Litman, *Prices and price control in Great Britain and the United States during the World War*, pp. 7-10.

1914-1916.—Methods of price control during the World War.—In an interview with George Creel, Joseph E. Davis, a member of the federal trade commission and previously United States Commissioner of Corporations, gave the following summary of methods of price control in use during the World War: "Generally speaking, these government activities have been developed along five different lines. First, an attempt to fix by law the maximum price of articles. Germany took the lead in this method. [See FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1918: German food policy; Rationing in Germany.] France, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Russia, and Spain followed the German example, making provision that municipal authorities alone, or else in coöperation with the military authorities, might fix maximum prices. In Egypt this power was delegated to a commission. Denmark fixed by law a maximum price for flour. Turkey passed laws setting fixed prices for petroleum, sugar, and flour. The home secretary of the British Government met with representatives of retail federations, and a standing committee was appointed to advise as to the maximum retail prices of food-stuffs. Bulgaria empowered municipalities to place maximum prices on all table and other living necessities. The difficulties entailed in such a scheme are of course the great diversity of conditions in different localities and the tremendous detail in administration to compel performance. Second, the direct entrance of the government into the business of producing in order to provide competition and to control prices in some degree. Certain of the states of Australia and New Zealand have engaged in the baking of bread, the slaughtering of cattle, and the furnishing of meats to their respective communities. Great success is claimed for this method. Third, government control of the processes of distribution by way of eliminating the profits of the middlemen. Great Britain bought large quantities of meat and sugar . . . for direct sale to the consumer. By royal decree Italian officials were empowered to acquire foods of which there was a scarcity either by requisitioning the foods or the factories in which they were produced. The Dutch Government took possession of the whole stock of wheat and handled its distribution. Switzerland ground and sold rye flour. Germany and Australia authorized the regulation of food supplies, providing for government seizure, and sale at fair prices. France took similar action. Fourth, tariffs and embargoes. Denmark, Great Britain, Egypt, Italy, Russia, Spain, and Turkey have removed all customs duties on

certain food-stuffs and have passed an embargo on other exports. Holland refuses to let butter and cheese go out of the country, and Norway and Sweden also adopted limited embargoes. Fifth, the Canadian method. On November 10, 1916, the Dominion Government entered an order in council that struck at the root of the artificial conditions that jump prices. It provides that no persons shall combine or conspire to limit the production or distribution, or to enhance the price, of any necessity of life, also that no person shall accumulate, or withhold from sale, any necessity of life beyond that required for the consumption of his own household or that the ordinary uses of his business require. If such business is a commission business, only so much can be stored as may reasonably be required, and the excess must be sold at prices that are fair and just. The minister of labor is empowered to procure from all cold-storage, packing, or similar plants full information with reference to quantities held therein, for whom held, and the prices paid therefor. Each municipality is clothed with power similarly to investigate any local combinations or conditions affecting prices, and it is up to the attorney-general to prosecute. Violation of the act is a felony."—G. Creel, *Can a democratic government control prices?* (Century Magazine, Feb., 1917).

1914-1918. — World War. — Great Britain. — "After the declaration of war there was a sudden and rapid rise in prices of necessities, particularly of foodstuffs. The reasons for this rise may be summarized as follows: (1) With the mobilization of the British army and navy large governmental orders had to be immediately filled. (2) Many householders with cash at their command rushed to the stores and began laying in supplies for weeks, sometimes for months in advance of their actual needs. . . . Some dealers took advantage of conditions to realize as much as possible on the merchandise which they had on hand. The situation was aggravated by a temporary disorganization of shipping and by the use of railway facilities for war purposes; this made it difficult for dealers to get new supplies in order to keep up stocks. Poorer classes of the population who could purchase only from day to day as they needed the commodity were thus placed in an extremely difficult position. That the rise in prices was due largely to a panic and that it was not warranted by the conditions existent at the time, is apparent from the fact that the English and Scottish cooperative wholesale societies after a study of the situation sent out reassuring messages to all their local store committees; they advised them not to raise prices, but to restrict sales to individuals in accordance with their previous average rate of purchases. After the most urgent needs of the government, as well as the demands of selfish, thoughtless or overprudent private buyers were satisfied, prices receded from their high levels. It was soon recognized that there was enough food in stock or in store for some time to come. . . . When the panic was at its height, the government, in response to an urgent demand for some immediate action, made an interesting attempt to influence prices without taking upon itself the responsibility of fixing them. On August 5, 1914, a Cabinet committee on food supplies, under the chairmanship of the Home Secretary, met 'the representatives of certain great companies owning 3,000 distributing shops and grocers' federation owning 14,000 shops. It was decided that a standing committee should be formed to advise as to maximum retail prices for staple articles of food. These prices were not

compulsory, but represented the opinion of experts, acting under governmental sanction, as to what purchasers might reasonably regard as the highest figures they ought to pay. The first list of prices was issued August 7, to be effective through the 10th. These prices gave rise to complaint that the committee was acting in the interest of dealers rather than of purchasers.' . . . The committee continued to issue price lists for about three weeks, by which time prices had become fairly stable, though at a higher level than that prevailing in July. The issue of price lists for meat was resumed early in 1915. On August 10, 1914, the presidents of the Board of Trade and the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries met a number of representative millers to discuss the price of flour, and it was arranged to have a standing committee of the millers to confer with the government from time to time. A conference was also held with representatives of the Meat Traders' Association. The prices of flour were fixed August 17, 1914, by an agreement between the President of the Board of Trade and the millers' committee. A weapon to protect the public from hoarding and from corners in food-stuffs, was provided by the passage on August 10, 1914, of the 'Unreasonable Withholding of Food Supplies Act' (4 and 5 Geo. V, ch. 51). The Act was repealed by the Articles of Commerce Act, which became law on August 28, 1914 (4 and 5 Geo. V, ch. 65). This latter act, similar in nature to the first one, authorized the Board of Trade, if authorized by proclamation, to take possession of any articles of commerce unreasonably withheld, upon payment of a reasonable price determined by agreement with the owners or by the arbitration of a judge selected by the Lord Chief Justice. By a proclamation of September 17, 1914 (No. 1403) the Board of Trade was given authority to exercise the power described in this act with respect to 'any article of commerce.' . . . Among other steps taken by the government on the outbreak of the war was the setting up of a Cabinet Committee on Food Supplies. Returns of stocks of all foodstuffs in the country were obtained, and arrangements made for the periodical collection of this information. Soon after the outbreak of the war export of foods was prohibited except under license. A similar action was taken a couple of months later with regard to feeding stuffs for animals. . . . Among the other early steps taken by the government in connection with the control of food were the appointment of the Royal Sugar Commission and the establishment of agencies entrusted with the purchase, shipment, storage and distribution of meat, wheat and flour. Excepting these measures, the government, during the first two years of war, followed largely the plan of not interfering with production, distribution and prices of foods. Toward the end of 1916 the poor harvests in North America, South America and Europe, the increasing shortage of tonnage due to commandeering by the government and losses by submarines, the growing discontent of the people with what they considered government negligence, the rapidly expanding indebtedness and the necessity to pay high prices for all that the government was buying, the inability to forecast how long the war would last and the certainty that if it lasted much longer Great Britain would experience great difficulties in bringing food into the country, all influenced the government to change its policy for that of strict measures of control. Accordingly, on November 16, December 5, and December 22, 1916, Orders in Council were issued which . . . gave the Board of Trade wide powers to control any 'articles of commerce, the maintenance of which is

important as being part of the food supplies of the country, or as being necessary for the wants of the public.' . . . The *Board of Trade Journal* of December 14, 1916, speaks of the appointment of Lord Devenport as Food Controller. Upon him fell the responsibility of administering the new regulations adopted for the purpose of controlling supplies and prices of food. For a short time after his appointment the Food Controller was dependent upon the Board of Trade for the issuance of orders; he lacked the necessary authority, arrangements not having been completed for the transfer to him of the powers of the Board of Trade. This was done on December 22, 1916, when the New Ministries and Secretaries Act (6 and 7 Geo. V, ch. 687) was passed. The act authorized the King for the purpose of economizing and maintaining the food supply of the country to appoint a Food Controller, the latter to 'hold office during His Majesty's pleasure.' Upon the Food Controller [was] . . . placed the duty to regulate the supply and consumption of food as well as to encourage its production. . . . The new regulations . . . gave the Controller large discretionary powers with respect to the issue of orders regulating the production, manufacture, treatment, storage, distribution, supply, sale or purchase of any article (including orders as to maximum and minimum prices). . . . There does not seem to have been any definite rule of conduct, any thought out plan of action in what Lord Devenport did during his tenure of office in the first part of 1917. Order after order was promulgated, only to be amended and hastily reamended. . . . [He] resigned because of ill health in the latter part of May, 1917, and Lord Rhondda was appointed Food Controller in his stead. Whatever may be one's opinions regarding price fixing, one must admit that Lord Rhondda's handling of the problem from the very first day of his appointment was much more careful, thorough and systematic than that of his predecessor. His idea was to fix prices of those articles of prime necessity over the supply of which he could obtain effective control at all stages from the producer down to the retailer; in this determination of prices he followed as far as possible the principle of allowing a reasonable pre-war profit for those engaged in the production and distribution. Issuing one order after another, Lord Rhondda gradually tightened his grip on business, and established a far reaching and rigid supervision of all food articles; the work of manufacturers and merchants became regulated, maximum prices were established and for certain products (sugar, meat) rationing cards were issued. . . . Arrangements [were made] as rapidly as possible for securing control of all imports of food-stuffs in cooperation with the American and Canadian food controllers. An Order in Council, dated June 28 [1917], amended the Defense of the Realm Regulations. Among other amendments, it conferred on the Food Controller the same powers as were previously granted to the Admiralty, Army Council and Ministry of Munitions regarding the requisitioning of goods and the controlling of prices. This amendment gave Lord Rhondda the authority to requisition the whole or part of the output of any factory and to pay a price based on the cost of production, with an addition of a pre-war rate of profit, without regard to the price ruling on the market. . . . Lord Rhondda's decentralization scheme led to the passage, on August 22, 1917, of the Food Control Committees Order, 1917 (No. 869). This order requested local authorities to appoint food control committees, whose functions would be to administer a new scheme of sugar

distribution, to continue the campaign for food economy, to deal with other food supplies such as bread and meat, and to assume special responsibilities with regard to food prices. The appointment of food control committees was a step towards decentralization preparatory to the fixing of a general scale of prices on many necessary food-stuffs. The committees were entrusted with the enforcement of this scale; they were also asked to advise on any modification of it that may be shown to be necessary in their districts."—S. Litman, *Prices and price control in Great Britain and the United States during the World War*, pp. 104-112. —See also FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1918: Legislative enactments in Great Britain.

1917-1919.—Price fixing committee in the United States.—Coal prices.—Licensing system.—Australian and Canadian measures.—One "exceedingly important branch of the work of the War Industries Board was that of determining the prices that should be paid for commodities the inadequate supply of which prevented the adjustment of prices upon a fair basis through the working of competitive forces. This work was performed by a Price Fixing Committee, composed of Robert S. Brookings as Chairman, Bernard M. Baruch, Chairman of the War Industries Board, W. B. Colver, Chairman of the Federal Trade Commission, F. W. Taussig, Chairman of the Tariff Commission, H. A. Garfield, Fuel Administrator, Hugh Frayne, representing labor, War Industries Board, Lieutenant-Colonel Robt. H. Montgomery, representing the Army, Commander John M. Hancock, representing the Navy, and former Governor Henry C. Stuart of Virginia, representing agriculture. . . . One important class of commodities after another was taken up for consideration and the basic prices were determined and submitted to the President for approval. Among the articles the prices of which were thus fixed were iron and steel products, wool, foreign and domestic hides, aluminum, domestic manganese ores, retail prices for certain classes of lumber, sulphuric and nitric acid, copper, hemp, and Portland cement, and wholesale prices for certain dry goods. In general, the Committee did not seek to fix retail prices. Its work was limited to the fixing of prices of raw materials and in the wholesale trade and, on the basis of these, the working out of differential prices. In many cases the prices fixed were the result of a formal agreement entered into between the Committee and associations representing the trades affected. The Council of National Defense . . . early in May, 1917, appointed a Committee on Coal Production with Francis S. Peabody as Chairman. This Committee at a conference with coal operators held in Washington June 28, 1917, at which members of the Council of National Defense and the Federal Trade Commission were present, reached an agreement fixing the price at which bituminous coal should be furnished at \$3 a ton. This agreement was immediately repudiated by the Secretary of War, who, as Chairman of the Council of National Defense, wrote under date of June 30, 1917, to the Director of the Council calling attention to the fact that the Council was a purely advisory body and as such had no power to fix prices or to perform any other act of an administrative character, and stating that in his opinion the price agreed upon was 'exorbitant, unjust and oppressive.' . . . By executive order of August 21, 1917, the price of bituminous coal at the mine was provisionally fixed in each of the coal districts of the United States. This was followed by an order issued on the same day that the Fuel Administration was created, August 23, 1917,

fixing provisionally the price of anthracite coal and jobbers' margins. The matter of fixing the price of coal to consumers was, by an order of the Fuel Administrator of September 7, 1917, turned over to the local fuel administrators and coal committees, provision for the creation of which was made by this order. . . . The price of coke was fixed by orders issued on November 9, 17, and 24, 1917. In fixing prices the Fuel Administration proceeded upon the principle of first fixing the price of coal at the mine as determined by the cost of production plus a fair profit and then of determining the additions or margins that should be permitted to jobbers, wholesalers, and retailers in order to meet their costs and give them a reasonable profit. In determining the cost of production of coal at the mine the Fuel Administration availed itself of the large volume of data that had lately been collected and compiled by the Federal Trade Commission, and also made use currently of the services of the large staff of cost accountants and other experts of that body. The Federal Trade Commission in fact constituted the technical agent of the Fuel Administration in the performance of this important part of its duties. Another feature of the policy in respect to price fixing was that of immediately fixing prices according to the best information available and then permitting appeal for rehearing when claim was made that injustice was done by such prices. Although it was not until August 10, 1917, that the Food Administration was established on a definite legal basis, Mr. Hoover as early as May 19, 1917, had been requested by the President to act as Food Administrator for the purpose of doing what he could under then existing laws to mobilize the food resources of the country for war purposes. . . . Although much could be, and was, done in the way of increasing production, on the one hand, and restraining consumption, on the other, the fact still remained that the supply of certain classes of food products was inadequate to meet all demands. This being so, it became necessary for the Food Administration to take action that would prevent the prices of these articles being run up to excessive figures and insure that the supply that was available should be properly distributed. The basis for a system of control that would accomplish these purposes was laid in the establishment of a licensing system that was gradually extended until it included almost all classes of dealers and agents handling food products. In accordance with the provisions of the law this system was established through proclamations issued by the President. . . . The establishment of the license system was . . . the first step in the establishment of control by the Food Administration. This act was followed by the formulation and promulgation of the conditions to be observed by each class of food importers, manufacturers, storage men, or dealers. These regulations were in all cases worked out so far as possible in conference with representatives of the interests affected. . . . An important feature of this licensing system was the establishment, through the rules and regulations governing the issue of licenses, of a control over profits. Although no power was granted to the President except in the case of wheat, . . . to fix prices directly, he was given authority to prevent the making of excessive profits and thus indirectly to regulate prices. . . . The exercise of this power the President by executive order of November 27, 1917, vested in the Food Administrator. . . . Although the cost of food products to the consumer increased greatly during the war, the rise was due primarily to increased cost of production and cost in transporting and handling these articles, and only in small part to unwarranted profi-

teering on the part of food producers, manufacturers, and dealers. It can hardly be doubted that had this control not been exercised, prices would have advanced far more than they did and that profiteering would have been rampant. The Food Administration, however, came close to fixing the price of food products to consumers, through the inauguration in June, 1918, of a plan by which standardized 'fair price lists' were to be prepared periodically by local boards or committees composed of representatives of the wholesalers, retailers, and consumers in each community, which lists were to be posted by all dealers where they could be easily seen by their customers. . . . This system worked with great efficiency. It did not keep down rising prices, but it did insure equality of treatment of dealers and consumers and undoubtedly prevented excessive charges and profits by dealers inclined to make all they could out of the public needs. . . . So acute was the situation in regard to the supply of wheat at the time the Food and Fuel Control Act was passed, that Congress wrote into the Act provisions conferring extraordinary powers upon the President to promote the production and to control the distribution of this commodity. . . . On August 30, 1917, the President announced that he had fixed a basic price of \$2.20 a bushel for standard wheat at Chicago, the prices of other grades and at other markets being adjusted to this basic price. . . . On February 25, 1918, the President announced that this price had been continued for the 1918 harvest with no essential alteration, and a similar announcement was made on September 2, 1918, in respect to the 1919 harvest. . . . On August 14, 1917, the President . . . issued an executive order directing the organization of a corporation, under the laws of the State of Delaware, to be known as the Food Administration Grain Corporation, to engage in this work of buying, storing, transporting, and selling grain. On the same day the incorporation of the Corporation was affected. . . . It is hardly necessary to say that with the signing of the armistice the need for rigid control over the distribution and consumption of food products in the United States largely passed away, with the result that the Food Administration at once entered upon the work of cancelling the restrictions in force. On February 25 [1919], the Secretary of Commerce announced that, having secured the approval of the President, he had created an Industrial Board of the Department of Commerce whose duty it would be 'to put into practical effect a programme for the readjustment of prices for basic materials in such a fashion as to create a firm foundation on which the consumer can base his future purchases. . . . This Board at once entered upon the performance of its duties and on March 22, 1919, was able to announce that, as a result of conferences held with Judge Elbert H. Gary of the United States Steel Corporation and other large producers of iron and steel, a schedule of prices for iron and steel products had been agreed upon which represented a reduction from existing prices and was one to which iron and steel producers were willing to adhere. To the surprise of the public Walker D. Hines, the Director-General of Railroads, almost immediately announced that in making his purchases of steel rails and other iron and steel products he did not consider himself bound by the schedule of prices that had been agreed upon. . . . This attitude on the part of the Railroad Administration not only defeated the attempt of the Industrial Board to fix iron and steel prices, but discredited the entire effort to stabilize prices through a Government agency working in connection with

the voluntary cooperation of producers. As a result the Secretary of Commerce a few days after the stand of the Railroad Administration was made known announced the dissolution of the Board and the abandonment of the undertaking. Immediately afterwards publicity was given to an opinion of the Attorney-General declaring that the attempted action of the Board was illegal as being in violation of the Sherman Act and statutes regulating the purchase of supplies by Government agencies."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 110, 112-113, 295, 303, 305, 269, 273, 277-285, 290, 118-120.—See also FOOD REGULATION: 1917-1918: Food control in the United States.—"An act passed in Victoria (Australia) on 30th December 1919 contains measures to restrict excessive profits and to regulate the trade in food-stuffs. A special board is appointed for this purpose to be known as the Fair Profit Board which will examine all complaints submitted to it by consumers as to excessive profits made by producers or traders. Should the Board deem, after enquiry, that said profits are really excessive it may fix prices such as to ensure a fair profit and require the seller to return to the plaintiff any amount received over and above said sum. . . . Two Canadian laws of 7th July, 1919, aim at preventing excessive prices being charged for necessary commodities. The first enacts measures for preventing industrial and trade combinations and lays down rules to be observed in fixing fair prices; the second establishes a committee whose duty it is to enforce these measures."—*International Year Book of Agricultural Legislation*, 1919, v. 9, pp. xxii-xxiii.

1919-1920.—Post-war legislation.—"A French law of the 6th May 1919 requires all cultivators to declare to their respective communal officers, before the 15th June 1919, the area of land sown with cereals. A Swiss law of the 27th May 1919 enacts that on the 10th July 1919 a general Census of land under cereals, fruits, hoed plants, vegetables and industrial plants shall be taken. . . . A British act of 19th August 1919 contains measures to control the excessive rise in prices. The Minister of Labor is authorised to make enquiries into prices, cost and profits of all producers and middlemen. Should such an enquiry convince the Minister that certain profits are excessive the producer or middleman making such profits may be brought before a magistrate who may sentence him to fine or imprisonment as the case may be. An Italian law No. 1349 of the 30th Sept. 1920 contains provisions against excessive rise in prices. The law provides heavy penalties for producers and traders who succeed in any way in interfering with or preventing free competition in the sale of raw material and food stuffs. The law also provides that in every capital of a Province, the Prefect shall set up an arbitration commission, with power to receive all claims relating to unjust or excessive prices, placed on food stuffs or articles of primary necessity; to enquire into the general level of prices; to make suitable proposals to the responsible Prefect regarding limitation of the number of shops for the sale of general and current goods should such be necessary to insure the better and more economical distribution of same. . . . A law of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland of 23rd December 1920 (*Agricultural Acts*, 1920) contains various provisions intended to insure the intensification of agricultural production in the country. . . . The first part of the law provides in the first instance for the continuance in force of the law of 1917 on the production of cereals; it goes on to lay down that there must be a fixed minimum price for cereals; on the basis of information furnished

by the Board of Agriculture, by the Board of Agriculture for Scotland, and by the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction in Ireland. In the first part, the Board has also power to impose on proprietors and tenants of land the execution of the necessary work to insure a larger agricultural production, if the land in question is not cultivated in accordance with the rules of rural economy, or if the food stuffs produced by said land might be considerably increased. . . . A law of Ontario (Canada) of 4th June 1920 gives power to the Municipal authorities to grant authority for the occupation of land available for cultivation, for a period not greater than the current year, for the purpose of cultivation, and on conditions which shall be set up by said authorities from time to time. An Italian decree of 22nd April 1920 . . . sets up that applications to occupy insufficiently cultivated land must be presented to special arbitration committees, constituted in the various provinces. On the advice of these committees the Prefects will take steps for the requisition of land and for its renting to groups of cultivators who give serious promise of being able to insure adequate cultivation of said land."—*International Year Book of Agricultural Legislation*, 1920, v. 10, pp. xviif, xxii.—See also FOOD REGULATION: 1918-1920.

See also INDEX NUMBERS.

PRIDEAUX, John (1718-1759), British general. See CANADA: 1759 (July-August).

PRIDE'S PURGE, forcible expulsion of all members of the House of Commons, December 6, 1648, who favored a compromise with the Royalists. See ENGLAND: 1648 (November-December).

PRIESTHOOD: Derivation of term.—Definition.—The word priest comes to us from the Greek *πρεσβύτερος*, the elder. "A priest is a person commissioned by the community or its head to conduct the sacrificial service and related services connected with shrines. Such a person differs in two respects from the religious official of the simplest times, the magician (shaman, or medicine man): the latter acts in his own name and by his own authority, and the methods he employs are magical—they are based on the belief that the supernatural Powers are subject to law and may be controlled by one who knows this law; the priest acts in the name and by the authority of the community, and his methods are dictated by the friendly social relation existing between the community and the Powers. He differs, further, from those religious ministrants (chiefs of clans, fathers of families, and other prominent men) who acted by virtue of their social or political positions in that his functions are solely religious and are in that regard distinct from his civil position. He represents a differentiation of functions in an orderly nonmagical religious society. Such an office can arise only under a tolerably well-organized civil government and a fairly well-defined sacrificial ritual. It is doubtless a slow growth, and there may be, in a community, a period of transition from one grade of religious ministers to another when the distinction between the priest and the magician or between the priest and the headman is hardly recognizable; the distinction comes, however, to be well marked, and then indicates an important turning-point in religious history. It may be, also, that at certain times under certain circumstances the civil ruler may have priestly functions or the priest may exercise civil authority; but these exceptional cases do not affect the specific character of the sacerdotal office."—C. H. Toy, *Introduction to the history of religions*, pp. 512-513.—By the term priest, in Catholic opinion, is meant a man called to the service of the Deity, and

authorized to hold public worship and to offer sacrifice. Often the priest is regarded as the religious mediator between God and man, or as a teacher of religious truths.

Among primitive peoples.—"The original priest or spiritual authority was, according to circumstances, an oracle, a diviner, a singer (of incantations, *carmen* means a charm), or a leech, sometimes combining these functions. In many savage religions he was first of all a dancer and as such was recognized as a diviner or oracle. Another common function was that of making fine weather; a priest who could not do this was discredited; a good priest was supposed to be influential with the powers that give rain. In all these cases, the priest was recognized as an intermediary between human and spiritual powers, sometimes to tell what spirits know, sometimes to influence the spirits. Again, the keeper of a holy place or guardian of religious relics might become director of ritual and so take upon himself a priestly office. But usually among primitive peoples the priest is accepted as such only in consequence of some special individual faculty or inherited power or as the recipient of spiritual blessings. A savage priest must prove by ecstatic and hysterical speech and action that he is inspired; he dances himself into a frenzy, ejaculates meaningless syllables; or he effects cures or foretells events or sees what is unknown to other people (discovers crimes, etc.). Among American and African tribes a dream may reveal a chosen man as priest; he becomes one of the elect. In both countries also the practice was known of forming priests from boyhood; they were regularly trained for the priesthood. Often in the higher religions, and occasionally in the lower, the office of priest was hereditary and the priesthood was kept in a caste, which controlled religious matters. Yet this control, even in India where the priestly caste had charge of all public religious services, was still retained in domestic rites by the family head. Such a family head might become head of a clan and yet officiate in religious matters, so that in many races we find a sort of rivalry between chief and priest, each of whom is guardian of religion."—E. W. Hopkins, *Origin and evolution of religion*, pp. 204-205.

Pagan priesthood.—Development in religions of India.—**Tibetan system.**—The oldest and the most fully developed of the pagan religions are found in India. The leading divisions of the religions in that country comprise; Vedism, Brahmanism, and Hinduism. In Vedism, there were three classes of priests, for sacrificing, singing, and praying. In Brahmanism, "as the letter usurped authority over the spirit, and the due observance of the rites of religion became of more importance than the moral character and life of the worshipper, there arose an order of men whose business it was to master the letter of the religious law, and to be able for themselves and for others efficiently and faultlessly to conduct its ritual and sacrifice. It will readily be seen how such a class would tend to advance into the possession of exclusive rights and privileges. In their hands was the practical control not only of the destiny of a man after death, but also of his well-being in the present life. They wielded all the terrors of divine threatened vengeance for the nonfulfilment of religious obligations. An unlearned and ignorant man could not so sacrifice as to be well-pleasing to heaven. If he did not sacrifice, or if he erred in his sacrifice, the gods would assuredly visit him with pains and penalties, both temporal and eternal. He must therefore employ a member of the learned enlightened class to perform the sacrifice in his name and stead. There is abundant evidence to prove that

it was by these or similar means that the great caste of the Brahmans gained in India its unique ascendancy and sacred inviolable character. Originally a hereditary priesthood, set apart for the study of the sacred books and the due performance of religious rites and ceremonies, the members of this caste used the spiritual influence and authority thus placed in their hands as a stepping-stone to temporal dignity and power. . . . The most characteristic external feature of Buddhism was the *Sangha*, or Order of Monks, which, modified and controlled by circumstances and by the disposition and habits of the people, has maintained itself in a more or less distinct form in every country in which the Buddhist faith has taken root. . . . The *Sangha* also formed with the Buddha himself and the Dharma or sacred Law a kind of Buddhist triad, sculptured representations of which have been found, whereon the *Sangha* is depicted as a man holding a lotus, the symbol of perfection and purity. This triad is the familiar Buddhist *triratna*, the 'three jewels,' or 'three honoured ones.' . . . The members of the *Sangha* were termed *Bhikshus* or beggars; a name that amongst the Brahmans was already employed technically to denote one who had entered upon the fourth *asrama* or period of life, and was dependent entirely upon alms. . . . By the side of the monks was established an order of nuns, or *Bhikshunis*; the foundation of which, although carried back by tradition to Gautama himself, must probably be ascribed to a later age. Outside of both was the community of laymen. Thus the whole ecclesiastical system existed for and was subservient to the monk. . . . The most wealthy Buddhist communities are found in Tibet, where the monasteries are in possession of great wealth. . . . That the striking resemblance of Tibetan ritual, with its altars, processions and incense, to the forms of the Roman Catholic and Greek churches, is due to early Nestorian missionaries, is now generally recognised. . . . The monks in Tibet bear the name of *Lamas*, 'lofty' or 'superior ones.' It is said that from 12 to 20 per cent. of the population are members of a monastic order. The highest *Lamas* are believed to be incarnations of the Buddha himself; and on the death of one of these his spirit enters into some little child, who is then sought out, and brought to the monastery with much pomp and ceremony. There are two chief or 'Grand' *Lamas*."—A. S. Geden, *Studies in eastern religions*, pp. 77-78, 308-310, 315-317.—See also *LAMAS, LAMAISM*.—"Ritual propriety was a dominant idea in India, and the influence of the priesthood on the religious life of the people was correspondingly great. Priests did not attempt to interfere in the civil government, but their religious instruction may sometimes have affected the policy of civil rulers. On the other hand, the Hindu priesthood, by its poetical productions and its metaphysical construction, has become a permanent influence in the world. . . . [Among the kindred religions of the Iranians there was always a special priestly caste.] The early (pre-Zoroastrian) history of the Mazdean priesthood is obscure. In the Avestan system, however, a great rôle is assigned the priests, as is evident from the vast number of regulations concerning ceremonial purity, of which they had charge. It does not appear that the early sacerdotal organization was elaborate or strict. There were various classes of ministrants at every shrine, but they differed apparently rather in the nature of their functions than in rank."—C. H. Toy, *Introduction to the history of religions*, p. 523.—"Under the Achæmenians the Magi, originally a Median tribe, gradually attained power through royal patronage and

became the priests of Zoroastrianism. It was probably due to their influence that during the closing decades of the Achaemenian Dynasty the Avesta was completed by the addition of the Yashts and the Vendidad. By these additions the ethical system of Zoroaster was grafted into a mass of nature-myths and ritual with which it originally had little in common. The ritual is as arid as that connected with any Semitic religion."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world*, p. 129.—See also MAGIANS; ZOROASTRIANS.

In Greece and Rome.—"The Greek priestly class had the democratic tone of the Greek people. There was little general organization: every priest was attached to a particular deity except the Athenian King Archon, who had charge of certain public religious ceremonies. The mutual independence of the Greek States made the creation of a Hellenic sacerdotal head impossible. In Sparta the priestly prerogatives of the king were long maintained; usually, however, there was a separation of civil and religious functions. Generally in Greece priests were chosen by lot, or were elected by the priestly bodies or by the people, or were appointed by kings or generals. They were usually taken from good families, were held in honor, and were housed and fed at the public expense (their food came largely from sacrificial offerings). It was required that they should be citizens of the place where they officiated, and should be pure in body and of good conduct. They seem to have been simply citizens set apart to conduct religious ceremonies, and their influence on the general life was probably less than that of civil officers, poets, and philosophers. Greek educated thought moved at a relatively early period from the conventional religious forms toward philosophical conceptions of the relations between the divine and the human. The minute details of the Roman ritual might seem to give great importance to priests; and the flamens (the ministers of particular deities) were of course indispensable in certain sacrifices. But the organization of Roman society was not favorable to the development of specifically sacerdotal influence. Religion was a department of State and family government. For the manifold events of family life there were appropriate deities whose worship was conducted by the father of the family. The title *rex* (like the Greek *Basileus*), in some cases given to priests, was a survival from the time when kings performed priestly functions. Later the consul was sometimes the conductor of public religious ceremonies. There was hardly a religious office, except that of the flamens, that might not be filled by a civilian. In the Augustan revival membership in the College of the Arval Brothers was sought by distinguished citizens. It was thought desirable that the Pontifex Maximus, the most influential of the priests, should be a jurist; and the office was held by such men as Julius Caesar and Augustus. The increase of temples and priests by Augustus did not materially change the religious condition. The adoption of foreign cults was accompanied by ideas that did not belong to the Roman religion proper. In general, if we except the augurs, who represent the lowest form of the sacerdotal office, the priest was relatively unimportant in Rome."—C. H. Toy, *Introduction to the history of religions*, pp. 523-524.—See also AUGURS.

Among the Germans and Celts.—"The most venerated priests among the Celts were the Druids. . . . The Teutons had priests and priestesses, though there appears to have been no organized priesthood among them like that of the Druids among the Celts. The priesthood appears to have

been exercised by a sort of nobility. It exerted a powerful influence from the time of Tacitus onward. Customs varied in different localities. The goddess Nerthus had a male priest, while the god Freyr at Upsala was attended by a priestess."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world*, pp. 296, 308.—See also DRUIDS.

In China and Japan.—"The oldest religion of the Chinese, Sinism, a pure monotheism, possessed no real priesthood, and the reformer, Confucius, made no alteration in this respect. "Society, according to the Chinese view, is competent to manage relations with the supernatural Powers—it needs no special class of intermediaries. This thoroughgoing conception of civic autonomy in religion connects itself with the supreme stress laid on conduct in the Confucian system, which represents the final Chinese ideal of life: man constructs his own moral life, and extrahuman Powers, while they may grant physical goods, are chiefly valued as incidents in the good social life. The great speculative systems of thought, Confucianism [see CONFUCIANISM] and Taoism, gradually gave rise to definite sacerdotal cults; but the priests of the Confucian temples serve mainly to keep before the people the teaching of the Master, and the Taoist priests have become largely practitioners of magic and charlatans. Chinese religious practice remains essentially nonsacerdotal."—C. H. Toy, *Introduction to the history of religions*, p. 525.—The native religion of the Japanese is Shintoism, in which the Mikado is considered a son of the Deity, and as such is high priest.—See also JAPAN: Religions.

In Egypt.—A special priestly caste developed in Egypt as early as 3400 B.C. The priests "were exempt from taxes and had a public allowance of food; the temples at the capitals, Memphis and Thebes, became enormously wealthy; the priests exercised judicial functions (but under the control of the king); they cultivated astronomy and arithmetic, and controlled the general religious life of the people; as early as the thirteenth century B.C. they had attained a political power with which the kings had to reckon, and still earlier (ca. 1400 B.C.) the Theban priests were able to overthrow the religious reformation introduced by Amenhotep IV; the departments of sacerdotal functions were multiplied, and the high priest of the Theban Amon, whose office became hereditary, controlled the religious organization of the whole land, set himself up as a rival of the Pharaoh in dignity, and finally became the head of a sacerdotal theocracy."—C. H. Toy, *Introduction to the history of religions*, p. 521.—See also EGYPT: B.C. 1379; About B.C. 1200-670.

In Semitic religions (non-Jewish).—"The priesthood [in Babylonia] was divided into several classes with distinct functions; one class had to do particularly with the offerings; another intoned hymns or wailed lamentations; a third knew the rites and incantations by which evil spirits, especially the demons of disease, were exorcised and malicious magic thwarted, as well as the manifold purifications and piacula that went with them; while a fourth was expert in divination and the interpretation of omens and portents. All these, except perhaps the sacrificial priests, possessed their own collections of texts, and the last two, at least, had a highly elaborated traditional art to master. . . . While the gods . . . sank into obscurity, the arts of the Babylonian magicians and diviners were celebrated in all lands, and the adepts found new and lucrative fields for their practice in the West. Hoary antiquity, mystifying hocus-pocus, and elaborate pretence of method conspired to give these Chaldeans, or 'mathematicians,' or whatever

else they were called, a great vogue. Divination from astronomical phenomena, in particular, was an imposing pseudo-science, which formed the basis of astrology."—G. F. Moore, *History of religions*, v. 1, pp. 219, 239.—See also BABYLONIA: Early (Chaldean) monarchy.—Among the Syrians there was the voluptuous cult of Astarte, known as the "Syrian Goddess." Among the Phoenicians, Amonites, and Philistines too, Moloch and Astarte were worshipped; and their priests offered human sacrifices.

Priestless religions.—"More markedly unpriestly than the state religion of China, which eventually countenanced Confucian priests (teachers) and Taoist magicians, is Islam, which recognizes neither the priest nor the temple. Buddhism also did away with the priest as spiritual controller and with the priestly caste as ministrants of religion (not, however, as a social order): but it really replaced the priests with superior 'brethren,' who controlled the religious organization. . . . Practically also the monks became to the laity a special priestlike order and in some Buddhist sects there was formed a spiritual hierarchy of Patriarchs, which acted as intermediary between man and the spiritual powers of earth and air."—E. W. Hopkins, *Origin and evolution of religion*, p. 206.

Hebrew priesthood.—Levites.—Civil importance of high priest.—"In early times the assistance of a priest was not necessary to the offering of sacrifice. The most important function of the priesthood was divination, which they practised by means of a specific apparatus, apparently a form of divination by lot. They had also an expert knowledge of the rules of clean and unclean and of the appropriate purification and expiations. This knowledge, as well as the art of manipulating the oracle, was transmitted by tradition in certain families, but these families formed no exclusive caste, though at an early time 'Levite' priests—whether Levi by the name of a guild or a clan—were regarded as a superior kind. The ancient customs of Israel, which were under the sanction of religion, fell naturally into their province; they gave decisions on questions of customary law as well as of ritual. The priesthoods of such sanctuaries as Shiloh, Dan, Bethel, Gilgal, doubtless had much influence in shaping custom and making it uniform throughout the land, and in harmonizing and consolidating tradition. . . . At the head of the priesthood [in the age of the prophets] was a chief priest, whose importance was much greater than that of his predecessors in the days of the Judæan monarchy, because there was no king over him. The local governor, when a native, had only coördinate authority; and when, as commonly, a foreigner filled the office, the high priest was not only the religious head of his people but in many ways their political representative before the Persian administration. Like other Syrian high priests, he customarily wore the purple and the tiara of a ruler instead of sacerdotal vestments. The common priests were numerous; there were among them several families, without, so far as appears, a corresponding differentiation of function. The inferior ministry of the temple was performed by Levites, who, according to Ezekiel, were descendants of the old priests of the high places; there were also musicians and singers, guards, doorkeepers, and menial servants. The relations of these classes evidently changed in many ways in the course of the centuries; fortunately it is not necessary for our purpose to reconstruct this obscure history."—G. F. Moore, *History of religions*, v. 2, pp. 9, 39-40.

ALSO IN: H. P. Smith, *Priest, priesthood* (*Encyclopædia of religion and ethics*, v. 10, pp. 307-311).

Christian conceptions.—All the faithful as ministrants.—Second century rites.—Later elaboration.—In the early Christian church all of the faithful were conceived as priests, a "universal priesthood," as the doctrine was called. "The organization of the primitive societies of believers was very simple. There were missionaries ('apostles') who were sent out from the principal centres—Jerusalem or Antioch—to preach the gospel or visit other churches, sometimes taking helpers with them. The local societies were called 'assemblies' like the Jewish Synagogues. The affairs of the society were managed by the seniors (presbyters, elders), whether by the tacit recognition or choice of the community, or appointed by the missionaries. Paul's letter to the Philippians is addressed 'to all the saints (*āyloi*, initiates) in Christ Jesus who are in Philippi, with the overseers and helpers.' There were also prophets who spoke as they were inspired; but prophecy was an occasional gift, not an office. A more advanced stage of organisation is reflected in the instructions for missionaries in the Epistles to Timothy and to Titus, where the qualifications of overseers, and the duties of helpers, both men and women, especially in the administration of the charities of the churches, are defined. We learn that the elders were at the head of the community, and that some of them preached and taught in its gatherings; what the peculiar function of the overseers was, if indeed they are to be distinguished from the elders, we are not informed. The letters of Ignatius, bishop of Antioch, written early in the second century to churches in Asia Minor, show that each church was ruled by a single overseer (bishop), with a plurality of elders (presbyters) and helpers (deacons) under him. A society in which these three orders are not found, Ignatius says, is not called a church. . . . The main features of Christian worship were always the same, but in time the simple rites described by Justin in the middle of the second century were elaborated into a stately cultus. This tendency, inherent in all ritual, was greatly furthered by the influence of the Old Testament when the Christian clergy came to be regarded as succeeding to the place of the priesthood of the former dispensation. The gorgeous raiment of the high priest, the ceremonial vestments of the other priests, the solemn processions, the choirs of Levitical singers intoning psalms, the clouds of incense from swinging censers—all seemed a divine model of religious worship, which warranted the church in rivalling the pomp of the ancient cults. . . . The hierarchical organisation of the church is as old at least as the early second century; and the bishops, elders, and deacons of the New Testament had always been taken as the Apostolic institution of the three orders of the ministry till the exegesis of some of the humanists made bishops and presbyters the same order, an interpretation in which the reformed churches followed them. On these points, therefore, the council [of Trent 1545] stood fast in the Catholic tradition and gave it formal dogmatic authority. And it was here, over the church and the sacraments, rather than on points of theology or morals, that the real issue lay."—G. F. Moore, *History of religions*, pp. 140, 215-216, 348-349.

ALSO IN: G. Landtman, *Origin of priesthood*.—E. W. Hopkins, *Religions of India*.—W. Geiger, *Civilization of eastern Iranians in ancient times*.—J. H. Moulton, *Early Zoroastrianism*.—M. Jastrow, *Religions of Babylonia and Assyria*.—H. G. Wells,

Outline of history, v. 1.—J. H. Breasted, *History of Egypt*.—Idem, *Ancient records of Egypt*.—J. J. M. de Groot, *Religious system of China*.—W. E. Griffiths, *Religions of Japan*.—H. Hackman, *Buddhism as a religion*.—C. T. Newton, *Essays on art and archaeology*.—C. H. Moore, *Religious thought of the Greeks*.—W. Ridgeway, *Early age of Greece, v. 1*.—L. R. Farnell, *Cults of the Greek states*.—W. W. Fowler, *Roman festivals*.—Idem, *Religious experience of the Roman people*.—J. H. Kuntz, *Sacrificial worship of the Old Testament*.—A. Kuenan, *Religion of Israel*.—S. I. Curtis, *Levitical priests*.—A. Edersheim, *Temple: Its ministry and services at time of Jesus Christ*.—T. A. Joyce, *Mexican archaeology*.—J. G. Bourke, *Medicine men of the Apache*.—G. A. Barton, *Religion of the Celts and Teutons (Religions of the world, pp. 286-312)*.—J. A. MacCulloch, *Religion of the ancient Celts*.—C. de la Saussaye, *Religion of the Teutons*.—G. Hickes, *Treatises on Christian priesthood*.—W. Kelly, *Priesthood*.—T. T. Carter, *Doctrine of the priesthood of the Church of England*.—G. Pohle, *Priesthood (Catholic encyclopædia, v. 12)*.

PRIESTLEY, Joseph (1733-1804), English chemist. See **CHEMISTRY**: General: Phlogiston period.

PRIESTS' LANE, unsecularized prince bishoprics in Germany. See **GERMANY**: 1631-1632.

PRIEUR DE LA MARNE, Pierre Louis (1756-1827), French revolutionist. Member of the States-General and National Assembly; became vice president of the criminal tribunal of Paris, 1791; member of the Convention, 1792; member of the Committee of Public Safety, 1793; established the "terror" in Brittany; president of the Convention, 1794.

PRIEUR-DUVERNOIS, Claude Antoine, Comte (1763-1832), French revolutionist. Sent by the Côte d'Or to the legislative assembly, 1791, and to the Convention, 1792; member of the Committee of Public Safety in charge of munitions, 1793; contributed to the founding of the École Polytechnique and to the establishment of the metric system; one of the Council of Five Hundred under the Directory.

PRILEP (Turkish Perlepe), town of Macedonia, about twenty miles north of Monastir. As a result of the Balkan wars, 1912-1913, it was ceded by Turkey to Serbia. In the World War, it was taken by the Bulgarians in 1916, but the Allies recaptured it in 1918. See **TURKEY**: 1912-1913; **WORLD WAR**: 1916: V. Balkan theater: b, 1; 1918: V. Balkan theater: a.

PRIM, Juan, Marquis de los Castillejos, Count de Reus (1814-1870), Spanish soldier and statesman. See **SPAIN**: 1833-1846; 1854-1868; 1868-1873.

PRIMARIES IN THE UNITED STATES.—"Primaries or caucuses, are meetings of the party members to determine the candidates of the party, the delegates to the next higher party convention, and the party officials. Originally they were extra-legal meetings, unregulated by statute, and laws unto themselves."—E. Kimball, *National government of the United States*, pp. 119-120.

Differentiation from caucus. See **CAUCUS**: Application of term.

Old conditions.—Corrupt operation by powerful machine. See **CORRUPT AND ILLEGAL PRACTICES AT ELECTIONS**: United States.

State laws controlling parties.—Necessity for determining party membership.—"The first necessity in the nomination of candidates is to insure that Democratic voters do not take part in Republican primaries and *vice versa*, since they would seek to nominate the weakest possible candidates

to their opponents' ticket. Legislation to this effect is difficult because it is unfair to require a voter to reveal his party affiliations and thus destroy the secrecy of ballot; nor can anything in the nature of a party pledge be exacted in advance of election. Under the New York system enrolment on the party lists takes place at the same time as registration for the polls. When the voter appears before the Board of Registration, if he desires to take part in the next primaries, he must cause his name to be entered in the enrolment books. He then enters a booth and marks on a blank provided by the Board the party with whose principles he is 'in general sympathy' and whose nominees he intends 'to support generally.' No pledge is given, but he must declare that he has enrolled with no other party during that year. A week after the next election the enrolment blanks are opened, and the lists composed therefrom serve as the criterion of party membership at the ensuing primaries. The primaries themselves are held at dates varying with the importance of the offices to be filled at the coming election. Until the advent of direct primaries the vote at the primaries was always cast, not for party candidates, but for delegates to a nominating convention. On a day duly announced in the newspapers the voter went to the polls assigned to his party. If his name was found on the enrolment book, he was given one of each of the ballots which had been furnished by the Custodian of Primary Records, printed upon papers of distinctive colors. Entering a booth the voter selected the list of delegates he wished to support and folded it without a mark of any kind. This ballot was deposited in the ballot box, while the rest were placed in the box provided for waste ballots. Few voters realize the crucial importance of the primaries to a really liberal franchise. Regulation is of little value unless the honest citizens grasp the political bull by the horns by turning out in large numbers at the primaries."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes, v. 1*, pp. 275-277.

Also in: E. Kimball, *National government of the United States*, pp. 120-122.—F. W. Dallinger, *Nominations for elective office*.

Functions of primaries.—Selection of candidates for office, officials for party organizations, and delegates to higher party organizations.—"Primaries . . . are more than party meetings to nominate candidates for office. They are meetings for the selection of the officials of the party organizations. In precincts and wards and generally in cities the primaries have long been used for the purpose of choosing the members of the party committees. In larger political divisions the convention has generally been the place of choice. But . . . the convention was believed to be the field which the boss most firmly controlled. In the attempt to weaken this control and to democratize the party organization, the selection of the county and state committees in many states has been taken from the convention and given to the primaries. . . . The third duty of the primaries is to choose delegates to some higher party organization which is intrusted with the nomination of the party candidates, or, in the case of the nomination of the president, with the selection of delegates to the national nominating convention."—E. Kimball, *National government of the United States*, pp. 122-123.

Also in: F. A. Ogg, *National progress*, p. 157.

Origin of direct primary system.—Rapid progress.—"A brief outline of how direct nominations originated and how the system has been extended until it has been substituted for the con-

vention system by a majority of the American people furnishes a strong argument in its favor. It is an American system, and a product of the struggle of the American people for the control of their government. Direct primaries originated in Crawford County, Pennsylvania, where the so-called Crawford County System was established by action of a Republican County Committee in 1860 and has been in force ever since. On two occasions, the question of whether it should be retained was put before the Republican voters and overwhelmingly decided in the affirmative, the last of these votes being taken after the system had been in force for nineteen years. Its popularity led to its adoption throughout the entire Congressional district for all nominations. The Minnesota direct primary law for the city of Minneapolis, Hennepin County, was enacted in 1899. After it had been tried in the city for two years, public sentiment, because of the excellent results achieved under the new law in Minneapolis, insisted upon its being extended, and other localities were brought within its provisions. . . . The newspapers of Minneapolis all declared for it, and no man of prominence in the state took a stand against it after it had been tried in the city. Michigan adopted direct primaries in 1903 for use in Grand Rapids, Kent County. The result was the defeat for re-nomination of the Mayor under whose administration the so-called water scandal had developed. Two years later, candidates in Kent County were requested to go on record as to whether they favored a general direct primary law for the state. All who recorded their positions declared for such a law, and it was commonly reported in the newspapers that opposition to direct primaries would mean defeat for any candidate who took so unpopular a stand. Thereafter direct nominations spread rapidly through the middle western states. Mandatory laws were substituted for optional laws, and state-wide laws for laws applying to certain localities or offices."—*Citizens' Union of New York (pamphlet, 1909)*.—"So rapid was the progress of democratic opinion that before the movement toward reform of the old primaries and the convention had reached its height, direct nomination had been adopted in several states. Illinois, Iowa, and Pennsylvania passed almost abruptly from the unregulated convention system to direct primaries. Various forms of popular nomination existed in Pennsylvania in the 60's and in many states of the West and the South. The main factors in the spread of the institution were the growing tendency toward complete popular control and the disclosure in the 80's and 90's of gross scandals in the primaries and in party government. This zeal for purification and for responsible government which spread like wildfire during the Rooseveltian epoch, seized upon the direct primary as an agency to its purpose, and before 1917 it was in use in all but six of the states. The course of direct primary legislation has been similar to that of primary reform, already traced. An optional law for certain cities or counties was followed within a very few years by a mandatory, state-wide enactment. For example, North Dakota in 1905 established direct primaries for all but state offices, but in 1907 it passed a sweeping law covering practically all offices. In the Southern states the system has been adopted with very meager regulation. While therefore the genus of direct primary legislation is fundamentally the same throughout the country, the species differ widely in the method of nominating candidates, the majority required, the question of the preferential vote, the arrangement of

the ballot, and the drawing up of a platform."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 1, pp. 281-282.

Primary election law in New York. See NEW YORK: 1898.

Different methods.—Petitions.—Majority required.—"The names of the aspirants are generally placed upon the primary ballot upon petition of a number of electors. The number of signatures required differs. Procuring a widely signed petition is expensive business, requiring the help of a political machine. A rich or widely known aspirant is at an undue advantage, while neither the quality nor the quantity of the names on the ballot benefits. Later laws have recognized this fact by reducing the number of names demanded and by fixing a maximum as well as a minimum number to prevent expensive competition. The usual figure is put at five per cent of the party voters. In certain states the signatures must be distributed generally through the constituency. It became common for aspirants to seek signatures months in advance of the primaries and to commute the use of the name into a pre-campaign pledge. Some states therefore prohibit the soliciting of names prior to a fixed date. All these measures tend in the common direction of making the primary ballot a democratic instrument. As to the majority required for a choice, there is great diversity of practice, particularly between the northern and the southern states. In the North and the West nomination is commonly by a simple plurality, though several states provide that, if no candidate receives a certain percentage of the votes cast, the selection shall be made by a convention or a second primary. The compromise between direct primaries and a convention is not wholly successful, for a large number of candidates may be presented on purpose to split up the vote and throw the choice over to an old-fashioned convention. The southern states on the other hand require a majority and provide that a second primary election between the two highest shall be held in case none is obtained. Ballotage is simple in the South, where party conditions are such that victory in the second primary of one of the parties really signifies victory in the election. The attendance at the former is much larger than at the election itself. In the North the number of elections is already so great that the vote is neither large nor fairly representative, and it would be unwise to pile on another election in the form of a second primary."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 1, pp. 282-283.—See also OREGON: 1902-1915; SOUTH DAKOTA: 1918.

ALSO IN: *American Year Book*, 1918, p. 283.—F. A. Ogg, *National progress*, pp. 157-158.—R. S. Boots, *New type of direct primary (National Municipal Review, Sept., 1919)*.—C. E. Merriam, *Primary elections (National Municipal Review, Feb., 1921)*.

Preferential primaries.—Oregon, in 1910, passed a law allowing voters to express their preference for presidential candidates. Delegates to the national convention must, to the best of their ability, carry out the wishes of the voters as expressed in this preferential vote. This same system was adopted by New Jersey, Nebraska, California (see CALIFORNIA: 1911), North Dakota and Wisconsin in 1911, and by Massachusetts, Illinois and Maryland in 1912. Illinois does not make it compulsory for the delegates to follow the advice of the voters. The preferential vote is merely for their guidance. By 1916, twenty-three states had adopted either the presidential preference primary or the election of delegates by direct vote. "To

avoid the necessity of a convention or a ballotage, resort is sometimes had to the preferential vote. This is designed to remedy one of the faults of nomination by plurality. A reform movement is often burdened with multiplicity of counsels and candidates. Three reform candidates may each poll twenty per cent of the votes cast and yet all be defeated by a Machine nominee with twenty-five per cent, and the reform policy of a large majority of the voters frustrated by a division as to candidates. Under the preferential system the voter names both a first and a second choice, and if no candidate is elected by the first choices, the second choices are then distributed. In the instance just cited the voters by exchanging second choices could confine the election to the three reform candidates to the entire exclusion of the Machine. The preferential system is a strong weapon against the Boss, but it is still little known to the public because of its complexity."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 1, p. 283.

ALSO IN: C. A. Beard, *Contemporary American history*, pp. 354-357.—*American Political Science Review*, Aug., 1915.—*Political Science Quarterly*, v. 31, pp. 81-104.

Primary election laws in Minnesota and Mississippi. See MINNESOTA: 1889-1905; MISSISSIPPI: 1900-1906.

Arrangement of primary ballots.—Statement of party policies.—"As each name stands on its own merits on the direct primary ballot, there is controversy for the most favorable place on the list. Arrangement in the order of the time of filing nominating petitions is the least satisfactory method, resulting in an undignified scramble for the initial place. Some states print the names in alphabetical order. This system favors Mr. Abbott and handicaps Mr. Zimmerman in proportion to the length of the ballot, though the extent of the handicap has been exaggerated. To obviate this injustice other states arrange the names in rotation so that each appears at the head of the list an equal number of times. Another important question raised by the system of direct nominations is the construction of the party platform in state elections, where there are often serious issues toward which the party's attitude must be known. Various alternatives to platform writing in a convention have been tried. In many states the candidate makes his own platform in his campaign speeches, much as did Lincoln in his debates with Douglas. A law of 1904 in Oregon allows the candidate to state his principles in not more than one hundred words for publication in a campaign handbook under state auspices, and to present a statement of twelve words to appear on the ballot as his platform. In states where a convention is held in default of the necessary percentage at the primaries, this gathering also draws up a statement of the party's policies. A Wisconsin law of 1903 provides for the formation of a platform by the party nominees together with the holdover party members of the legislature. This method insures responsibility on the part of those who will be in a position to carry out the party's agreements by executive and legislative action. The method which approaches nearest to the spirit of the direct primary is in use in Texas. On application of ten per cent of the party voters any question of party policy must be submitted to the voters at the primaries. In fact, all demands for specific legislation must receive the endorsement of a majority at the primaries. When one remembers that the platform framed by the convention was a perfunctory and rhetorical document, rarely destined to fulfillment,

it must be admitted that the direct primary is a leavening influence rather than an impediment in platform making. Certain aspects of the direct primary have become plainly evident . . . which must not be overlooked in adjudging the institution a failure, or a success. It is clear that direct primaries are more expensive than indirect. A publicity campaign must be carried on, not within the limits of a hall, but throughout the constituency. In a close fight the expense for advertising, stump speaking, workers, and conveyances equals that in a regular election. Yet if this expenditure is directed toward the education of the public, the outlay is on the whole desirable, provided the sum necessary is not so great as to exclude or unduly obligate the poor man. Any reasonable expenditure which breaks the lethargy of the public and makes government a vital and engrossing interest to the individual citizen is money well spent. The number of aspirants to the party ticket is not so large as was anticipated. Generally the contest narrows to two or three rivals, for few desire the fame gained by finishing a poor sixth or seventh in the primaries. Furthermore the time and money required bar out political dilettantes. Racial and geographical prejudices do not have such an influence as was predicted by the opponents of reform. We have the German-American candidate and the Lower California candidate, but in general a man's popularity depends upon other qualities than his birth and birthplace. Most disappointing to the friends of the new order has been the effect on parties. The direct primary has manifestly not done the party to death. Party organization flourishes, and the Machine candidate presents himself with the independents for nomination. . . . True it is, however, that the independent voter has a check upon the Ring. While a party slate may be made up in advance of the primary, it is so easily broken that the quality of the nominations has of necessity improved. . . . The system does not of necessity obtain good officials; Curley was nominated for Mayor of Boston while in jail for fraud. The quality of the party slate is precisely as high as the sense of civic responsibility. The *sine qua non* of success in the direct primaries is sufficient public interest in good nominations to bring a majority of the electorate to exercise the franchise. On this point the evidence seems to be clearly in favor of the direct system. It does draw out a larger vote than took part in the choice of delegates. The personal nature of the contest, the increase in zealous campaigning, the added importance of the individual vote, all further the general participation in elections, which must be the basis of all democratic rule. While therefore the direct primary has not fulfilled all that was predicted for it, it constitutes a great advance in educative influence, in making the party machine responsive to the voters, in increasing the independent vote, and in procuring more efficient officers."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 1, pp. 283-287.—One of the defects of the direct primary which has not yet been mentioned is the possibility it affords of a choice by minority vote. When there are many candidates for an office it is very likely that the successful candidate will be chosen by a plurality of all the votes cast and not by a majority.

ALSO IN: E. Kimball, *National government of the United States*, pp. 125-126.—W. B. Munro, *Government of American cities*, pp. 132-139.—A. B. Hart, *Direct primary versus the convention* (*Proceedings of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, v. 3, pp. 162-171).

Repeal of New York primary law.—When the

Republicans came into control of the state government of New York in 1920, they proceeded to repeal the primary law of 1913. Under the new election law which passed the legislature early in 1921, the primary is not entirely abandoned, as it still applies to city and national elections, but the convention system is restored for the nomination of state officials and Supreme Court justices. Party representatives are still to be chosen by primaries. In his message to the New York legislature, January 4, 1923, the democratic governor, Alfred E. Smith, recommended the restoration of the direct primary. A number of bills to that effect were introduced in the legislature in the early part of 1923. The most important of these, the Walker Bill, passed the Senate, March 14, but was voted down in the Assembly.

Control by Congress. See SUPREME COURT: 1921.

PRIMATES, METROPOLITANS, PATRIARCHS.—In the early organization of the Christian church, the bishops of every province found it necessary "to make one of themselves superior to all the rest, and invest him with certain powers and privileges for the good of the whole, whom they therefore named their primate, or metropolitan, that is, the principal bishop of the province. . . . Next in order to the metropolitans or primates were the patriarchs; or, as they were at first called, archbishops and exarchs of the diocese. For though now an archbishop and a metropolitan be generally taken for the same, to wit, the primate of a single province; yet anciently the name archbishop was a more extensive title, and scarce given to any but those whose jurisdiction extended over a whole imperial diocese, as the bishop of Rome, Alexandria, Antioch, etc."—J. Bingham, *Antiquities of the Christian church*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 16-17.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 312-337.

PRIME MINISTER, English. See CABINET, ENGLISH: Origin of the term; Position during 19th century.

PRIMO RIVERA, Miguel. See RIVERA Y ORBANEJA, MIGUEL PRIMO.

PRIMOGENITURE, Law of. See GERMANY: 13th century; LAND TITLES: 1649-1912.

PRIMROSE LEAGUE, England, organization of women for campaign purposes. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: England: 1860-1905.

PRIMUM MOBILE. In astronomy. See ASTRONOMY: 130-1609.

PRINCE CHARLES FORELAND, island in vicinity of Spitsbergen, in the Arctic ocean. See SPITSBERGEN.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, one of the Canadian maritime provinces, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence river. Its area is 2,184 square miles (see CANADA: Map). Its population at the census of 1921 was 88,536, as compared with 93,728 in 1911. The capital is Charlottetown, with a population in 1921 of 12,329. The provincial government is carried on by a lieutenant-governor and a legislative assembly of thirty members elected for four years, one-half on a suffrage basis of property, and the rest by universal male and female suffrage. "Prince Edward's Island, the smallest province of the Dominion [of Canada], originally called St. John's Island, until 1770 formed part of Nova Scotia. [See CANADA: 1763-1774.] The first governor was Walter Patterson. . . . The first assembly met in 1773. [In 1873 Prince Edward Island consented to be received into the Confederation of the Dominion of Canada.]"—J. E. C. Munro, *Constitution of Canada*, ch. 2.—See also CANADA: 1867; 1869-1873; CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1867.

ALSO IN: J. G. Bourinot, *Story of Canada*, 1901-1902.—Reduced representation in Parliament. See CANADA: 1901-1902.

1914-1918.—Attitude towards prohibition. See CANADA: 1914-1918: War time prohibition.

PRINCE IMPERIAL, title given to Eugène Louis Jean Joseph (1856-1879), son of Napoleon III and Empress Eugénie of France.

PRINCE OF WALES. See WALES, PRINCE OF. **PRINCES, Chamber of.** See INDIA: 1921-1922.

PRINCES, League of: France. See FRANCE: 1485-1487.

Germany. See GERMANY: 1785.

PRINCEPS SENATUS.—"As the title of imperator conferred the highest military rank upon Augustus and his successors, so did that of princeps senatus, or princeps (as it came to be expressed by an easy but material abridgement), convey the idea of the highest civil preëminence consistent with the forms of the old constitution. In ancient times this title had been appropriated to the first in succession of living censorii, men who had served the office of censor; and such were necessarily patricians and senators. The sole privilege it conferred was that of speaking first in the debates of the senate; a privilege however to which considerable importance might attach from the exceeding deference habitually paid to authority and example by the Roman assemblies. . . . The title of princeps was modest and constitutional; it was associated with the recollection of the best ages of the free state and the purest models of public virtue; it could not be considered beyond the deserts of one who was undoubtedly the foremost man of the nation. . . . The popularity which the assumption of this republican title conferred upon the early emperors may be inferred from the care with which it is noted, and its constitutional functions referred to by the writers of the Augustan age and that which succeeded it. But it was an easy and natural step in the progress of political ideas to drop the application of the title, and contract it from prince of the senate, to prince merely. The original character of the appellation was soon forgotten, and the proper limits of its privileges confounded in the more vague and general prerogative which the bare designation of first or premier seemed to imply."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 31.—See also ROME: Empire: B. C. 31-A. D. 14.

PRINCETON, Battle of (1777). See U. S. A.: 1776-1777: Washington's retreat, etc.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1746-1896.

PRINCIP, Gavriilo, Serbian assassin of Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Direct.

PRINCIPES, second line companies in the Roman legion. See LEGION, ROMAN.

PRING, Martin (1580-1626), English sea captain and explorer. See AMERICA: 1602-1605; MAINE: 1602-1605.

PRINKIPO, one of the Princes islands, a group of nine islets near the Eastern end of the Sea of Marmora, ten miles southeast of Constantinople. (See CONSTANTINOPLE: Map of the Dardanelles.) Prinkipo is the largest. In 1919 it was proposed to hold here a conference between the Allies and the Bolsheviks and other factions of Russia, but the proposal did not materialize.—See also RUSSIA: 1910; GEORGIA, REPUBLIC OF: 1910.

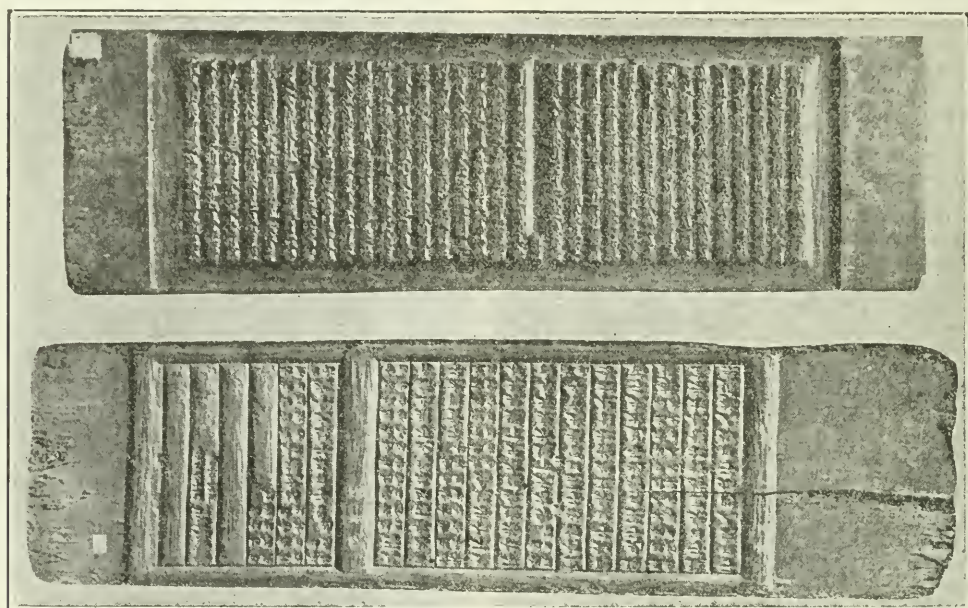
PRINTER'S BIBLE. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: Curious misprints, etc.

PRINTERS' STRIKE (1921). See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1921-1922: Meat packers' strike, etc.

PRINTING AND THE PRESS

Development in connection with other inventions.—Statistics.—The development of printing, which more than one authority has called the greatest of all the arts, is so closely interwoven with all modern invention and modern thought, that its story, if fully told, would be a narrative of the world's progress. Since the invention of the printing press, that is printing by movable type, in the middle of the fifteenth century, there has been a marvelous spread of the printed word throughout the world. Great inventions in the mechanism of printing which came at the end of the 10th century, united with the improved means of communication and transportation wrought by steam and electricity, made possible the enormous output of printed matter which has distinguished the twen-

decisive—because distinctive—thing is the manner in which the Teufons came to invent cast movable type and so practical printing, and this again is bound up with their recognition of the value of paper. For in its origin, printing is an application of paper. As soon as paper—*i. e.*, a suitable, cheap material for reproduction—was found, the industrious, ingenious Teutons began . . . to seek a practical solution of the old problem, how to print books mechanically. . . . Those industrious utilitarians, the Chinese, first hit upon the idea of making a cheap, convenient and universally suitable medium for writing (in place of expensive parchment, still more expensive silk, comparatively rare papyrus, Assyrian bricks for writing on, &c.). . . . The Chinese, who themselves used papyrus per-



CHINESE WOODEN BLOCK PRINTING

Shohei-ban from which the analects of Confucius were printed in the 14th century (above). Kasaban for printing Buddhist scriptures in 13th century (below).

tieth century. Estimates made in 1921 give the total number of newspapers published in the world as 56,000. Of these the United States and Canada are credited with 24,000; Great Britain and the British colonies with the exception of Canada, with 9,800; Germany, with 8,000; France, with 4,600; Japan, with 2,000; Italy, with 1,600; Austro-Hungary, with 1,200; Asia, with 900; Spain, with 900; Russia, with 850; Australia, with 600; Greece, with 600; Switzerland, with 450; Belgium, with 250; and Holland, with 300.

Before the 14th century.—Ancient origins.—Chinese and Iranian paper.—Teuton inventiveness.—Books printed in fifteenth century.—First newspaper.—“The idea of printing is very ancient; every stamp, every coin is a manifestation of it; the oldest copy of the Gothic translation of the Bible, the so-called *Codex argenteus* is ‘printed’ on parchment by means of hot metal types; the

fectly similar to our own, and knew its disadvantages, discovered how to make by artificial process from suitable plant fibres a writing material analogous to paper: that is their contribution to the invention of paper. [See also CHINESE LITERATURE: Literature after B.C. 478.] Chinese prisoners of war then brought this industry (roughly speaking, in the seventh century) to Samarkand, a city which was subject to the Arabian Khalif, and mostly ruled by almost independent Turkish princes, the inhabitants of which, however, consisted at that time of Persian Iranians. The Iranians . . . ‘almost immediately’ invented the making of paper from rags. . . . In the year 795 Harun-al-Raschid (a contemporary of Charlemagne) sent for workmen from Samarkand and erected a factory in Bagdad. The preparation was kept a State secret; but wherever Arabs went, paper accompanied them, particularly to Moorish Spain, . . . where paper

can be proved to have been in use from the beginning of the tenth century. . . . In the course of the Crusades the secret of the manufacture, guarded with such intellectual poverty, was revealed. What the poor Iranian, wedged in between Semites, Tartars and Chinese, had invented, was now taken over by the free Teuton. In the last years of the twelfth century exact information concerning the making of paper reached Europe. . . . In the year 1290 the first regular paper-mill was erected in Ravensburg; it was scarcely one hundred years [thereafter] before block-printing (or whole books even) had become common, and in fifty years more printing with movable letters was in full swing. . . . From the thirteenth century onwards the Bible, especially the New Testament, translated into the languages of the various nations, had been spread by paper through many parts of Europe. . . . The demand for reading and knowledge grew day by day; there were as yet no books (in our sense), but there were already booksellers who travelled from fair to fair and sold enormous quantities of clean, cheap copies printed on paper; the invention of printing was rendered inevitable. . . . At the same time as Gutenberg is experimenting with the casting of letters in Mayence, others are doing the same in Bamberg, Haarlem, Avignon, and Venice. And when the great German had finally solved the riddle his invention was at once understood and imitated; it was improved and developed, because it met a universal and pressing need. In 1450 Gutenberg's printing press was set in motion, and twenty-five years from that time there were presses in almost all the cities of Europe. Indeed in some of the cities of Germany—Augsburg, Nürnberg, Mayence—there were twenty or more presses at work. . . . The number of separate works printed between 1470 and 1500 is estimated at ten thousand; all the then known Latin authors were printed before the end of the century; in the next twenty years all the available Greek poets and thinkers followed. . . . Johannes Müller of Königsberg in Franconia, called Regiomontanus, founded between 1470 and 1475 a special press in Nürnberg to print mathematical works; numerous German, French, and Italian mathematicians were thereby stimulated to work in mechanics and astronomy; in 1525 the great Albrecht Dürer of Nürnberg published the first geometry in the German language, and soon after there also appeared in Nürnberg the *De Revolutionibus* of Copernicus. In other branches of discovery men had not been idle, and the first newspaper, which appeared in 1505, 'actually contains news from Brazil.'—H. S. Chamberlain, *Foundations of the nineteenth century*, v. 2, pp. 337-343.—See also EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Various Italian humanists; BASEL: 1460-1500; BIBLE, ENGLISH: 14th-16th centuries.

1430-1456.—Invention of movable type.—Rival claims for Coster and Gutenberg.—First printed book.—'It is certain that long before Gutenberg a means was found of cutting wood and metal in relief and reproducing by application the image traced. . . . Remembering that the numerous guilds of 'tailleurs d'images,' or sculptors in relief, had in the Middle Ages the specialty of carving ivories and of placing effigies on tombs, it can be admitted without much difficulty that these people one day found a means of multiplying the sketches of a figure often asked for, by modelling its contour in relief on ivory or wood, and afterwards taking a reproduction on paper or parchment by means of pressure. When and where was this discovery produced? We cannot possibly say; but it is certain that playing cards were

produced by this means, and that from the year 1423 popular figures were cut in wood, as we know from the St. Christopher of that date [in the Spencer collection]. . . . It is a recognised fact that the single sheet with a printed figure preceded the xylographic book, in which text and illustration were cut in the same block. This process did not appear much before the second quarter of the 15th century, and it was employed principally for popular works which were then the universal taste. The engraving also was nothing more than a kind of imposition palmed off as a manuscript; the vignettes were often covered with brilliant colours and gold, and the whole sold as of the best quality. . . . An attempt had been made to put some text at the foot of the St. Christopher of 1423, and the idea of giving more importance to the text was to the advantage of the book-sellers. . . . At the epoch of St. Christopher, in 1423, several works were in vogue in the universities, the schools, and with the public. . . . To find a means of multiplying these treatises at little cost was a fortune to the inventor. It is to be supposed that many artisans of the time attempted it; and without doubt it was the booksellers themselves, mostly mere dealers, who were tempted to the adventure by the sculptors and wood-cutters. But none had yet been so bold as to cut in relief a series of blocks with engravings and text to compose a complete work. That point was reached very quickly when some legend was engraved at the foot of a vignette, and it may be thought that the 'Donatus' [i.e., the Latin Syntax of Ælius Donatus] was the most ancient of books so obtained among the 'Incunabuli,' as we now call them, a word that signifies origin or cradle. The first books then were formed of sheets of paper or parchment, laboriously printed from the xylographic blocks, that is to say wooden blocks on which a 'tailleur d'images' had left in relief the designs and the letters of the text. He had thus to trace his characters in reverse, so that they could be reproduced as written; he had to avoid faults, because a phrase once done, well or ill, lasted. It was doubtless this difficulty of correction that gave the idea of movable types. . . . This at least explains the legend of Laurent Coster, of Haarlem, who, according to Hadrian Junius, his compatriot, discovered by accident the secret of separate types while playing with his children. And if the legend of which we speak contains the least truth, it must be found in the sense above indicated, that is in the correction of faults, rather than in the innocent game of a merchant of Haarlem. . . . Movable type, the capital point of printing, the pivot of the art of the Book, developed itself little by little, according to needs, when there was occasion to correct an erroneous inscription; but, in any case, its origin is unknown. Doubtless to vary the text, means were found to replace entire phrases by other phrases, preserving the original figures; and thus the light dawned upon these craftsmen, occupied in the manufacture and sale of their books. According to Hadrian Junius, Laurent Janszoon Coster (the latter name signifying 'the discoverer') published one of the celebrated series of works under the general title of 'Speculum' which was then so popular, . . . the 'Speculum Humanae Salvationis.' . . . Junius, as we see, attributes to Laurent Coster the first impression of the 'Speculum,' no longer the purely xylographic impression of the 'Donatus' from an engraved block, but that of the more advanced manner in movable types [probably between 1430 and 1440]. In point of fact, this book had at least four editions, similar in engravings and body of letters, but of different text.

It must then be admitted that the fount was dispersed, and typography discovered. . . . All the xylographic works of the 15th century may be classed in two categories: the xylographs, rightly so called, or the block books, such as the 'Donatus,' and the books with movable types, like the 'Speculum,' of which we speak. . . . Hadrian Junius positively accuses one of Laurent Coster's workmen of having stolen the secrets of his master and taken flight to Mayence, where he afterwards founded a printing office. According to Junius, the metal type was the discovery of the Dutchman, and the name of the thief was John. Who was this John? Was it John Gaensefleisch, called Gutenberg, or possibly John Fust? But it is not

lems presented themselves to him. He wanted types less fragile than wooden types and less costly than engraving. He wanted a press by the aid of which he could obtain a clear impression on parchment or paper. He desired also that the leaves of his books should not be anopistograph, or printed only on one side. . . . Until then, and even long after, the xylographs were printed 'au frotton' or with a brush, rubbing the paper upon the *forme* coated with ink, thicker than ordinary ink. He dreamed of something better. In the course of his work John Gutenberg returned to Mayence. The idea of publishing a Bible, the Book of books, had taken possession of his heart. . . . The cutting of his types had ruined



GUTENBERG WITH THE FIRST EXAMPLE OF HIS ART

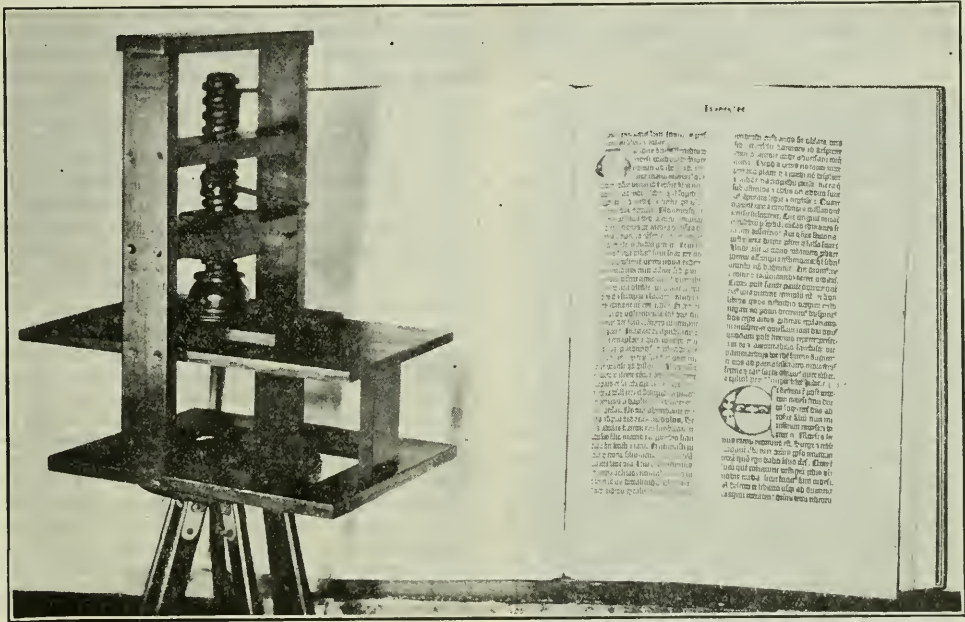
(After a drawing by Adolf Menzel)

at all apparent that Gutenberg, a gentleman of Mayence, exiled from his country, was ever in the service of the Dutch inventor. As to Fust, we believe his only intervention in the association of printers of Mayence was as a money-lender, from which may be comprehended the unlikelihood of his having been with Coster, the more so as we find Gutenberg retired to Strasbourg, where he pursued his researches. There he was, as it were, out of his sphere, a ruined noble whose great knowledge was bent entirely on invention. Doubtless, like many others, he may have had in his hands one of the printed works of Laurent Coster, and conceived the idea of appropriating the infant process. In 1439 he was associated with two artisans of the city of Strasbourg, ostensibly in the fabrication of mirrors, which may be otherwise understood as printing of 'Speculums,' the Latin word signifying the same thing. . . . Three prob-

him. . . . In this unhappy situation, Gutenberg made the acquaintance of a financier of Mayence, named Fust, . . . who put a sum of 1,100 florins at his disposal to continue his experiments. Unfortunately this money disappeared, it melted away, and the results obtained were absolutely ludicrous. . . . About this time a third actor enters on the scene. Peter Schoeffer, of Gernsheim, a writer, introduced into the workshop of Gutenberg to design letters, benefited by the abortive experiments, and taking up the invention at its dead-lock, conducted it to success. John of Trittenheim, called Trithemius, the learned abbot of Spanheim, is the person who relates these facts; but as he got his information from Schoeffer himself, too much credence must not be given to his statements. Besides, Schoeffer was not at all an ordinary artisan. If we credit a Strasbourg manuscript written by his hand in 1449, he was a student of the 'most

glorious university of Paris.' ” How much Schoeffer contributed to the working out of the invention is a matter of conjecture; but in 1454 it was advanced to a state in which the first known application of it in practical use was made. This was in the printing of copies of the famous letters of indulgence which Pope Nicholas V. was then selling throughout Europe. Having the so far perfected invention in hand, Fust and Schoeffer (the latter now having married the former's granddaughter) wished to rid themselves of Gutenberg. “Fust had a most easy pretext, which was to demand purely and simply from his associate the sums advanced by him, and which had produced so little. Gutenberg had probably commenced his Bible, but, in face of the claims of Fust, he had to abandon it altogether, types, formes, and press. In November, 1455, he had retired to a little house outside

imagine his fame to have spread everywhere as the real inventor. As a master in the art of printing, Gutenberg's name was known in Paris as early as 1472. . . . Mr. Hessels . . . believes that the Coster mentioned in the archives as living in Haarlem, 1436-83, was the inventor of types, and that, taken as a whole, the story as told by Junius is substantially correct. Personally I should like to wait for more evidence. There is no doubt that the back-bone of the Dutch claim lies in the pieces and fragments of old books, . . . which give support to, at the same time that they receive support from, the Cologne Chronicler. . . . These now amount to forty-seven different works. Their number is being added to continually now that the attention of librarians has been strongly called to the importance of noting and preserving them. They have been catalogued with profound insight by



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MAZARIN BIBLE ALONGSIDE OF A MODEL OF THE ORIGINAL GUTENBERG PRESS

The most valuable piece of printing in the world, sold for \$50,000

the city, where he tried his best, by the aid of foreign help, to establish a workshop, and to preserve the most perfect secrecy. Relieved of his company, Fust and Schoeffer were able to take up the impression of the Bible and to complete it without him. . . . One thing is certain: that the Bible of Schoeffer, commenced by Gutenberg or not, put on sale by Fust and Schoeffer alone about the end of 1455 or beginning of 1456, proves to be the first completed book. . . . It is now called the Mazarine Bible, from the fact that the copy in the Mazarine Library was the first to give evidence concerning it. [See also BIBLE, ENGLISH: 14th-16th centuries.] The book was put on sale at the end of 1445 or beginning of 1456.”—H. Bouchot, *Printed book*, ch. 1.—“The general consent of all nations in ascribing the honour of the invention of printing to Gutenberg seems at first sight a very strong argument in his favour; but if Gutenberg were not the first to invent and use movable types, but the clever man who brought to perfection what already existed in a crude state, we can quite

Mr. Hessels, and for the first time classified by internal evidence into their various types and classes. But, it may well be asked, what evidence is there that all these books were not printed long after Gutenberg's press was at work? . . . The earliest book of Dutch printing bears date 1473, and not a single edition out of all the so-called Costeriana has any printer's name or place or date. To this the reply is, that these small pieces were school-books or abscies and such-like works, in the production of which there was nothing to boast of, as there would be in a Bible. Such things were at all times 'sine ulla nota,' and certain to be destroyed when done with, so that the wonder would be to find them so dated and the very fact of their bearing a date would go far to prove them not genuine. These fragments have been nearly all discovered in 15th-century books, printed mostly in various towns of Holland. . . . Mr. Hessels quotes forty-seven different books as 'Costeriana,' which include four editions of the Speculum, nineteen of Donatus, and seven of Doc-

trinale. The Donatuses are in five different types, probably from five different Dutch presses. Compared with the earliest dated books of 1473 and onwards, printed in Holland, they have nothing in common, while their brotherhood to the Dutch MSS. and block-books of about thirty years earlier is apparent. Just as astronomers have been unable to explain certain aberrations of the planets without surmising a missing link in the chain of their knowledge, so is it with early typography. That such finished works as the first editions of the Bible and Psalter could be the legitimate predecessors of the Costeriana, the Bruges, the Westminster press, and others, I cannot reconcile with the internal evidence of their workmanship. But admit the existence of an earlier and much ruder school of typography, and all is plain and harmonious."—W. Blades, *Books in chains, and other bibliographical papers*, pp. 140-158.

ALSO IN: J. H. Hessels, *Gutenberg: Was he the inventor of printing?*—C. H. Timperley, *Encyclopædia of literary and typographical anecdote*, pp. 101-120.—H. N. Humphreys, *History of the art of printing*, ch. 3-4.

1450-1793.—Effect of invention and development of printing on copyright laws. See COPYRIGHT: 1450-1793.

1457-1489.—Progress and diffusion of the art.—"In 1462, on the 28th of October, Archbishop Adolph of Nassau captured the city of Mayence and gave it over to his soldiers for plunder. The typesetters and printers, with all the other artisans whose work depended upon the commerce of the city, were driven to flight and it appeared for the moment as if the newly instituted printing business had been crushed. The result of the scattering of printers was, however, the introduction of the new art into a number of other centres where the influences were favourable for its development. The typesetters of Mayence, driven from their printing offices by the heavy hand of the Church, journeyed throughout the world and proceeded to give to many communities the means of education and enlightenment through which the great revolt against the Church was finally instituted. An important influence in securing for the work of the early printer-publishers of Germany a greater freedom from restriction than was enjoyed by their contemporaries in France was the fact that, in Germany, the beginning of printing, or at least its development, took place, not in a university centre but in a commercial town and was from the outset carried on not by scholars but by workers of the people. This brought the whole business of the distribution of the books in Germany into closer relations with the mass of the people than was in the case of France. The direct association with the university of the first printers in France (who were themselves the immediate successors of the official university scribes) brought the printing-press under the direct control of the university and rendered easy the establishment by the university authorities, and particularly by the theologians, of a continued censorship. Hegel, in his *Philosophy of History*, refers to the renewed interest in the writings of the ancients which was brought about through the service of the printing-press. He points out, further, that the Church felt at the outset no anxiety concerning the influence of the pagan literature and that the ecclesiastical authorities evidently had no understanding of the new elements of suggestion and enquiry that this literature was introducing into the minds of men. It may be considered as one of the fortunate circumstances attending the introduction of the art of printing that the popes of the time were largely

men of liberal education and intellectual tastes, while one or two, such as Nicholas V, Julius II, and Leo X, had a keen personal interest in literature and were themselves creators of books. . . . An earnest and narrow-minded head of the Church could, during the first years of the 16th century, have retarded not a little the development of the work of producing books for the community at large."—G. H. Putnam, *Censorship of the Church of Rome*, pp. 275-277.—After the Mazarine Bible, "then follows the Kalendar for the year 1457, most probably printed at the end of 1456. Then again the printed dates, August 14, 1457 and 1459, with place (Mentz) in the colophons of the Psalter issued by Fust and Schoeffer; the printed year 1460 (with Mentz added) in the *Catholicon* [a Latin Grammar and Dictionary], etc., etc. So that, with the exception of 1458, there is no interruption in Mentz printing from the moment that we see it begin there. . . . Assuming then, for a moment, that Mentz is the starting-point, we see printing spread to Strassburg in 1460; to Bamberg in 1461; to Subiaco in 1465; in 1466 (perhaps already in 1463) it is established at Cologne; in 1467 at Eltville, Rome; in 1468 at Augsburg, Basle, Marienthal; in 1469 at Venice; 1470 at Nuremberg, Verona, Foligno, Trevi, Savignano, Paris; 1471 at Spire, Bologna, Ferrara, Florence, Milan, Naples, Pavia, Treviso; 1472 at Esslingen, Cremona, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Monreale, Fivizzano, Verona; 1473 at Laugingen, Ulm (perhaps here earlier); Merseburg, Alost, Utrecht, Lyons, Brescia, Messina; 1474 at Louvain, Genoa, Como, Savona, Turin, Vicenza; 1475 at Lubeck, Breslau, Blaubeyren, Burdorf, Modena, Reggio, Cagli, Caselle or Casale, Saragossa; 1476 at Rostock, Bruges (here earlier?), Brussels; 1477 at Reichenstein, Deventer, Gouda, Delft, Westminster; 1478 at Oxford, St. Maartensdyk, Colle, Schussenried, Eichstadt; 1479 at Erfurt, Würzburg, Nymegen, Zwolle, Poitiers; 1480 at London[?], Oudenaarde, Hasselt, Reggio; 1481 at Passau, Leipzig, Magdeburg, Treves, Urach; 1482 at Reutlingen, Memmingen, Metz, Antwerp; 1483 at Leiden, Kuilenburg, Ghent, Haarlem; 1484 at Bois-le-Duc, Siena; 1485 at Heidelberg, Regensburg; 1486 at Munster, Stuttgart; 1487 at Ingolstadt; 1488 at Stendal; 1489 at Hagenau, etc."—J. H. Hessels, *Haarlem the birth-place of printing, not Mentz*, ch. 4.

1469-1515.—Early Venetian printers.—Aldine press.—"One of the famous first race of German printers, John of Spire, arrived at Venice in the year 1469, and immediately brought his art into full play; producing within the first three months his fine edition of the 'Letters of Cicero,' a masterpiece of early printing. . . . The success of John of Spire as a printer was at once recognized by the Venetian Republic; and Pasquale Malipiero, the reigning Doge, granted a patent conferring upon him the sole right of printing books within the territory of Venice. . . . But the enterprising printer did not live to enjoy the privilege," and it was not continued to any of his family. "On the withdrawal of the monopoly several new printers set up their Presses in the city, among whom was the celebrated Jenson, the ingenious Frenchman who was sent by Charles VII to acquire the art at Mayence. . . . Nicholas Jenson was the most renowned of those who followed the earliest German printers in Venice, until his works were partially eclipsed by those of the Aldi. . . . In 1470 he [Jensen] had . . . completed his preparations, and the first four works which issued from his Venetian press appeared in that year. . . . These works were printed with Roman characters of his own engraving, more perfect in form than those of any

previous printer. His types are in fact the direct parents of the letters now in general use, which only differ from them in certain small details dependent solely on fashion. . . . This celebrated printer died in September of the year 1481. . . . Andrea Torresani and others continued Jensen's Association, making use of the same types. Torresani was eventually succeeded in the same establishment by the celebrated Aldo Manuccio, who, having married his daughter, adopted the important vocation of printer, and became the first of those famous 'Aldi,' as they are commonly termed, whose fame has not only absorbed that of all the earlier Venetian printers, but that of the early printers of every other Italian seat of the art. . . . It was Manuccio who, among many other advances in this art, first invented the semi-cursive style of character now known as 'Italic'; and it is said that it was founded upon a close imitation of the careful handwriting of Petrarch, which, in fact, it closely resembles. This new type was used for a small octavo edition of 'Virgil,' issued in 1501, on the appearance of which he obtained from Pope Leo X. a letter of privilege, entitling him to the sole use of the new type which he had invented." The list of the productions of the elder Aldus and his son Paul "comprises nearly all the great works of antiquity, and of the best Italian authors of their own time. From their learning and general accomplishments, the Aldi might have occupied a brilliant position as scholars and authors, but preferred the useful labour of giving correctly to the world the valuable works of others. The Greek editions of the elder Aldus form the basis of his true glory, especially the 'Aristotle,' printed in 1495, a work of almost inconceivable labour and perseverance."—H. N. Humphreys, *History of the art of printing*, ch. 8.—"Aldus and his studio and all his precious manuscripts disappeared during the troubled years of the great Continental war in which all the world was against Venice [see VENICE: 1508-1509]. In 1510, 1511, and 1512, scarcely any book proceeded from his press. . . . After the war Aldus returned to his work with renewed fervour. 'It is difficult,' says Renouard, 'to form an idea of the passion with which he devoted himself to the reproduction of the great works of ancient literature. If he heard of the existence anywhere of a manuscript unpublished, or which could throw a light upon an existing text, he never rested till he had it in his possession. He did not shrink from long journeys, great expenditure, applications of all kinds.' . . . It is not in this way however that the publisher, that much questioned and severely criticised middleman, makes a fortune. And Aldus died poor. His privileges did not stand him in much stead, copyright, especially when not in books but in new forms of type, being non-existent in his day. In France and Germany, and still nearer home, his beautiful Italic was robbed from him, copied on all sides, notwithstanding the protection granted by the Pope and other princes as well as by the Venetian Signoria. His fine editions were printed from, and made the foundation of foreign issues which replaced his own. How far his princely patrons stood by him to repair his losses there seems no information. His father-in-law, Andrea of Asola, a printer who was not so fine a scholar, but perhaps more able to cope with the world, did come to his aid, and his son Paolo Manutio, and his grandson Aldo il Giovane, as he is called, succeeded him in turn."—Mrs. Oliphant, *Makers of Venice*, pt. 4, ch. 3.—Aldus died in 1515. His son Paul left Venice for Rome in 1562.

press.—"It was probably at the press of Colard Mansion, in a little room over the porch of St. Donat's at Bruges, that William Caxton learned the art which he was the first to introduce into England. A Kentish boy by birth, but apprenticed to a London mercer, Caxton had already spent thirty years of his manhood in Flanders as Governor of the English gild of Merchant Adventurers there, when we find him engaged as copyist in the service of Edward's sister, Duchess Margaret of Burgundy. But the tedious process of copying was soon thrown aside for the new art which Colard Mansion had introduced into Bruges. . . . The printing-press was the precious freight he brought back to England in 1476 after an absence of five-and-thirty years. Through the next fifteen, at an age when other men look for ease and retirement, we see him plunging with characteristic energy into his new occupation. His 'red pale' or heraldic shield marked with a red bar down the middle invited buyers to the press he established



WILLIAM CAXTON

in the Almonry at Westminster, a little enclosure containing a chapel and almshouses near the west front of the church, where the alms of the abbey were distributed to the poor. . . . Caxton was a practical man of business, . . . no rival of the Venetian Aldi or of the classical printers of Rome, but resolved to get a living from his trade, supplying priests with service books and preachers with sermons, furnishing the clerk with his 'Golden Legend' and knight and baron with 'joyous and pleasant histories of chivalry.' But while careful to win his daily bread, he found time to do much for what of higher literature lay fairly to hand. He printed all the English poetry of any moment which was then in existence. His reverence for that 'worshipful man, Geoffrey Chaucer,' who 'ought to be eternally remembered,' is shown not merely by his edition of the 'Canterbury Tales,' but by his reprint of them when a purer text of the poem offered itself. The poems of Lydgate and Gower were added to those of Chaucer. The Chronicle of Brut and Higden's 'Polychronicon' were the only available works of an historical

character then existing in the English tongue, and Caxton not only printed them but himself continued the latter up to his own time. A translation of Boethius, a version of the *Eneid* from the French and a tract or two of Cicero, were the stray first-fruits of the classical press in England. Busy as was Caxton's printing-press, he was even busier as a translator than as a printer. More than four thousand of his printed pages are from works of his own rendering. . . . He was still . . . busy translating when he died [in 1491]. All difficulties . . . were lightened by the general interest which his labours aroused. . . . Caxton profited in fact by the wide literary interest which was a mark of the time."—J. R. Green, *History of the English people*, v. 2, bk. 5, ch. 1.—"Contemporary with Caxton were the printers Lettoug and Machlinia, . . . who carried on business in the city of London, where they established a press in 1480. Machlinia had previously worked under Caxton. . . . Wynkyn de Worde . . . in all probability . . . was one of Caxton's assistants or workmen, when the latter was living at Bruges, but without doubt he was employed in his office at Westminster until 1491, when he commenced business on his own account, having in his possession a considerable quantity of Caxton's type. Wynkyn de Worde, who was one of the founders of the Stationers' Company, died in 1534, after having printed no less than 410 books known to bibliographers, the earliest of which bearing a date is the 'Liber Festivalis,' 4to, 1493."—J. H. Slater, *Book collecting*, ch. 9.

ALSO IN: C. Knight, *William Caxton*.—C. H. Timperley, *Encyclopedia of literary and typographical anecdote*, pp. 138-194.—T. C. Hansard, *History and process of printing* ("The five black arts," ch. 1).—*Gentleman's Magazine Library: Bibliographical notes, and literary curiosities*.

1496-1598.—Estienne or Stephanus press in Paris.—"With the names of Aldus and Elzevir we are all acquainted; the name of Estienne, or Stephanus, has a less familiar sound to English ears, though the family of Parisian printers was as famous in its day as the great houses of Venice and Leyden. The most brilliant member of it was the second Henry, whose story forms a melancholy episode in French literary history of the 16th century. . . . The Estiennes are said to have come of a noble Provençal family, but nothing is exactly known of their descent. The art of printing was not much more than fifty years old when Henry Estienne, having learnt his trade in Germany, came to Paris, and set up his press [about 1496] in the Rue Saint Jean de Beauvais, opposite the school of Canon Law. There for some twenty years he laboured diligently, bringing out in that time no less than 120 volumes, chiefly folios. The greater number of these are theological and scholastic works; among the few modern authors on the list is the name of Erasmus. Henry Estienne died in 1520 leaving three sons. Robert, the second of them, was born probably in 1503. The boys all being minors, the business passed into the hands of their mother, who in the following year married Simon de Colines, her late husband's foreman, and perhaps partner. . . . Robert worked with De Colines for five or six years before he went into business on his own account in the same street." It was he who first gave celebrity to the name and the press. "The spell of the Renaissance had early fallen upon the young printer, and it held him captive almost till the end of his life." He married "the daughter of the learned Flemish printer Jodocus Badius, notable for her culture and her beauty. Latin was the ordinary language of the household. The chil-

dren learned it in infancy from hearing it constantly spoken. . . . At one time ten foreign scholars lived in Estienne's house to assist him in selecting and revising his manuscripts and in correcting his proofs. . . . Both Francis [King Francis I] and his sister Marguerite of Navarre had a great regard for Robert, and often visited the workshop; to that royal patronage the printer was more than once indebted for his liberty and his life. [His danger came from the bigoted Sorbonne, with whom he brought himself into collision by printing the Bible with as careful a correction of the text as he had performed in the case of the Latin classics. After the death of Francis I., the peril of the printer's situation became more serious, and in 1550 he fled to Geneva, renouncing the Roman Catholic faith. He died there in 1550.]—H. C. Macdowall, *Old French printer* (*Macmillan's Magazine*, Nov., 1892).—The second Henry Estienne, son of Robert, either did not accompany his father to Geneva, or soon returned to Paris, and founded anew the press of his family, bringing to it even more learning than his father, with equal laboriousness and zeal. He died at Lyons in 1598.—Based on E. Greswell, *View of the early Parisian Greek press*.

1535-1709.—Introduction in America.—First Spanish printing in Mexico.—Early Massachusetts press.—"Davila Padilla, Archbishop of St. Domingo about the beginning of the seventeenth century, expressly declares that the first book printed in Mexico was a Spanish translation of the 'Spiritual Ladder' of St. John Climacus, made in New Spain by Fray Juan de Estrada, and published in 1532. Señor Icazbalceta points out that this date is impossible, he having himself demonstrated that type cannot have been imported into Mexico before 1536, nor the book printed before 1537. [The date for it has usually been set at 1535.] . . . The second book known to have issued from the Mexican press, a 'Manual de Adultos' for the instruction of the natives, printed in 1540, writhes in the very jaws of annihilation, but still survives to the extent of at least three leaves, formerly in the library of Señor Pascual de Gayangos. . . . The next specimen of the Mexican press is believed to be a narrative of the earthquake which destroyed the city of Guatemala in 1541. . . . It is a black-letter tract of four leaves, which certainly existed in Madrid when Icazbalceta's bibliography was published in 1886, the notice of the only known copy having been communicated to him from Madrid by Señor Gonzalez de Vera. The possessor, however, is not indicated. . . . Not more than three American books, then, can at present be proved to have preceded Bishop Zumarraga's 'Doctrina breve muy provechosa de las cosas que pertenecen á la fe católica y á nuestra cristiandad,' etc., Mexico, 1543. One of these is a fragment, another is not producible, and the present locality of the third has not been made public. The British Museum, then, may well be proud of its ability to exhibit, in the King's Library, the fourth book printed on the American continent, as the earliest at all likely to be seen. Though so precious for its antiquity, the 'Doctrina' is less rare than many Mexican books of more recent date. . . . Among the Mexican printers mentioned by Mr. Winship is Antonio Ricardo (Ricciardi?), an Italian, who began to print at Mexico in 1577, but whose glory it is to have been the first printer in South America, having removed to Lima in 1579, and printed there, in 1584, the first South American book. . . . The British Museum . . . acquired at a stroke the first three typographical productions of South America, though

it wants, and probably always will want, the corresponding three of the northern half of the continent."—R. Garnett, *Early Spanish-American printing* (Library, 1900, v. 1).—"In January, 1639, printing was first performed in that part of North America which extends from the Gulf of Mexico to the Frozen ocean. For this press . . . [the] country is chiefly indebted to the Rev. Mr. Glover, a nonconformist minister, who possessed a considerable estate. . . . Another press, with types, and another printer, were, in 1660, sent over from England by the corporation for propagating the gospel among the Indians in New England. This press, &c., was designed solely for the purpose of printing the Bible, and other books, in the Indian language. On their arrival they were carried to Cambridge, and employed in the printing house already established in that place. . . . The fathers of Massachusetts kept a watchful eye on the press; and in neither a religious nor civil point of view were they disposed to give it much liberty. . . . In 1662, the government of Massachusetts appointed licensers of the press; and afterward, in 1664, passed a law that 'no printing should be allowed in any town within the jurisdiction, except in Cambridge'; nor should anything be printed there but what the government permitted through the agency of those persons who were empowered for the purpose. . . . In a short time, this law was so far repealed as to permit the use of a press at Boston. . . . It does not appear that the press, in Massachusetts, was free from legal restraints till about the year 1755 [see below: 1704-1729]. . . . Except in Massachusetts, no presses were set up in the colonies till near the close of the 17th century. Printing then [1686] was performed in Pennsylvania [by William Bradford], 'near Philadelphia' [at Shackamaxon, now Kensington], and afterward in that city, by the same press which, in a few years subsequent, was removed to New York [see below: 1685-1693; also PENNSYLVANIA: 1692-1696]. The use of types commenced in Virginia about 1681; in 1682 the press was prohibited. In 1709 a press was established at New London, in Connecticut."—I. Thomas, *History of printing in America*, 2d ed., v. 1, pp. 1-17 (*Transactions and Collections of the American Antiquarian Society*, v. 5).

ALSO IN: J. L. Bishop, *History of American manufactures*, v. 1, ch. 7.

1564-1580.—Printing in Russia. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1400-1689.

1564-1581.—Index Expurgatorius in various countries.—Effect on printing.—One of the most important of catalogues of prohibited books, published by papal authority, and known as indices, was the Tridentine Index. It was mainly the work of the Council of Trent, and it "secured a much wider distribution and more general acceptance than had been obtained by the first of the papal Indexes or than could have been expected for the comparatively local Indexes of Louvain, Venice, or Valladolid. The Index was printed in 1564, either separately or in connection with the record of the Decrees of the Council of Trent, in Bologna, Modena, Florence, Cremona, Venice, Cologne, and Dillingen, and during the remaining years of the century, in a great number of editions. Within the next thirty years, there were no less than ten issues from the presses of Venice (which was still one of the most important centres of the printing industry) and four from Cologne. Throughout the Catholic world, the interest was active and continued in the proceedings and conclusions of the council which had

undertaken the task of cleansing the Church from its inner evils and of fortifying its institutions against the assaults of the heretics without. The deliberate policy of the Church in regard to the supervision of books was expressed in the Ten Rules of its Index and in the accompanying lists of prohibited books and of condemned authors, and these rules and lists now came to the eyes of thousands of readers (or were cited to them by their teachers and confessors) who had never before known of ecclesiastical censorship. According to the understanding of the Curia, no formal acceptance or confirmation was required to make binding in the lands acknowledging the authority of the Church either the Bull or the Index, but this was not the view generally taken. In Belgium, Bavaria, and Portugal, the regulations of the Index were formally adopted under royal edicts. Spain adhered to the policy of leaving in the hands of the Spanish Inquisition the responsibility for the preparation, and for the enforcement of, the successive Indexes, and neither the Index of Trent nor any other issued under papal authority was ever accepted as binding within the Spanish dominions. The Ten Tridentine Rules were however adopted in the Spanish Indexes appearing after 1564. In France and in Germany (outside of Bavaria) the Index of Trent was confirmed and promulgated only by one or two provincial synods. It is evident that in these countries the Rules secured no general acceptance or authority. . . . The decrees in regard to book-production issued during the succeeding twenty years by the provincial synods of Italy repeated in substance the regulations of Trent, with an occasional addition. In Milan for instance, in 1583, the synod ordered that printers and booksellers must, before securing permission to begin business, make a confession of faith to the bishops and take an oath to conduct their business according to the regulations of the Index. In a number of the dioceses of France, similar edicts were issued, but these made no reference to the papal Indexes. In 1566, King Henry II ordered (at the instance of the theological faculty of the Sorbonne) that no books prohibited by said faculty should be printed, owned, or read. Further, he authorised the Sorbonne to make personal examination of the stock of the booksellers. The supervision exercised by the Sorbonne over the production and distribution of books worked to the detriment of the book-trade of Paris, and to the advantage of the printers and dealers of Lyons, Montpellier, and other provincial centres, where it proved to be impracticable to enforce the regulations of the Paris theologians. It was also a factor in building up in Holland (which was practically free from censorship) the business of producing books for the students of Europe. In Germany, notwithstanding repeated efforts by successive popes, Pius V, Gregory XIII, and others, and edicts by Maximilian II and Rudolf II, it was evidently impracticable to keep control or supervision over the productions of the rapidly increasing printing-presses, presses which, instead of being concentrated as at Paris, were distributed through a great number of widely separated towns. . . . The Dominican Bernardo Castiglione writes, in 1581: 'In Rome, there is at present much watchfulness concerning the books coming into Italy. The Inquisitors are charged with the duty of prohibiting or destroying copies of this work or that. As a result, the booksellers dare not give orders, and are often unable to sell the books they have received. I understand that there are now lying in the Roman shops unsalable books to the value of many thousand scudi.'—

G. H. Putnam, *Censorship of the Church of Rome*, pp. 193-196.—See also PAPACY: 1559-1595.

1583-1680.—The Elzevirs.—“Just as the house of Aldus waned and expired, that of the great Dutch printers, the Elzevirs, began obscurely enough at Leyden in 1583. The Elzevirs were not, like Aldus, ripe scholars and men of devotion to learning. Aldus laboured for the love of noble studies; the Elzevirs were acute, and too often ‘smart’ men of business. The founder of the family was Louis (born at Louvain, 1540, died 1617). But it was in the second and third generations that Bonaventura and Abraham Elzevir began to publish at Leyden their editions in small duodecimo. Like Aldus, these Elzevirs aimed at producing books at once handy, cheap, correct, and beautiful in execution. Their adventure was a complete success. The Elzevirs did not, like Aldus, surround themselves with the most learned scholars of their time. Their famous literary adviser, Heinsius, was full of literary jealousies, and kept students of his own calibre at a distance. The classical editions of the Elzevirs, beautiful, but too small in type for modern eyes, are anything but exquisitely correct. . . . The ordinary marks of the Elzevirs were the sphere, the old hermit, the Athena, the eagle, and the burning faggot. But all little old books marked with spheres are not Elzevirs, as many booksellers suppose. Other printers also stole the designs for the tops of chapters, the Aegipan, the Siren, the head of Medusa, the crossed sceptres, and the rest. In some cases the Elzevirs published their books, especially when they were piracies, anonymously. When they published for the Jansenists, they allowed their clients to put fantastic pseudonyms on the title pages. But, except in four cases, they had only two pseudonyms used on the titles of books published by and for themselves. These disguises are ‘Jean Sambix’ for Jean and Daniel Elzevir, at Leyden, and for the Elzevirs of Amsterdam, ‘Jacques le Jeune.’ The last of the great representatives of the house, Daniel, died at Amsterdam, 1680. Abraham, an unworthy scion, struggled on at Leyden till 1712.”—A. Lang, *Library*, ch. 3.

1585-1921.—Works issued by Vatican press. See VATICAN: 1585-1921.

1612-1650.—Origin of printed newspapers.—Earliest appearance in Germany and Italy.—“Lally-Tollendal, in his ‘Life of Queen Elizabeth,’ in the ‘Biographie Universelle’ (vol. xiii, published in 1815, p. 56) . . . remarks that ‘as far as the publication of an official journal is concerned, France can claim the priority by more than half a century; for in the Royal Library at Paris there is a bulletin of the campaign of Louis XII in Italy in 1509.’ He then gives the title of this ‘bulletin,’ from which it clearly appears that it is not a political journal, but an isolated piece of news—a kind of publication of which there are hundreds in existence of a date anterior to 1588 [formerly supposed to be the date of the first English newspaper (see below: 1622-1702)], and of which there is no doubt that thousands were issued. There is, for instance, in the British Museum a French pamphlet of six printed leaves, containing an account of the surrender of Granada to Ferdinand and Isabella on the ‘first of January last past’ (le premier jour de janvier dernierement passé), in the year 1492; and there are also the three editions of the celebrated letter of Columbus, giving the first account of the discovery of America, all printed at Rome in 1493. Nay, one of the very earliest productions of the German press was an official manifesto of Diether, Archbishop of Co-

logne, against Count Adolph of Nassau, very satisfactorily proved to have been printed at Mentz in 1462. There is among the German bibliographers a technical name for this class of printed documents, which are called ‘Relations.’ In fact, in order to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion with regard to the origin of newspapers, it is requisite, in the first place, to settle with some approach to precision what a newspaper is. Four classes of publications succeeded to each other from the 15th to the 19th century, to which the term has by different writers been applied: 1st. Accounts of individual public transactions of recent occurrence. 2nd. Accounts in one publication of several public transactions of recent occurrence, only connected together by having taken place about the same period, so as at one time to form the ‘news of the day.’ 3rd. Accounts similar to those of the second class, but issued in a numbered series. 4th. Accounts similar to those of the second class, but issued not only in a numbered series, but at stated intervals. The notices of the surrender of Granada and the discovery of America belong to the first class, and so also do the last dying speeches, which are in our own time cried about the streets. These surely are not newspapers. The Times and Daily News [London] belong to the fourth class, and these, of course, are newspapers. . . . Are not, in fact, all the essentials of a newspaper comprised in the definition of the second class? . . . Let us take an instance. There is preserved in the British Museum a collection of several volumes of interesting publications issued in Italy between 1640 and 1650, and containing the news of the times. They are of a small folio size, and consist in general of four pages, but sometimes of six, sometimes only of two. There is a series for the month of December, 1644, consisting entirely of the news from Rome. The first line of the first page runs thus:—‘Di Roma,’ with the date, first of the 3rd, then of the 10th, then the 17th, then the 24th, and lastly the 31st of December, showing that a number was published every week, most probably on the arrival of the post from Rome. The place of publication was Florence, and the same publishers who issued this collection of the news from Rome, sent forth in the same month of December, 1644, two other similar gazettes, at similar intervals, one of the news from Genoa, the other of the news from Germany and abroad. That this interesting series of publications, which is well worthy of a minute examination and a detailed description, is in reality a series of newspapers, will, I believe, be questioned by very few; but each individual number presents no mark by which, if separately met with, it could be known to form part of a set. . . . The most minute researches on the history of newspapers in Germany are . . . those of Prutz, who has collected notices of a large number of the ‘relations,’ though much remains to be gleaned. . . . There was in the possession of Professor Grellman a publication called an ‘Aviso,’ numbered as ‘14,’ and published in 1612, which has been considered by many German writers as their earliest newspaper, but Prutz denies that honour to it, on the ground of there being no proof that it was published at stated intervals. In the year 1615 Egenolph Emmel, of Frankfort-on-the-Main, issued a weekly intelligencer, numbered in a series, and this, according to Prutz, is the proper claimant. Its history has been traced with some minuteness in a separate dissertation by Schwarzkopf, who has also the credit of having published in 1795 the first general essay on newspapers of any value, and to have followed up the subject in a series of

articles in the *Allgemeine Litterarische Anzeiger*. . . . The claims of Italy have yet to be considered. Prutz dismisses them very summarily, because, as he says, the Venetian gazettes of the sixteenth century, said to be preserved at Florence, are in manuscript, and it is essential to the definition of a newspaper that it should be printed. . . . The existence of these 'gazettes' in so many languages furnishes strong ground for supposing that the popularity of newspapers originated in Italy."—T. Watts, *Fabricated "Earliest English newspaper" (Gentleman's Magazine, 1850, reprinted in the Gentleman's Magazine Library: Bibliographical notes, pp. 146-150)*.

1622-1702.—First printed newspaper and first daily newspaper in England.—"Up to 1839 (when Mr. Watts, of the British Museum, exposed the forgery) the world was led to believe that the first English newspaper appeared in 1588." Mr. Watts "ascertained that 'The English Mercurie,' which Mr. George Chalmers first discovered on the shelves of the British Museum, and which was said to have been 'imprinted in London by her highness's printer, 1588,' was a forgery, for which the second Earl of Hardwicke appears to be answerable." As to the actual date of the appearance of the first printed newspaper in England, "Mr. Knight Hunt, in his 'Fourth Estate,' speaks confidently. . . . 'There is now no reason to doubt,' he says, 'that the puny ancestor of the myriads of broad sheets of our time was published in the metropolis in 1622; and that the most prominent of the ingenious speculators who offered the novelty to the world, was one Nathaniel Butter.' As the printing press had then been at work in England for a century and a half, Caxton having established himself in Westminster Abbey in 1471, and as manuscript news-letters had been current for many years previous to 1622, one cannot help wondering that the inventive wits of that age should have been so slow in finding out this excellent mode of turning Faust's invention to profitable account. Butter's journal was called—'The Weekly Newes,' a name which still survives, although the original possessor of that title has long since gone the way of all newspapers. The first number in the British Museum collection bears date the 23rd of May, 1622, and contains 'news from Italy, Germanie,' &c. The last number made its appearance on the 9th of January, 1640; a memorable year, in which the Short Parliament, dismissed by King Charles 'in a huff,' after a session of three weeks, was succeeded by the Long Parliament, which unlucky Charles could not manage quite so easily. . . . It was nearly a century after 'The Weekly Newes' made its first appearance, before a daily newspaper was attempted. When weekly papers had become firmly established, some of the more enterprising printers began to publish their sheets twice, and ultimately three times a week. Thus at the beginning of . . . [the eighteenth] century we find several papers informing the public that they are 'published every Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday morning.' One of the most respectable looking was entitled 'The New State of Europe,' or a 'True Account of Public Transactions and Learning.' It consisted of two pages of thin, coarse paper . . . and contained altogether about as much matter as . . . a single column of the 'Times' of 1855. The custom at that period was to publish the newspaper on a folio or quarto sheet, two pages of which were left blank to be used for correspondence. This is expressly stated in a standing advertisement in the 'New State of Europe,' in which the names of certain booksellers are given 'where any person

may have this paper with a blank half sheet to write their own private affairs.' . . . The first number of the 'Daily Courant' [the first daily newspaper in England] was published on the 11th of March, 1702, just three days after the accession of Queen Anne. . . . As regards the form and size of the new journal, the 'author' condescends to give the following information, with a growing remark at the impertinence of the 'Postboys,' 'Postmen,' 'Mercuries,' and 'Intelligencers' of that day:—"This 'Courant' (as the title shows) will be published Daily, being designed to give all the Material News as soon as every Post arrives, and is confined to half the compass to save the Publick at least half the Impertinences of ordinary Newspapers." In addition to the Prospectus we have quoted, the first number of the 'Daily Courant' contains only nine paragraphs, five of which were translated from the 'Harlem Courant,' three from the 'Paris Gazette,' and one from the 'Amsterdam Courant.' They all relate to the war of the Spanish Succession then waging, or to the attempts being made by diplomats to settle the affairs of the Continent at some kind of Vienna or Utrecht Conference. After adhering for several weeks to the strict rule of giving only one page of news, and those entirely foreign, the 'Courant' begins to show certain symptoms of improvement. The number for April 22, contains two pages of news and advertisements. . . . The alteration in the getting-up of the 'Courant' was owing to a change of proprietorship. The paper had now come into the hands of 'Sam Buckley, at the Dolphin, Little Britain.' . . . Mr. Samuel Buckley, who continued to publish and conduct the 'Daily Courant' for many years, was a notable man among London publishers, as we find from various references to him in the fugitive literature of that age."—*London daily press (Westminster Review, Oct., 1855)*.

1631.—First printed newspaper in France.—Dr. Renaudot and his "Gazette."—"The first Frenchman to found a printed newspaper was Dr. Théophraste Renaudot, who obtained the King's privilege for the 'Gazette de France' in 1631. . . . He was a shrewd man, born at London in 1567, brought up in Paris, but graduate of the Faculty of Montpellier. In 1612, being then twenty-six, he returned to the capital, and some how got appointed at once doctor to the King. But there was no salary attached to this post, which was in his case purely honorary, and so Renaudot opened a school. . . . This extraordinary man not only inaugurated in France an Estate, Professional and Servants' Agency, as well as an office for private sales and exchanges, but further laid the basis of the Poste Restante, Parcels Delivery, Post-Office Directory, Tourist's Guide and Money Order Office; besides affording an outlet to troubled spirits like those who correspond through the agony column of 'The Times.' It is not surprising that his office in the Rue de la Calandre should soon have been all too small for its multifarious duties and that his original staff of six clerks should, in less than three months, have swelled to fifty. Richelieu, in sheer admiration at the man, sent for him and thanked him for the services he was rendering the King's subjects. He also offered him money to extend his offices, and this Renaudot accepted, but only as a loan. It was his custom to levy a commission of six deniers per livre (franc) on the sales he effected, and by means of these and other receipts he soon repaid the Cardinal every penny that had been advanced to him. But he did more than this. Finding that his registers were not always conve-

ment modes of reference, by reason of the excessive crowds which pressed round them, he brought out a printed advertiser. . . . It was called 'Feuille du Bureau d'Adresses,' and appeared every Saturday, at the price of 1 sou. Opinions differ as to whether this paper preceded the 'Gazette de France,' or was issued simultaneously with it. Probably it was first published in manuscript form, but came out in print at least six months before the 'Gazette,' for a number bearing the date of June 14th, 1631, shows a periodical in full organisation and containing indirect references to advertisements which must have appeared several weeks before. At all events this 'Feuille' was purely an advertisement sheet—a forerunner of the 'Petites Affiches' which were reinvented in 1746—it was in no sense a newspaper. . . . It is clear that from the moment he started his 'Feuille du Bureau d'Adresses,' Renaudot must have conceived the possibility of founding a news-sheet. . . . The manuscript News Letters had attained, by the year 1630, to such a pitch of perfection, and found such a ready sale, that the notion of further popularising them by printing must have suggested itself to more than one man before it was actually put into practice. But the great bar was this, that nothing could be printed without the King's privilege, and this privilege was not lightly granted. . . . Renaudot, who had no wish to publish tattle, had no reason to fear censorship. He addressed himself to Richelieu, and craved leave to start a printed newspaper under royal patronage. The politic Cardinal was quite shrewd enough to see how useful might be to him an organ which would set information before the public in the manner he desired, and in that manner alone; so he granted all Renaudot wished, in the form of 'letters patent,' securing him an entire monopoly of printing newspapers, and moreover he conferred on his protégé the pompous title of Historiographer of France. The first number of the 'Gazette de France' appeared on Friday, May 30, 1631. Its size was four quarto pages, and its price one sol parisien, i.e. ½d., worth about 1½d. modern money. . . . The first number contained no preface or address, nothing in the way of a leading article, but plunged at once in medias res, and gave news from nineteen foreign towns or countries, but oddly enough, not a line of French intelligence. . . . The bulk of the matter inserted was furnished direct by Richelieu from the Foreign Office, and several of the paragraphs were written in his own hand. . . . The publication of the 'Gazette' was continued uninterruptedly from week to week, but the press of matter was so great that Renaudot took to issuing a Supplement with the last number of every month. In this he condensed the reports of the preceding numbers, corrected errors, added fresh news, and answered his detractors. . . . At the end of the year 1631 he suppressed his monthly Supplement, increased the 'Gazette' to eight pages, and announced that for the future he would issue Supplements as they were needed. It seems they were needed pretty often, for towards the beginning of the year 1633 Renaudot published Supplements, under the title of 'Ordinaries and Extraordinaries,' as often as twice, and even three times in one week. In fact whenever a budget of news arrived which would nowadays justify a special edition, the indefatigable editor set his criers afoot with a fresh printed sheet, shouting, 'Buy the "Extraordinary," containing the account of the superb burial of the King of Denmark!' or, 'Buy and read of the capture of the beautiful island of Curaçoa in the Indies by the Dutch from the Spaniards!' Renaudot understood the noble

art of puffing. He dressed his criers in red, and gave them a trumpet apiece to go and bray the praises of the 'Gazette' on the off days, when the paper did not appear. . . . On the death of Renaudot, he was succeeded by his sons Eusèbe and Isaac, who in their turn bequeathed the 'Gazette' to Eusèbe junior, son of the elder brother, who took orders and consequently left no progeny. After this the 'Gazette' became Government property. . . . In 1762 the 'Gazette' was annexed to the Foreign Office Department. . . . The 'Gazette de France' continued to appear under royal patronage until May 1st, 1792, when its official ties were snapped and it came out as a private and republican journal with the date 'Fourth Year of Freedom.'—*French press* (*Cornhill Magazine*, June, 1873).

1637.—Archbishop Laud's Star-Chamber restriction of printing.—On the 11th of July, 1637, "Archbishop Laud procured a decree to be passed in the star chamber, by which it was ordered, that the master printers should be reduced to twenty in number; and that if any other should secretly, or openly, pursue the trade of printing, he should be set in the pillory, or whipped through the streets, and suffer such other punishment as the court should inflict upon him; that none of the master printers should print any book or books of divinity, law, physic, philosophy, or poetry, till the said books, together with the titles, epistles, prefaces, tables, or commendatory verses, should be lawfully licensed, on pain of losing the exercise of his art, and being proceeded against in the star chamber, &c.; that no person should reprint any book without a new license; that every merchant, bookseller, &c., who should import any book or books, should present a catalogue of them to the archbishop or bishop, &c., before they were delivered, or exposed to sale, who should view them, with power to seize those that were schismatical; and, that no merchant, &c., should print or cause to be printed abroad, any book, or books, which either entirely or for the most part, were written in the English tongue, nor knowingly import any such books, upon pain of being proceeded against in the star chamber, or high commission court. . . . That there should be four founders of letters for printing, and no more. That the archbishop of Canterbury, or the bishop of London, with six other high commissioners, shall supply the places of those four as they shall become void. That no master founder shall keep above two apprentices at one time. That all journeymen founders be employed by the masters of the trade; and that all the idle journeymen be compelled to work upon pain of imprisonment, and such other punishment as the court shall think fit. That no master founder of letters shall employ any other person in any work belonging to casting and founding of letters than freemen and apprentices to the trade, save only in putting off the knots of metal hanging at the end of the letters when they are first cast; in which work every master founder may employ one boy only, not bound to the trade."—C. H. Timperley, *Encyclopædia of literary and typographical anecdote*, p. 490.

1644.—"Areopagitica."—Under this title, John Milton published in 1644 an eloquent plea for unlicensed printing in England. It was, however, of no avail in promoting freedom at that time.—See also CENSORSHIP: England.

1647.—Renewed ordinance, in England, against printers.—"An ordinance of parliament passed the house of lords on this day [September 30, 1647], that no person shall make, write, print, sell, publish or utter, or cause to be made, &c., any

book, pamphlet, treatise, ballad, libel, sheet, or sheets of news whatsoever (except the same be licensed by both or either house of parliament,) under the penalty of 40s. and an imprisonment not exceeding forty days, if he can not pay it: if a printer, he is to pay a fine of only 20s., or suffer twenty days' imprisonment, and likewise to have his press and implements of printing broken in pieces. The bookseller, or stationer, to pay 10s., or suffer ten days' imprisonment,—and, lastly, the hawker, pedlar, or ballad-singer, to forfeit all his printed papers exposed to sale, and to be whipped as a common rogue in the parish where he shall be apprehended. Early in the following year, the committee of estates in Scotland passed an act prohibiting the printing under the pain of death, any book, declaration, or writing, until these were first submitted to their revision. . . . One of the consequences of these persecutions was the raising up of a new class of publishers, those who became noted for what was called 'unlawful and unlicensed books.' Sparkes, the publisher of Prynne's *Histriotomastix*, was of this class. The presbyterian party in parliament, who thus found the press closed on them, vehemently cried out for its freedom; and it was imagined, that when they ascended into power, the odious office of a licenser of the press would have been abolished; but these pretended friends of freedom, on the contrary, discovered themselves as tenderly alive to the office as the old government, and maintained it with the extremest vigour. Both in England and Scotland, during the civil wars, the party in power endeavoured to crush by every means the freedom of the press."—C. H. Timperley, *Encyclopædia of literary and typographical anecdote*, p. 506.

1654-1694.—Freedom of the press under Cromwell.—Censorship under restored Stuarts.—Roger L'Estrange and the first news reporters.—"During the Protectorate of Cromwell [beginning in 1654] the newspaper press knew . . . what it was to enjoy the luxury of freedom. The natural result was that a very great increase took place in the number of new political journals. . . . But, as might have been expected, from what was known of the antecedents of Charles II., the freedom of the press, which previously existed, came to an immediate end on his ascending the throne. Hardly had he done so, than an edict was issued, prohibiting the publication of any journal except the London Gazette, which was originally printed at Oxford, and called the Oxford Gazette,—the Court being then resident there on account of the plague raging in London at the time, 1665, when it was commenced, and for some time afterwards. This was an act of pure despotism. But Government at this time reserved to itself the right—a right which there was none to dispute—to publish a broad sheet in connexion with the London Gazette, whenever they might deem it expedient, which should contain either foreign or domestic matters of interest,—of the knowledge of which some of the King's subjects might wish to be put in early possession. . . . The newspapers of the seventeenth century were permitted, until the time of Charles II., to be published without being licensed by the Government of the day; but in the reign of that despotic sovereign, a law was passed [1662] prohibiting the publication of any newspaper without being duly licensed. . . . Sir John Birkenhead, . . . one of the three men whom Disraeli the elder called the fathers of the English press, was appointed to the office of Licensor of the Press. But he was soon succeeded by Sir Roger L'Estrange."

J. Grant, *Newspaper press*, v. 1, ch. 2.—Roger L'Estrange "is remarkable for having been the writer of the best newspapers which appeared before the age of Queen Anne, and, at the same time, a most bitter enemy to the freedom of the press. He was appointed licenser or censor in 1663, and in the same year was given authority to publish all newspapers, periodicals, and pamphlets, not exceeding two sheets in size. He appears to have looked upon his newspaper as a noxious thing, suffered to exist only that an income might be created for him in return for the labour of purging the press. Yet he spared no pains to make his Public Intelligencer readable, and if we may trust his letters now preserved at the State Paper Office, expended in the first year more than £500 on 'spyes for collecting intelligence.' Three years afterwards he estimated the profits at £400 a year. . . . He sent paid correspondents, or 'spyes' as they were called, to all parts of the country, and even induced some respectable persons, under promise of concealing their names, to contribute occasional paragraphs; these persons were for the most part repaid by sending to them their newspapers and letters free of postage. Another set of 'spyes' was employed in picking up the news of the town on Paul's Walk or in the taverns and coffee-houses. L'Estrange printed about sixteen reams of his Intelligencer weekly, which were for the most part sold by the mercury-women who cried them about the streets. One Mrs. Andrews is said to have taken more than one-third of the whole quantity printed. . . . Advantage was taken of a slip in the weekly intelligence to deprive L'Estrange of his monopoly in favour of the new Oxford Gazette, published in the winter of 1665 and transferred to London in the ensuing spring. The Gazette was placed under the control of Williamson, then a rising under-Secretary of State, under whose austere influence nothing was suffered to appear which could excite or even amuse the public. . . . L'Estrange has not been a favourite with historians, and we confess that his harsh measures towards the press are apt to raise a feeling of repugnance. . . . But he was certainly an enthusiastic and industrious writer, who raised the tone of the press, even while taking pains to fetter its liberty. When he lost his monopoly, that era of desolation began which Macaulay has so forcibly described. The newspapers became completely sterile, omitting events even of such importance as the trial of the seven bishops, and were supplanted in popular favour by the manuscript news-letters, which were, in fact, the only journals of importance. On the day after the abdication of James II. three fresh newspapers appeared, and many more burst out after the appearance of the official journal under the style of the Orange Gazette. But it was not until 1694 that the king was induced to abolish the censorship and to permit free trade in news; 'he doubted much,' says Hume, 'of the salutary effects of such unlimited freedom.' The newspapers increased and multiplied exceedingly for the eighteen years between the abolition of the office of licenser and the passing of the Stamp Act, in 1712, by which a halfpenny tax was laid on every half-sheet of intelligence."—*Early English newspapers* (Cornhill Magazine, July, 1868).

1685-1693.—William Bradford and his press in Philadelphia and New York.—William Bradford, a young printer, of the Society of Friends, came to Philadelphia in the autumn of 1685, and established himself in business. "His first publication was 'Kalendarium Pennsilvaniense, or Amer-

ica's Messenger; Being an Almanack for the Year of Grace 1686.' This brought him a summons before the Governor and Council, for referring to the Proprietary, in the table of chronology, as 'Lord Penn;' and, on his appearance, he was ordered to blot out the objectionable title, and forbidden to print anything without license from the Provincial Council. In 1687 he was cautioned by the Philadelphia meeting not to print anything touching the Quakers without its approval. Two years later he was again called before the Governor, and Council—this time for printing the charter of the province. . . . Disappointed at the non-fulfilment of Penn's promise of the government printing and the failure of his scheme for printing an English Bible, which, although indorsed by the meeting, found few subscribers, and harassed by both the civil and religious authorities, Bradford determined to leave the province," which he did, with his family, sailing to England in 1689. He was induced, however, by promises of increased business and a yearly salary of £40, to return. In 1692, having become one of the supporters of George Keith, and having printed Keith's "Appeal" (see PENNSYLVANIA: 1692-1696), he was arrested and imprisoned. This occurred in August, and his trial followed in December. The jury disagreed, and he was held for appearance at the next court. "In the meantime the dissensions in the province aroused by the Keithian schism had led to the abrogation of Penn's charter by the crown, and the appointment of Benjamin Fletcher to be Royal Governor of Pennsylvania as well as New York." This change led to the dropping of proceedings against Bradford, and to his removal from Philadelphia to New York, whither he seems to have been invited. His removal was undoubtedly prompted by a resolution which the Provincial Council of New York adopted on the 23d of March, 1693: "That if a Printer will come and settle in the city of New York for the printing of our Acts of Assembly and Publick Papers, he shall be allowed the sum of £40 current money of New York per annum for his salary and have the benefit of his printing besides what serves the publick."—Based on C. R. Hildeburn, *Printing in New York in the seventeenth century (Memorial History of the City of New York, v. 1, ch. 15.)*

ALSO IN: I. Thomas, *History of printing in America, 2d ed., v. 1.*

1695.—Expiration of censorship law in England.—Quick multiplication of newspapers.—"While the Licensing Act was in force there was no newspaper in England except the 'London Gazette,' which was edited by a clerk in the office of the Secretary of State, and which contained nothing but what the Secretary of State wished the nation to know. There were indeed many periodical papers: but none of those papers could be called a newspaper. Welwood, a zealous Whig, published a journal called the *Observer*: but his *Observer*, like the *Observer* which Lestrangle had formerly edited, contained, not the news, but merely dissertations on politics. A crazy bookseller, named John Dunton, published the *Athenian Mercury*: but the *Athenian Mercury* merely discussed questions of natural philosophy, of casuistry and of gallantry. A fellow of the Royal Society, named John Houghton, published what he called a *Collection for the Improvement of Industry and Trade*: but his *Collection* contained little more than the prices of stocks, explanations of the modes of doing business in the City, puffs of new projects, and advertisements of books,

quack medicines, chocolate, Spa water, civet cats, surgeons wanting ships, valets wanting masters, and ladies wanting husbands. If ever he printed any political news, he transcribed it from the *Gazette*. The *Gazette* was so partial and so meagre a chronicle of events that, though it had no competitors, it had but a small circulation. . . . But the deficiencies of the *Gazette* were to a certain extent supplied in London by the coffee-houses, and in the country by the news-letters. On the third of May 1695 the law which had subjected the press to a censorship expired. Within a fortnight, a staunch old Whig, named Harris, who had, in the days of the Exclusion Bill, attempted to set up a newspaper entitled *Intelligence Domestic and Foreign*, and who had been speedily forced to relinquish that design, announced that the *Intelligence Domestic and Foreign*, suppressed fourteen years before by tyranny, would again appear. Ten days later was printed the first number of the *English Courant*. Then came the *Packet Boat* from Holland and Flanders, the *Pegasus*, the *London Newsletter*, the *London Post*, the *Flying Post*, the *Old Postmaster*, the *Postboy*, and the *Postman*. The history of the newspapers of England from that time . . . is a most interesting and instructive part of the history of the country. At first they were small and mean-looking. . . . Only two numbers came out in a week; and a number contained little more matter than may be found in a single column of a daily paper of our time."—T. B. Macaulay, *History of England, ch. 21.*

1704-1729.—First newspapers in America.—"There was not a newspaper published in the English colonies, throughout the extensive continent of North America, until the 24th of April, 1704. John Campbell, a Scotchman, who was a bookseller and postmaster in Boston, was the first who began and established a publication of this kind. It was entitled 'The Boston Newsletter.' . . . It is printed on half a sheet of pot paper, with a small pica type, folio. The first page is filled with an extract from 'The London Flying Post,' respecting the pretender. . . . The queen's speech to both houses of parliament on that occasion, a few articles under the Boston head, four short paragraphs of marine intelligence from New York, Philadelphia, and New London, and one advertisement, form its whole contents. The advertisement is from Campbell, the proprietor of the paper." In 1719, a rival paper was started in Boston, called the "*Gazette*," and in 1721, a third, founded by James Franklin, took the name of "The New England Courant." Meantime there had appeared at Philadelphia, on the 22nd of December, 1710,—only one day later than the second of the Boston newspapers—"The American Weekly Mercury," printed by Andrew Bradford, son of William Bradford. The same printer, Andrew Bradford, removing to New York, brought out "The New York Gazette," the first newspaper printed in that city, in October, 1725.—I. Thomas, *History of printing in America, v. 2, p. 12, and after.*—"In 1740, the number of newspapers in the English colonies on the continent had increased to eleven, of which one appeared in South Carolina, one in Virginia, three in Pennsylvania—one of them being in German—one in New York, and the remaining five in Boston. . . . The New England 'Courant,' the fourth American periodical, was, in August 1721, established by James Franklin as an organ of independent opinion. Its temporary success was advanced by Benjamin, his brother and apprentice, a boy of

fifteen, who wrote for its columns, worked in composing the types as well as printing off the sheets, and, as carrier, distributed the papers to the customers. The sheet satirized hypocrisy, and spoke of religious knaves as of all knaves the worst. This was described as tending 'to abuse the ministers of religion in a manner which was intolerable.' . . . In July 1722, a resolve passed the council, appointing a censor for the press of James Franklin; but the house refused its concurrence. The ministers persevered; and, in January 1723, a committee of inquiry was raised by the legislature. Benjamin, being examined, escaped with an admonition; James, the publisher, refusing to discover the author of the offence, was kept in jail for a month; his paper was censured as reflecting injuriously on the reverend ministers of the gospel; and, by vote of the house and council, he was forbidden to print it, 'except it be first supervised.' Vexed at the arbitrary proceedings, Benjamin Franklin, then but seventeen years old, in October 1723, sailed clandestinely for New York. Finding there no employment, he crossed to Amboy; went on foot to the Delaware; for want of a wind, rowed in a boat from Burlington to Philadelphia; and bearing marks of his labor at the oar, weary, hungry, having for his whole stock of cash a single dollar, the runaway apprentice—the pupil of the free schools of Boston, rich in the boundless hope of youth and the unconscious power of modest genius—stepped on shore to seek food and occupation. On the deep foundations of sobriety, frugality and industry, the young journeyman built his fortunes and fame; and he soon came to have a printing-office of his own. . . . The assembly of Pennsylvania chose him its printer. He planned a newspaper [the 'Pennsylvania Gazette']; and, when [1729] he became its proprietor and editor, he defended freedom of thought and speech, and the inalienable power of the people."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States of America*, v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 15.

ALSO IN: J. Parton, *Life of Franklin*, v. 1, pt. 1-2.—B. Franklin, *Life of himself* (J. Bigelow, ed., pt. 1).

1709-1752.—Periodicals of the essayists.—The "Tatler," "Spectator," and their successors.—"In the spring of 1709, Steele [Sir Richard] formed a literary project, of which he was far indeed from foreseeing the consequences. Periodical papers had during many years been published in London. Most of these were political; but in some of them questions of morality, taste, and love-casuistry had been discussed. The literary merit of these works was small indeed; and even their names are now known only to the curious. Steele had been appointed gazetteer by Sunderland, at the request, it is said, of Addison; and thus had access to foreign intelligence earlier and more authentic than was in those times within the reach of an ordinary news-writer. This circumstance seems to have suggested to him the scheme of publishing a periodical paper on a new plan. It was to appear on the days on which the post left London for the country, which were, in that generation, the Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays. It was to contain the foreign news, accounts of theatrical representations, and the literary gossip of Will's and of the Grecian. It was also to contain remarks on the fashionable topics of the day, compliments to beauties, pasquinades on noted sharpers, and criticisms on popular preachers. The aim of Steele does not appear to have been at first higher than this. . . . Isaac Bickerstaff, Esquire, Astrologer, was an imaginary person, almost as well known in

that age as Mr. Paul Pry or Mr. Pickwick in ours. Swift had assumed the name of Bickerstaff in a satirical pamphlet against Partridge, the almanac-maker. Partridge had been fool enough to publish a furious reply. Bickerstaff had rejoined in a second pamphlet still more diverting than the first. All the wits had combined to keep up the joke, and the town was long in convulsions of laughter. Steele determined to employ the name which this controversy had made popular; and, in April, 1709, it was announced that Isaac Bickerstaff, Esquire, Astrologer, was about to publish a paper called the 'Tatler.' Addison had not been consulted about this scheme; but as soon as he heard of it, he determined to give it his assistance. The effect of that assistance cannot be better described than in Steele's own words. 'I fared,' he said, 'like a distressed prince who calls in a powerful neighbour to his aid. I was undone by my auxiliary. When I had once called him in, I could not subsist without dependence on him.' 'The paper,' he says elsewhere, 'was advanced indeed. It was raised to a greater thing than I intended it.'—T. B. Macaulay, *Life and writings of Addison (Essays)*.—Steele, on the 12th of April 1709, issued the first number of the 'Tatler.' . . . This famous newspaper, printed in one folio sheet of 'tobacco paper' with 'scurvy letter,' ran to 271 numbers, and abruptly ceased to appear in January 1711. It enjoyed an unprecedented success, for, indeed, nothing that approached it had ever before been issued from the periodical press in England. . . . Of the 271 'Tatlers,' 188 were written by Steele, 42 by Addison, and 36 by both conjointly. Three were from the pen of John Hughes. . . . These, at least, are the numbers usually given, but the evidence on which they are based is slight. . . . Less than two months after the cessation of the 'Tatler' there appeared the first number of a still more famous common enterprise, the 'Spectator,' on the 1st of March 1711. It was announced to appear daily, and was to be composed of the reflections and actions of the members of an imaginary club, formed around 'Mr. Spectator.' In this club the most familiar figure is the Worcestershire Knight, Sir Roger de Coverley, the peculiar property of Addison. . . . The 'Spectator' continued to appear daily until December 1712. It consisted of 555 numbers, of which Addison wrote 274, Steele 236, Hughes 19, and Pope 1 (The Messiah, 'Spectator' 378). Another contributor was Eustance Budgell (1685-1736), Addison's cousin. . . . The 'Spectator' enjoyed so very unequivocal a success that it has puzzled historians to account for its discontinuance. In No. 517 Addison killed Sir Roger de Coverley 'that nobody else might murder him.' This shows a voluntary intention to stop the publication, which the Stamp Act itself had not been able to do by force."—E. Gosse, *History of eighteenth century literature*, ch. 6.—"After this, in 1713, came the 'Guardian'; and in 1714 an eighth volume of the 'Spectator' was issued by Addison alone. He was also the sole author of the 'Freeholder,' 1715, which contains the admirable sketch of the 'Tory Foxhunter.' Steele, on his side, followed up the 'Guardian' by the 'Lover,' the 'Reader,' and half-a-dozen abortive efforts; but his real successes, as well as those of Addison, were in the three great collections for which they worked together. . . . Between the 'Guardian' of 1713 and the 'Rambler' of 1750-2 there were a number of periodical essayists of varying merit. It is scarcely necessary to recall the names of these now forgotten 'Intelligencers,'

'Moderators,' 'Remembrancers,' and the like, the bulk of which were political. . . . Another of Fielding's enterprises in the 'Spectator' vein was the 'Covent Garden Journal' 1752. . . . Concurrently with the 'Covent Garden Journal' appeared the final volume of Johnson's 'Rambler,' a work upon the cardinal defect of which its author laid his finger, when, in later life, he declared it to be 'too wordy.' . . . In the 'Idler,' however, which belongs to a later date, when its author's mind was unclouded, and he was comparatively free from the daily pressure of necessity, he adopts a simpler and less polysyllabic style."—A. Dobson, *Eighteenth century essays, introduction*.

1712.—First Stamp tax on newspapers in England.—The first stamp tax on newspapers in England went into effect on the 12th day of August, 1712. "An act had passed the legislature, that 'for every pamphlet or paper contained in half a sheet, or lesser piece of paper so printed, the sum of one halfpenny sterling: and for every such pamphlet or paper being larger than half a sheet, and not exceeding one whole sheet, so printed, a duty after the rate of one penny sterling for every sheet printed thereof.' This act, which was to curb the licentiousness of the press, was to be in force for the space of thirty-two years, to be reckoned from the 10th day of June, 1712. Addison, in the 'Spectator' of this day, says, 'this is the day on which many eminent authors will probably publish their last works. . . . The stamp mark upon the newspapers was a rose and thistle joined by the stalks, and enclosing between the Irish shamrock, the whole three were surmounted by a crown. . . . It is curious to observe what an effect this trifling impost had upon the circulation of the most favourite papers. Many were entirely discontinued, and several of those which survived were generally united into one publication. The bill operated in a directly contrary manner to what the ministers had anticipated; for the opposition, who had more leisure, and perhaps more acrimony of feeling, were unanimous in the support of their cause. . . . For some reason, which we have not been able to trace, the stamp-duties were removed shortly after their imposition, and were not again enforced until 1725. In order to understand how so small a duty as one halfpenny should operate so strongly upon these periodical publications, we must look at the price at which they were vended at that period. The majority of them were published at a penny, many at a halfpenny, and some were even published so low as a farthing."—C. H. Timperley, *Encyclopædia of literary and typographical anecdote*, pp. 601-602.

1723.—End of newspaper monopoly in France.—"Until Louis XVI. was dethroned, Paris was officially supposed to possess but three periodicals: the 'Gazette de France' for politics, 'Le Journal des Savants' for literature and science, and the 'Mercure de France' for politics, literature, and social matters mingled. For a time these monopolies were respected, but only for a very short time. . . . During the Regency of the Duke of Orleans (1715-23), the 'Gazette de France,' 'Mercure,' and 'Journal des Savants' combined to bring an action for infringement against all the papers then existing, but they were non-suited on a technical objection; and this was their last attempt at asserting their prerogative."—*French press (Cornhill Magazine, Oct., 1873)*.

1734.—Zenger's trial in New York.—Vindication of freedom of the press. See NEW YORK: 1720-1734.

1771.—Freedom of parliamentary reporting won in England. See ENGLAND: 1771.

1777.—First daily newspaper in France.—"In 1777 there appeared the 'Journal de Paris,' which only deserves notice from its being the first daily paper issued in France."—*Westminster Review, July, 1860*, p. 219.

1784-1813.—Earliest daily newspapers in the United States.—"The first daily newspaper published in the United States was the 'American Daily Advertiser.' It was issued in Philadelphia in 1784, by Benjamin Franklin Bache, afterwards of the Aurora. When the seat of national government was in Philadelphia, it shared the confidence and support of Jefferson with the 'National Gazette.' It was strong in its opposition to the Federal section of the administration of Washington, and to all the measures originating with Hamilton. Zachariah Poulson became its proprietor and publisher in 1802, and it was known as 'Poulson's Advertiser,' and we believe he continued its publisher till October 28, 1830, when the establishment was sold to Brace and Newbold, the publishers of a new paper called the 'North American.' The name after that was the 'North American and Daily Advertiser.' . . . The 'New York Daily Advertiser,' the second real journal in the United States, was published in 1785. It was commenced on the 1st of March by Francis Childs & Co. . . . On the 29th of July, 1786, the 'Pittsburg (Penn.) Gazette,' the first newspaper printed west of the Alleghany Mountains, appeared, and in 1796 the 'Post' was issued. . . . 'The United States Gazette' was started in New York in 1789 by John Fenno, of Boston. Its original name was 'Gazette of the United States.' It was first issued in New York, because the seat of the national government was then in that city. When Congress removed to Philadelphia in 1790, the 'Gazette' went with that body. In 1792 it was the special organ of Alexander Hamilton. . . . Noah Webster, the lexicographer of America, was a lawyer in 1793, and had an office in Hartford, Connecticut. Washington's administration was then violently assailed by the 'Aurora,' 'National Gazette,' and other organs of the Republican Party, and by the partisans of France. Jefferson was organizing the opposition elements, and Hamilton was endeavoring to strengthen the Federal party. Newspapers were established on each side as the chief means of accomplishing the objects each party had in view. Noah Webster was considered, in this state of affairs, the man to aid the Federalists journalistically in New York. He was, therefore, induced to remove to that city and take charge of a Federal organ. On the 9th of December, 1793, he issued the first number of a daily paper, which was named the 'Minerva.' According to its imprint, it appeared 'every day, Sundays excepted, at four o'clock, or earlier if the arrival of the mail will permit.' . . . With the 'Minerva' was connected a semi-weekly paper called the 'Herald.' . . . The names of 'Minerva' and 'Herald' were shortly changed to those of 'Commercial Advertiser' and 'New York Spectator.' . . . The first prominent daily paper issued in New England was the Boston Daily Advertiser, the publication of which was commenced on the 3d of March, 1813. There was a daily paper begun in that city on the 6th of October, 1796, by Alexander Martin, and edited by John O'Leary Burk, one of the 'United Irishmen.' It lived about six months. It was called the Polar Star and Boston Daily Advertiser. Another was attempted on the 1st of January, 1798, by Caleb P. Wayne, who was

afterwards editor of the United States Gazette of Philadelphia. This second daily paper of Boston was named the Federal Gazette and Daily Advertiser. It lived three months. The third attempt at a daily paper in the capital of Massachusetts was a success. It was published by William W. Clapp, afterwards of the Saturday Evening Gazette, and edited by Horatio Biglow."—F. Hudson, *Journalism in the United States*, pp. 175-194, 378.

1785-1812.—Founding of "The Times" in London.—"Morning Chronicle" and leading articles.—"The [London] newspaper afterwards famous as 'The Times' was started, in 1785, under the name of the 'Daily Universal Register,' and did not adopt the title of 'The Times' until the 1st of January, 1788."—J. Grant, *Newspaper press*, v. 1, ch. 16.—"All the newspapers that can be said to have been distinguished in any way till the appearance of the 'Times' were distinguished by some freak of cleverness. . . . The 'Times' took up a line of its own from the first day of its existence. The proprietors staked their fortunes upon the general character of their paper, the promptitude and accuracy of its intelligence, upon its policy, upon the frank and independent spirit of its comments on public men. . . . The chief proprietor of the 'Times' was John Walter—a man who knew nothing or next to nothing of newspaper work, but who knew precisely what the public wanted in a newspaper, and possessed, with this instinct and intelligence, the determination and enterprise which constitute the character of a successful man of business. . . . 'The Times,' in its original shape, consisted merely of the day's news, a few advertisements, some market quotations, perhaps a notice of a new book, a few scraps of gossip, and in the session, a Parliamentary report. The 'Morning Chronicle' had the credit . . . of inventing the leading article, as it had the credit of inventing Parliamentary reporting. The 'Morning Chronicle,' on the 12th of May, 1791, published a paragraph, announcing that 'the great and firm body of the Whigs of England, true to their principles, had decided on the dispute between Mr. Fox and Mr. Burke, in favor of Mr. Fox, as the representative of the pure doctrines of Whiggery,' and that in consequence of this resolution Mr. Burke would retire from Parliament. It was very short, but this paragraph is the nearest approximation that is to be found in the newspapers of that time to a leading article. . . . The idea soon became popular; and in the 'Morning Post' and the 'Courier' the leading article, developed as it was by Coleridge and Macintosh into a work of art, often rivalling in argument, wit, and eloquence the best speeches in Parliament, became the object of quite as much interest as the Parliamentary reports themselves. The 'Times,' knowing how to appropriate one by one all the specialties of its contemporaries, and to improve upon what it appropriated, was one of the first newspapers to adopt the idea of leading articles, and in adopting that idea, to improve upon it by stamping its articles with a spirit of frankness and independence which was all its own. . . . The reign of John Walter, practically the founder of the 'Times,' ended in the year 1812, and upon his death his son, the second John Walter, took possession of Printing House Square, and, acting in the spirit of his father, with ampler means, soon made the 'Times' the power in the State that it has been from that day to this."—C. Pebody, *English journalism*, pp. 92-99.

19th century.—Experiments with typewriters.—Type for the blind. See INVENTIONS: 19th cen-

tury: Typewriter; EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Blind.

1817.—Trials of William Hone. See ENGLAND: 1816-1820.

1830-1833.—First penny papers in the United States.—"The Penny Press of America dates from 1833. There were small and cheap papers published in Boston and Philadelphia before and about that time. The Bostonian was one. The Cent, in Philadelphia, was another. The latter was issued by Christopher C. Cornwall in 1830. These and all similar adventures were not permanent. Most of them were issued by printers when they had nothing else to do. Still they belonged to the class of cheap papers. The idea came from the Illustrated Penny Magazine, issued in London in 1830. . . . The Morning Post was the first penny paper of any pretensions in the United States. It was started on New-Year's Day, 1833, as a two-cent paper, by Dr. Horatio David Shepard, with Horace Greeley and Francis V. Story as partners, printers, and publishers. . . . After one week's trial, with the exhaustion of the capital, the original idea of Dr. Shepard, his dream of the previous year 1832 was attempted, and the price reduced to one cent; but it was too late. . . . This experiment, however, was the seed of the Cheap Press. It had taken root. On Tuesday, the 3d of September, in the same year 1833, the first number of the Sun was issued by Benjamin H. Day."—F. Hudson, *Journalism in the United States*, pp. 416-417.

1848.—German laws made more lenient. See CENSORSHIP: Germany.

1850-1922.—Growth of publishing houses in America.—"Before the Revolution there were not in the [American] Colonies any publishers who were not also printers and booksellers, and it was only gradually thru later years that publishing came to be a distinct and specialized calling. Benjamin Franklin, tho he has long been adopted into the publishers' guild, was in fact a printer rather than a publisher. Up to 1820, Isaiah Thomas and Matthew Carey were the only names of first importance and wide activity in the annals of American publishing. Isaiah Thomas for many years issued from his great publishing house in Worcester, most of the Bibles and school-books and other general literature in New England; he imported the first font of music type that was used in . . . [the United States]; he wrote the first American history of printing; and he founded the American Antiquarian Society and endowed it with large bequests. Matthew Carey had a career even more active and influential. . . . Carey was what we would call to-day an enterprising general publisher. He had a vision for aims and methods far ahead of his day, for he sought to organize and stimulate the book-trade, was first president of the short-lived American Company of Booksellers, and planned the 'literary fairs,' of which one was held in New York in 1802, much like the Marshall Field and Wanamaker's and other book-trade fairs of the present [1922]. . . . Until 1817 he had no rivals; but in that year a sturdy Methodist farmer lad from Long Island set up a small printing press in a narrow brick house in old New York; his three sturdy young Methodist farmer brothers joined him there; and by 1820, when Sydney Smith swept the American horizon with a glance and found it void, the infant firm of Harper Brothers was vigorously at work for the future transformation of the landscape. Within fifteen years from 1822 the Harpers had been reinforced

by Charles Wiley; . . . by Daniel Appleton; by the indefatigable young George Palmer Putnam; by Moses Dodd; and in Boston by the new fledged firm of Little and Brown—and the foundations of modern American book production had been firmly laid. To present in a brief comprehensive survey so great a subject needs broad strokes of generalization. We may, . . . in such generalization, consider the beginnings of modern American book production as coming within the fifty years, 1800 to 1850; and its development as falling in two broad divisions, pre-international copyright, which brings us to 1890; and post-international copyright, from 1890 to the present [1922]. . . . In 1891, after nearly thirty years of effort, the first international copyright law was enacted by Congress, and American book-making entered upon its second period of development. In the long struggle for copyright the publishing world had been divided into two opposing camps, the Putnam firm heading the advocates of this step toward honesty and justice and the House of Harper leading the opposition, with commercial and educational arguments. By the 1891 act, copyright protection was extended to transatlantic authors whose countries gave reciprocal protection to American authors. . . . The effect of international copyright upon American book production was a stimulating one. It encouraged native literature, giving a fairer field and greater prospects of reward to American writers. It developed the mechanical side of book-making, in its greater control of the market. It greatly increased the price of books; and of course it checked and finally exterminated the cheap paper reprints of current English literature. . . . Then came the war years, 1914 to 1918—a strange and terrible period to look back upon now, with their increasing tensivity, their transformation of our world, at first gradually, then holding us in unescapable grip. American book production dropped over two thousand volumes in 1915, the first full war year. It regained a little ground in the two following years, but in 1917 when the United States entered the war it fell still lower. . . . Tho probably a dozen new general firms of importance have come into the field since 1914, there has been more intensification than extension of activities. Our leading general publishers are still those whose names are part of American book history—Harper; Little, Brown; Holt; Houghton; Macmillan; Dodd, Mead; Appleton; Scribner; and the rest of the familiar company. None of these have been discontinued. In spite of economic difficulties there has been no serious failure in the publishing world for nearly a quarter-century. The general firms of more recent development—Dutton, Doran, Doubleday, Knopf, Boni and Liveright, Harcourt—have found stability and success. Publishing is centering more and more in New York in its literary activities, but on the mechanical side the great book-making plants are being transferred to suburban locations. . . . Another factor in this development is the rise of the university presses. Few of us realize that the first of these was the Chicago University Press, founded in 1892, in which year it issued two books and a few pamphlets. At present it has a list of 900 publications; and its work is paralleled or exceeded by a dozen other American university presses.”—H. E. Haines, *Books and book-making in the United States* (*Library Journal*, Sept. 1, 1922).

1853-1870.—Extinction of taxes on newspapers in England.—Penny papers.—Rise of the

provincial daily press.—“In 1853 the advertisement duty was repealed; in 1855 the obligatory newspaper stamp was abolished, and in 1861, with the repeal of the paper duty, the last check upon the unrestrained journalism was taken away. As a matter of course, the resulting increase in the number of newspapers has been very great as well as the resulting diminution in their price. . . . When it was seen that the trammels of journalism were about to be loosed the penny paper came into existence. The ‘Daily Telegraph,’ the first newspaper published at that price, was established in June, 1855.”—T. G. Bowles, *Newspapers* (*Fortnightly Review*, July 1, 1884).—“With the entire freedom from taxation began the modern era of the daily press. At this time [1861] London had nine or ten daily newspapers, with the ‘Times’ in the lead. . . . Up to the time of the abolition of the stamp duties, London was the only city [in England] which had a daily press; but between 1855 and 1870 a large number of newspapers published in the provincial cities, which had hitherto been issued in weekly or bi-weekly form, made their appearance as daily journals.”—E. Porritt, *Englishman at home*, ch. 13.

1861-1865.—Censorship of newspapers during American Civil War.—“From the outset of the [Civil] war a censorship existed. Its habitat varied, for at different times it resided with the Treasury, War, and State departments. Though this censorship was so partial and feeble as to be ineffective, yet the . . . newspaper men complained of unreasonable strictness in the censoring of their despatches, of an unequal policy which benefited some papers at the expense of others, and of an occasional looseness which resulted in unfortunate ‘leaks.’ . . . In harmony with complaints . . . from the newspaper world, the Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives, charged with an investigation of the telegraphic censorship, reported that wholesome political discussion and criticism were restrained, that numerous despatches were suppressed, that the censor was unequal to his position, and that censorship had been carried too far. As early as August 2, 1861, an attempt was made to obviate the necessity of undue official interference by the establishment of a sort of ‘gentlemen’s agreement’ between the government and the press. . . . After considerable experimentation, an administrative policy of news control was ultimately evolved. The censoring function was transferred from the State to the War Department, and it was ordered that, beginning with February 2, 1862, the President, by virtue of congressional authorization, would establish a military supervision of all telegraphic lines in the United States. All telegraphic communications touching military matters not authorized by the Secretary of War, or the commanding general of the district, were forbidden. . . . In the sifting of news the American Telegraph Company co-operated with the government, requiring oaths of secrecy and allegiance from employees and allowing no access to the messages or the operating rooms except to those duly authorized by the government telegraph manager. No unofficial messages conveying military information were transmitted by wire, and news-writers were forced to bring in their war stories in person, to employ a messenger, or to use the mails. As a further precaution communications were sent in code, the cipher operator constituting at all times an important medium between officers. . . . When abuse of the government was in question, there seemed to be no adequate way of

securing action by judicial process against offending journals. There was, it is true, a law which severely punished anyone who resisted the draft or counseled resistance, and the Treason Act of July 17, 1862 (*i.e.*, the second confiscation act), was sufficiently comprehensive to include those who gave aid and comfort to the enemy through the expression of disloyal sentiments. The occasional grand jury indictments against editors, however, brought no results, as none of the cases reached the point of a judicial conviction. . . . Considering these limitations upon judicial and legislative action, it became necessary for the Executive to resort to extraordinary constitutional grounds and to the plea of military necessity whenever newspaper abuse reached such a pass as to call for really vigorous action. Though the arrest of editors and the suppression of papers would have been appropriate under a régime of martial law, or in a district under military occupation, yet such action under the actual circumstances was hard to justify, except on the principle that the supremacy of the government was an imperative necessity. The protection under the Indemnity Act of officers who acted under the President's orders amounted to a recognition of the unusual character of these proceedings. The difficulty of enforcing such measures was well illustrated in the case of the suppression of the *New York World* in May, 1864. The *World* had published on May 18, in company with other papers, a bogus proclamation of the President which implied an admission of Union disaster in recent military operations, set a day for fasting, and called for a draft of 400,000 men. General Dix, under orders from Washington, seized the offices of the *World* and *Journal of Commerce*, and their publication was suspended for three days. The editors protested against this measure of military repression in a district not under martial law, and a chorus of indignant denunciation of the act arose in the editorial columns of other newspapers in New York and elsewhere. Proceedings in the city court were instituted against General Dix, and Governor Seymour intervened to have these proceedings quashed. Here was an interesting conflict between state and federal authority, an attempt by a state to hold a high officer of the nation to judicial accountability for what was regarded as a usurpation and an infringement upon private rights. The order of the President, however, was pleaded by the defendant and the case never resulted in a conviction. So strong was the opposition to the suppression that the precedent could hardly be regarded as a fortunate one to follow. . . . One of the prominent arrests was that of F. Key Howard, editor and proprietor of the *Baltimore Exchange*, which was open in its sympathy for the cause of secession. With other Baltimore editors Howard was seized and placed in confinement with the 'prisoners of state' in Fort Lafayette. After some months of confinement he was released by order of the War Department. On the morrow of Howard's arrest the *Exchange* declared in an indignant editorial that the unrestricted right of the press to discuss and condemn the war policy of the government is identical with the freedom of the people to do the same thing, and continued to express its disapproval of the war. The attack upon the paper caused it to gain rather than lose in the popular estimation. A study of the various instances of governmental repression in the case of newspapers will reveal not so much that the penalties were excessive in view of the offense committed as that the means were ill adapted to

the end desired. Popular pressure, rather than governmental repression was, after all, the most effective method by which the journals could be kept within bounds. . . . Viewing the whole period of the war [1861-1865], and taking account of all parts of the country, it appears that the actual governmental interference with the freedom of the press was comparatively slight. . . . There was during the war no real suppression of opinion."—J. G. Randall, *Newspaper during the Civil War* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1918).—See also CENSORSHIP: United States.

1861-1917.—Rapid growth of newspapers in the United States.—News instead of opinion.—Great editors.—"Only when free thought went into partnership with steam and electricity did the modern newspaper become possible. It is not strange, therefore, that the United States surpasses all other lands in the number, the excellence, the influence, and the prosperity of its newspapers. . . . One might almost name the day that saw Fort Sumter fired upon. The civil war made the Americans a nation of newspaper readers. . . . Since the moment when this new era began, there has never been a time when mechanical invention failed to keep pace with the increasing demands of practical journalism. . . . Not until 1704 did a newspaper become established in the New World. . . . It required nearly thirty years to increase these four papers to nine. In 1776 the number was thirty-seven, including one semi-weekly. The revolution was fought and independence won without a single daily newspaper. . . . At the opening of the nineteenth century there were two hundred newspapers in the United States, with daily editions in only four or five cities. After another decade the number had increased to three hundred and sixty, of which more than twenty were dailies. By 1830 the number was one thousand, in spite of the fact that there were as yet no railroads, and no power presses. It is interesting to note how the railroads and the newspapers kept pace with each other in the successive decades. . . . The first noteworthy departure from old-time methods was made by the *New York Herald*, founded by the elder James Gordon Bennett in 1835 on a nominal cash capital of \$500. In his first issue Mr. Bennett announced that his paper would be independent and not a party organ. From the beginning he worked on the theory that the people wanted news rather than views. . . . He secured for his paper the first European news service. He was the first to use illustrations as a news feature. . . . Up to 1861 mechanical invention had followed editorial enterprise with laggard steps, but from that time forward, invention kept pace with all the demands of circulation. The telegraph suddenly came into general use for the transmission of news. . . . War brought great increase of subscriptions. . . . The collection of news was reduced to a system—almost to an exact science—until to-day every event of importance in the world is recorded daily by the press."—E. L. Shuman, *Practical journalism*, pp. 1-2, 4-5, 7-8.—The *Sun* (New York), which in 1833 had appeared as the first one-cent daily, soon attained a circulation of 60,000. The *New York Herald* was also a one-cent paper. It was followed in 1841 by the *New York Tribune*, founded by Horace Greeley; in 1850 by the *New York Times*, founded by Henry J. Raymond; and in 1860 by the *World* (New York). No Sunday editions were issued until 1868. As the output of the daily press has continually increased, so, too, has its character changed.

Whereas, in the days of Greeley, the newspaper reflected the personal views of its editor, it has come to express the views of a party rather than of any one man. Among the great names associated with American journalism are those of James Gordon Bennett, of the *New York Herald*; Charles A. Dana, founder of the *Sun*; Edwin Lawrence Godkin, of the *New York Evening Post*; Horace Greeley, founder of the *New York Tribune*; Joseph Pulitzer of the *World*; Henry Jarvis Raymond, of the *New York Times*; George William Childs of the *Philadelphia Public Ledger*; Henry Woodin Grady, of the *Atlanta Constitution*; Whitelaw Reid, of the *New York Tribune*; Carl Schurz, of the *New York Evening Post*; Thurlow Weed, of the *Albany Evening Journal*; and many other including names which are also written large in literature. "January 1, 1835, there were 1258 daily, semi-weekly and weekly newspapers issued, with the semi-monthly, monthly, and quarterly papers and magazines; the circulation of periodical literature in 1835 must have reached ninety-five million copies."—F. Hudson, *Journalism in the United States*, p. 770.—By 1870, there were in the United States 574 dailies, and 5,871 periodicals of all kinds, compared with 7,642, estimated to be the number issued in all other parts of the world. In 1920 there were in the United States 2,398 daily newspapers, 14,008 weeklies, 487 semi-weeklies, 3,156 monthlies, 293 semi-monthlies, and 670 other periodicals. The total number of United States periodicals in 1900 was 20,806; in 1911, 22,806; in 1916, 23,024; and in 1918, 22,842.

1865-1917.—Associated news services.—American, English, and European agencies.—Supreme Court decisions governing ownership of news.—"Although there are many news agencies of all kinds, which are out and out commercial concerns, buying news and selling it at a profit, it is remarkable that on both sides of the water the leading news supply company is in each case a co-operative concern. In America it is the Associated Press, in the United Kingdom it is the Press Association and they are both organized on similar lines. It was the excessively daring and competitive spirit of American journalism, which in the early forties, brought about the first attempt at co-operation. At that time years before an Atlantic cable was laid competition for European news was limited to sending out fast sailing vessels to meet incoming ships and take the latest news from them. Newspapers vied with one another as to who should sail out the farthest and catch the news soonest, until at last it came to sending fast vessels all the way over to Europe to get the news at its source. Such competition had a sufficiently ridiculous aspect to bring about its own collapse and somewhere about 1850 the New York papers organized a joint service, which while primarily covering European news grew slowly to cover both general news and practically all but the internal news of each city, as subject for competition among newspapers. This was the germ of the Associated Press, which numbers about 700 papers as subscribers and regular members and is certainly the largest newsgathering concern in the world. It is both a news gatherer and a news-trader and also a news exchange between its own members. As an exchange it receives news free from its members and retails it at a low charge. As a trader it buys from the great international foreign news-gatherer, Reuter's Telegram Company and hands over the telegrams to its subscribers. Finally it has its own supplementary

corps of editors and reporters in all important centres. . . . The Press Association [in England] . . . is almost as dominant as the Associated Press in America, but it does not include the London papers. It has for the provinces the same partnership with Reuter, as its cousin in America. The term P.A. is as much in the mouths of newspaper men on the one side as the A.P. is on the other. But it has one feature, as some people think, of superiority over the American organization in that it is a truly co-operative body; it welcomes any new member which wishes to join its membership and except for the London press, which remained voluntarily outside its scope, it includes every newspaper of any position in the country. Reuter . . . was founded by the late Baron Julius de Reuter as a telegraph and foreign news agency business and was turned into a public company in 1865 for the purpose of raising sufficient capital to equip a telegraph cable from England to Germany. This direction of development was subsequently altered and the cable sold and Reuter's name became the trade-mark for semi-official foreign news all over the world. . . . The chief rival [in England] of the Press Association and Reuter is the Central News covering both domestic and foreign intelligence."—G. B. Dibblee, *Newspaper*, pp. 75-76, 78-79.—"There is no more romantic chapter in the history of the 'Street of Ink' than that which treats of the great news agencies. . . . It would be impossible to cite a better proof of this than the rise of the world-famous Reuter Agency. . . . The founder was a young bank clerk, later to become Baron Julius de Reuter. He conceived the idea of anticipating the news which was conveyed by means of mail coaches, and of supplying an accelerated service of information concerning the daily changes in the financial markets to those who cared to subscribe for it, realizing that numbers of people would be only too glad to have such news, so that they could buy and sell with advance information in their possession. There were no cables or telegraphs in those days, and Mr. Reuter purchased a number of carrier pigeons in order to establish communication between Brussels and Aix la Chapelle, where he made his start. The system was extended to other centres as the scheme developed. When the local bourses were closed, the latest prices of bonds, stocks and shares in which the two markets dealt were rapidly copied on to thin sheets of tissue paper. These were placed in silken bags, which were then attached to the necks of the pigeons, and the birds, being thrown into the air, made for their own dovecotes. The bags were at once opened, and the news was copied out and distributed to the subscribers, who received it some hours in advance of the arrival of the mail. Mrs. Reuter used to help her husband in the work of writing out the quotations. When the telegraph was being brought into practical use, Mr. Reuter at once supplemented his pigeon service with the new invention, using the telegraph where possible, and linking up spaces between the telegraphs with the pigeons and relays of horses. . . . Ere long every capital of the Continent was directly connected, and soon after the first cable between Calais and Dover was laid, Mr. Reuter became a naturalised British subject, and transferred his head office to London, which has been the headquarters of the service ever since. . . . As the organisation grew so did the possibilities of further expansion present themselves, and about 1857 Mr. Reuter, having to utilise the services of his agents

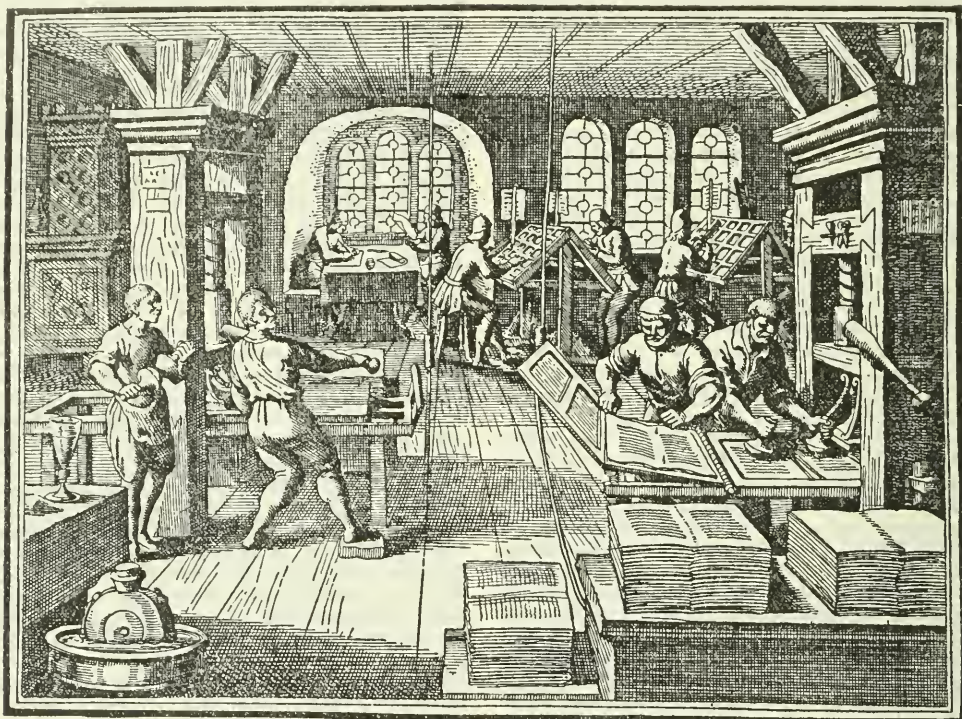
for collecting and transmitting news of interest to the general public, made his historic overtures to Mr. Walter, the proprietor of *The Times*."—H. Simonis, *Street of ink*, pp. 157-159.—"The Associated Press [in America] during the Period of Reconstruction was not an incorporated body, being simply a combination of smaller associations loosely held together through a written agreement for the exchange of news. The New York City Association, as during the Civil War Period [1865], was the clearing house for the smaller branches. . . . The exclusive features of the Associated Press led to the organization of a rival company, the American Press Association, which sold its news to any newspaper on payment of stated weekly charges. . . . At various times discrepancies arose between a local branch and the general association. On one occasion the Western Associated Press withdrew from the general association and tried to maintain an independent and rival news-gathering organization. After a short period of competition, however, the differences were compromised and the Western Associated Press came back into the fold. With a development of new telegraph companies, and with the foundation of new newspapers unable to secure the news service of the Associated Press, came a more formidable competitor known as the United Press. Competition between these two organizations became extremely keen until an agreement was reached by which they worked in harmony and refrained from competing with one another in gathering and distributing the news. In 1892 the Western Associated Press again withdrew from the organization with headquarters at New York and the New York Associated Press was absorbed by the United Press. . . . Later, the Western Associated Press succeeded in obtaining the exclusive use of the news gathered by the Reuter Agency and the United Press was put under a severe handicap in the gathering of European news, so much so that several of the New York, Philadelphia, and certain New England newspapers left the United Press to join the Western Associated Press. The depletion was so great that on April 8, 1897, the United Press was forced to discontinue its services, and between two hundred and three hundred of its members joined the Western Associated Press. Other members formed a bureau, headed by The New York Sun, which practically supplanted the old United Press. The Western Associated Press was incorporated under the Laws of Illinois and had its headquarters at Chicago. Its general manager was Melville E. Stone. . . . On May 23, 1900, the State of New York issued a charter to a corporation known as the Associated Press. The new organization was virtually a continuance of the Western Associated Press which had its headquarters at Chicago. This change was doubtless made because the Supreme Court of Illinois, after a suit had been brought against the Associated Press by The Chicago Inter-ocean to secure the news service of the Association, had handed down a decision . . . [to the effect that the business of the Associated Press has become so charged with public interest, that 'it must submit to be controlled by the public, for the common good'; and that as 'the sole purpose for which news was gathered was that the same should be sold, . . . all newspaper publishers desiring to purchase such news for publication are entitled to purchase the same without discrimination against them]. The Associated Press secured in 1917 a court decision which established the legality of its claims to ownership of its own

story of the news. . . . While the present United Press was organized in June, 1907, it really dates back to the breaking up of the old United Press in 1897, though between the two organizations there is not direct connection. At the time, however, that the discontinuance of the service of the old United Press was announced, several of its members were unable to join the Associated Press and others refused to do so. Among the latter was E. W. Scripps, one of the owners of the Scripps-McRae string of newspapers, published in the Middle West, which had been organized around a nucleus of The Cincinnati Post, the Cleveland Press, and The St. Louis Chronicle. Probably the reason that Scripps did not care to join the Associated Press was the fact that he thought that any papers which his company was planning to establish in other cities would be unable to secure franchises. So he started his own news-gathering organization at about the same time that the newspapers in the East, who were not members of the Associated Press, organized the Publishers' Press, with headquarters in New York. The latter organization was prepared to furnish its service to both morning and evening papers while the former limited its field to the evening dailies. A little later another organization came into existence which furnished a brief 'pony' report of the news to a string of small dailies stretching from Chicago to San Francisco. The three organizations after about ten years saw that strength was in union and organized the present United Press. . . . The United Press differs from the Associated Press in that its services are available to any newspaper which can pay the necessary charges for a leased wire, etc. There is no 'power of protest' such as belongs to the Associated Press."—J. M. Lee, *History of American journalism*, pp. 344, 385-386, 415-417.—"A German agency was founded on January 11, 1849 by Dr. Bernard Wolff. It has been and now is popularly known as the Wolff Agency. Wolff developed chiefly service between Berlin and Vienna and Amsterdam. A little later the French news-gathering company, the Agence Havas, named after its founder, was established to distribute news throughout France. And in 1854 the Stefani Agency was set up in Turin by Guglielmo Stefano, and the Fabra Agency in Madrid. There followed quickly like organizations in almost every European country, and all of them entered into exclusive exchange agreements with each other and with the New York Associated Press. . . . In addition to those mentioned, there were established the Danske Agency in Denmark, the Norsky Agency in Norway, the Svensky Agency in Sweden, the Russian Agency in St. Petersburg, the Agency Balconique in the Balkan states, the Correspondenz Bureau in Vienna. . . . Thus it happens that there is not a place of moment in the habitable globe that is not provided for."—M. E. Stone, *News-gathering*, pp. 16-17, 22.

1871-1900.—Mechanical development of printing.—Early progress slow.—Industry transformed by multiple press, linotype, and wood pulp paper.—"Originally the printer did everything except to make his paper and his press. He designed and cast his type, he made his ink, he edited his manuscript, printed his books, bound them, and, for a time, sold them. . . . He got rid of his type casting about one hundred years after the invention. The type foundry of Guillaume Le Bé, established about 1551, seems to have been the beginning of type founding as a separate industry, although in later years some very large establish-

ments maintained type foundries and even paper mills as incidents of the business; but the printer from this time on began to get his type outside. Bookbinding came to be regarded as a separate industry at about the same time. . . . The ink balls which were used for distributing the ink on types were made by the printers themselves until the ink ball was superseded by the roller with the coming in of modern presses. Even then rollers were made in the shops for a long time. . . . The early paper was hand-made and was thick, with a rough, furrowed surface. It was grayish or yellowish in color and was very strongly water-marked. It was very costly, but very durable. It was heavy and hard to handle, especially as it was handled without mechanical appliances. The early types were irregular in

tive and durable than the old wooden screw), tympan, and frisket were added in 1550, and the so-called Dutch press, which did away with the necessity of raising the platen by a reverse motion of the screw by substituting leverage for it, was introduced in 1620. These were the only improvements of any note which were made before the introduction of the Stanhope press about 1800. Of course, the presses were worked by hand power and it will be seen that the setting up of the screw or the throwing of a lever with sufficient force to insure a good impression was an extremely laborious task."—F. W. Hamilton, *Brief history of printing*, pt. 2, pp. 53-54.—"The story of the mechanical side of the evolution of the newspaper is fully as interesting as that of the intellectual side. . . . Each decade in the latter



INTERIOR OF A SIXTEENTH CENTURY PRINTING ESTABLISHMENT

face and body as the natural result of being cast in hand moulds from hand cut dies. The early types were cast on large bodies and were used without leads. The point system, which reduced type to uniformity and did away with the annoying irregularity in size of the old types, did not come into existence until the middle of the eighteenth century, three hundred years after the invention of printing. Of course, all composition throughout this period was done by hand. Women were employed as compositors as early as 1500, but they apparently disappeared from the industry before long, as we find no evidence of their presence after the reorganization of 1618 or for some time before that. The press was substantially the old screw press of Gutenberg in which the platen was forced down onto the bed by the direct pressure of a screw. A few improvements had been made. A sliding bed was introduced in 1500. A copper screw (more effec-

part of the nineteenth century brought more improvements in printing than all the previous centuries combined. At the time when the elder Bennett started his paper, in 1835, nearly all the newspapers in the country still were printed on hand-presses, one side at a time. . . . Newspaper work has been revolutionized repeatedly by new inventions in the last two-thirds of a century. The chief agencies that did it were the cylinder press, the railroads and telegraph-lines, the multiple press, the stereotyping process, the perfecting press, wood-pulp paper, and the typesetting machine. The first important advance came with the ordinary cylinder press. This was not introduced to any extent until 1832 [though invented in 1811]. It is still in use for the printing of books and country newspapers, though in a greatly improved form. In this the type stands on a flat bed and the paper is printed by passing between it and a heavy roller. With steam-power hitched to such

a press the possibilities of journalism already were becoming great. But the advent of railroads about this time increased the area of circulation a thousandfold. There was need of a swifter machine, and it came in the form of Hoe's 'lightning press' in 1846. It is no exaggeration to say that Richard M. Hoe created a new era in journalism when he showed how type could be placed on a revolving cylinder so that half a dozen men could feed in sheets of paper against it at the same time. With this multiple press came the possibility of addressing many thousands, at the moment of their keenest interest, on the events of the hour. Almost at the same time Morse's electric telegraph had come into existence. Before 1844 a fast pony express service, with relays, had carried the news from Washington to New York in two days. The first telegraph-line to be used for news purpose was that from Washington to Wilmington, which reduced the time between Washington and New York to one day. Hoe's 'lightning press' is antiquated now. Even that machine could not supply the millions of eager readers in the days of the civil war and in the era of industrial and railway expansion that followed. Under this enormous stimulus the mechanical experts bethought themselves of the stereotyping process, which had been discovered many years before but never put into extensive use. By this process the type page is duplicated in solid metal within a few minutes, and any number of plates may be made, so that the same matter can be set to running on a dozen presses at the same time. Here, at last, was the possibility of supplying a circulation of a million if necessary. That possibility took definite shape in Mr. Hoe's wonderful web-perfecting press. The machine was invented in 1871, and has been improved marvelously since then, especially by the application of the multiple principle, which combines six or eight presses in one machine. In its latest form this may justly be regarded as the greatest piece of machinery that the ingenuity of man has created. The octuple press devours the blank paper in four continuous ribbons, prints both sides, and folds, cuts, pastes, and counts out the completed copies at the incredible rate of 96,000 eight-page papers an hour. It requires eighteen months to build one of these presses, and the cost of one machine exceeds the total value of all the newspaper presses in the United States at the beginning of the nineteenth century. To keep pace with such a press the typesetting machine was sure to come. After innumerable experiments, involving infinite toil and wasted fortunes, the chief prize finally fell to Ottmar Mergenthaler's linotype, a machine of amazing ingenuity. Instead of setting type it sets the molds for casting type, dropping them into place as fast as the operator touches the keys, until the line is completed, when the moving of a lever forces molten type metal against the matrices and casts a solid line. The molds distribute themselves automatically and are ready to be used again when the next line is set. With such a machine one man can do the work of five ordinary printers. In fact, an expert can do a week's work in a day."—E. L. Shuman, *Practical journalism*, pp. 9-13.—"In 1887, typesetting was essentially the same art as in the sixteenth century. While other branches of the printing trade had been revolutionized, the compositor had not advanced in his processes beyond the point he had reached four hundred years before. Probably no other handicraft employing such a large number of persons underwent as little change during this period, so full of industrial reconstruction. Since

1890, machine composition has been rapidly supplanting typesetting by hand. The machine is still constantly encroaching on the field of the hand compositor, but the period of introduction may be properly considered as concluded with the year 1900."—G. E. Barnett, *Introduction of the linotype* (Yale Review, Nov. 1904).—"Few readers stop to think that if print paper were still made of rags the modern press could not exist, and we could have no penny papers such as we have. There came a time when even the old cylinder-press began eating up paper at such a rate that all the rags in America and Europe could not keep it going. Paper became costly, and it looked as if a large part of the population would have to go without newspapers. Then came the application of the chemical pulp method to wood, and the presses have been devouring spruce forests at a terrific rate ever since. Now all newspapers are printed on wood-pulp paper, and that is why we can have a daily paper for one or two cents and a Sunday paper weighing a pound for five cents."—E. L. Shuman, *Practical journalism*, p. 13.

1877-1922.—Development of modern English journalism.—"The causes which have been most powerfully operative for the development of newspapers [in Great Britain] were in part economic and in part legislative, and came successively into being during the second decade of the latter half of the Century. They were three in number. The first was the repeal of paper duties by the legislation of 1861, following on the abolition of the newspaper stamp a few years earlier; the second was the vast extension of telegraphic communication with the world beyond seas; the third was the passing of the Education Act of 1870. By the first of these events the commercial conditions of newspaper enterprise, theretofore severely hampered by the cost of materials, were absolutely transformed; by the second the facilities of the newspaper proprietor for filling his cheapened sheet with matter of interest to the community were immensely extended; by the third the newspaper-reading public received—not, of course, immediately, but eventually and progressively in something like a geometric ratio—an enormous increment. Almost on the morrow of the repeal of the paper duties several of the great dailies reduced their price; and the newly founded and painfully struggling penny newspapers sprang almost at once into vigorous life. The brisk competition for news which set in among them from the date of the first permanently successful laying of the Atlantic cable in 1866 has continued with ever-increasing keenness and with the most excellent results for the public. . . . The results of the Education Act of 1870 were, of course, much longer in showing themselves. More than two generations of children, allowing say ten years for each, had to pass through . . . [the] elementary schools before the increment of new readers began to reveal its existence in any very conspicuous way."—H. D. Traill, *Newspaper* (Graphic, v. 61, Mar. 3, 1900).—"The general reader . . . [was] served by . . . [a] class of writers in the nineteenth century in a manner and to a degree quite unparalleled before. There is nothing in the history of British literature as sudden, as brilliant and as clearly marked as the flourishing of journalists in the noon of the Victorian era. Journalism, as the term was understood by its practitioners . . . [in the nineteenth century] was recruited from the foremost writers, and included—in the sense of contributors to the periodical press—men of letters as eminent as Ruskin and statesmen as distinguished as Glad-

stone. The greater novelists, Thackeray, Trollope, George Meredith, and the rest, regularly published instalments in the monthly reviews, and the titles of many collected works, such as Froude's *Short Studies on Great Subjects* and Stephen's *Hours in a Library*, bear witness to their resuscitation from the magazines. It was essentially an epoch of great editors. John Thaddeus Delane (1817-79) was editor of *The Times* from 1841 till 1877, and raised it to the height of its power and influence as 'The Thunderer.' . . . *The Daily News* was founded in 1840, with Charles Dickens as its first editor, and *The Daily Telegraph* in 1855. The *Pall Mall Gazette* evening newspaper was the creation of George Smith (1824-91), the head of the publishing-house of Smith, Elder & Co., who founded in 1859 the *Cornhill Magazine*, first edited by Thackeray, and afterwards by his son-in-law, Sir Leslie Stephen. Stephen was likewise the first editor—afterwards associated with and succeeded by Dr. Sidney Lee—of a later enterprise (1882) of George Smith, *The Dictionary of National Biography*. Frederic Chapman (1823-95), another London publisher, the head of Chapman and Hall, started the *Fortnightly Review* of 1865, and John Morley (now Viscount Morley) and George Meredith have been among its editors. James Anthony Froude (1818-94) edited *Fraser's Magazine* from 1860 till 1874. Walter Bagehot (1826-77) was editor at various times of *The Inquirer*, *The Economist* and the *National Review*. *The London Review* (to be distinguished from *The London Magazine* of De Quincey's generation) was founded in 1835 by John Stuart Mill, as an organ of philosophic radicalism, not very distant in its views from Jeremy Bentham's *Westminster Review*, established in 1824. *Punch* was founded in 1841, and attracted from the start the services of the most distinguished humourists. Mark Lemon (1809-70) was its first editor, and among past Knights of its Round Table have been Douglas Jerrold (1803-57), Richard Doyle (1824-83), who designed the cover, Thackeray, John Leech (1817-64), George du Maurier (1834-96). . . . *The Spectator*, revived from the eighteenth century, was founded in 1828, and its chief Victorian editor (1861-97) was Richard Holt Hutton (1826-97). *The Athenæum* was established in the same year, *The Guardian* in 1846, and *The Saturday Review* in 1855. Sir James Knowles (1831-1908) founded *The Nineteenth Century* in 1877, with a sonnet by Tennyson to send it off.—L. Magnus, *English literature in the nineteenth century*, pp. 391-394. —"At the time of writing [1922] there are 2,366 papers published in the United Kingdom, England and Wales producing 1,458, Scotland 254, Ireland 186, British Isles 17, and London (postal district) 451."—L. Warren, *Journalism*, p. 31.

1889-1900.—Printing as a fine art.—Kelmscott press.—Recent progress.—Work of William Morris.—His influence in America.—Oxford University press.—German presses.—In the seventeenth century the Elzevirs had preserved a tradition of craftsmanship; but in general the artistic level was very low throughout Europe, and especially in England. With the opening of the eighteenth century, Caslon, Foulis, and Baskerville made various experiments and innovations in types and inaugurated in England a movement which found recognition elsewhere, especially in the work of Bodoni at Parma, the family of Didot in France, and Goeschen at Leipzig. In the early nineteenth century Charles Whittingham the younger, and the publisher William Pickering, combined to revive the style of the sixteenth century. "A fully decorated Chiswick Press book during

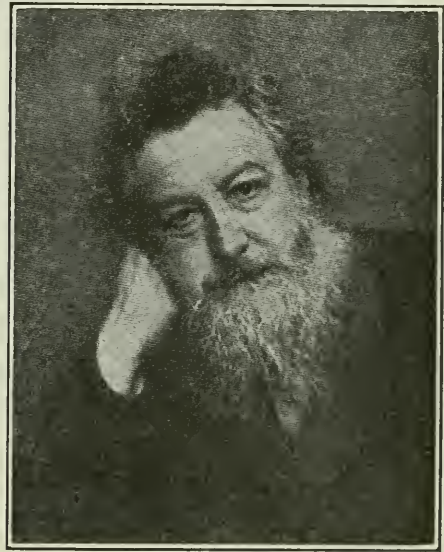
the rule of the younger Whittingham represented an adaptation, with some change of tone, of the style of the best French books of the period 1530 to 1560. William Morris, when he devoted his wonderful gifts of craftsmanship to the making of books, went some two generations further back, to the ideals of the fifteen years 1476 to 1490. We may wonder a little that he did not go further back still to the Fust and Schoeffer books of 1457 to 1462, or through these to the manuscripts of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, which he himself loved so well. To Fust and Schoeffer a fine book meant a book, if possible on vellum, printed in black and red, and with capitals and headlines added in red and blue. They themselves tried for five years to bring their books to this perfection with the least possible aid from the rubricators, and presumably had to give up the struggle because it made their books too expensive when cheaper methods were in use by other firms at Mainz and Strassburg. But the ideal of colour remained, though the method of attaining it altered; and in most towns of Germany, and almost in every non-German town to which printing was introduced, spaces were systematically left for capitals to be supplied in colour. After 1490 the spaces diminish, and printed capitals were used, or capitals were abjured altogether. But it is noteworthy that Aldus left spaces rather than use printed capitals in his italic octavos; and in his still smaller books Simon Colines left spaces as late as 1543. Nearly twenty years before 1490 what we may call the 'all-black' school asserted itself at Augsburg and Ulm, and in one or two stray printing houses at Basel, Strassburg, and Nuremberg. . . . Now, the Augsburg and Ulm books were great favourites with Morris; and when he started printing it was to the woodcut capitals in black and white that he gave his adhesion, not to the red and blue of Fust and Schoeffer. In a few instances he printed a capital in red; in two of his books he experimented with small capitals in blue. But for the elaborate designs which he drew with such mastery black and white were more effective than any colour; and the general scheme of his books is that of black for text and ornaments, lit up by red rubrics and shoulder notes. It was doubtless to give himself free scope for decoration that Morris arranged his books on the plan in vogue in Italy about 1490, with one notable improvement. Instead of the full title-page, which only took shape in the sixteenth century, he put only a mere label, like a modern half-title, on his first printed page and lavished his decoration on the beginning of the text. The old printers had followed this plan, but for all their cunning they had not fully mastered the principle, cardinal with Morris, that the unit in bookmaking is not the single page but the two pages which face each other when the book lies open. The decorated first pages of the fifteenth century as a rule are faced by the end of a table of contents or preface, or by blanks; Morris carried a border also round the page facing the beginning of the text, enclosing in it sometimes a woodcut picture, often a repetition of the short title in decorative letters standing out from some wonderful background. To harmonize with the splendour of his ornament Morris designed three types; the first a roman letter with some gothic touches, called, from its use in his reprint of Caxton's version of the 'Legenda Aurea,' the Golden type; the second, the Troy type, a magnificent round gothic made for his reprint of Caxton's 'Recuyell of the Hystories of Troy'; the third, a reduction of this, called after his

great Chaucer, in the double columns of which it is seen at its best. The roman type was only a partial success; the gothic ones rank with the very finest of the fifteenth century, and the whole series of Kelmscott Press books, into which was poured a wealth of designs regardless of all expense, eclipses the work of any fifteenth century printer who ever lived. Experiments in printing were in the air when Morris started the Kelmscott Press. A few words may be said as to the efforts to provide good printing with only a minimum of ornament as contrasted with more luxurious ideals. Three years before the issue of the first Kelmscott book Mr. Herbert Horne was at work with this object in the Century Guild Hobby Horse, and Morris himself (helped, as was also Mr. Horne, by Mr. Emery Walker) devoted much trouble to getting two of his books, the 'House of the Wolfings' and the 'Roots of the Mountains,' printed according to his ideas in 1888 and 1889. For these two books a new type was cast, modelled on an old Basel Fount. New founts were wanted, and are still wanted, in order that there may be a sufficient variety, each good of its kind, for every sort of book. But there were good types in existence before 1888, only (with one or two honourable exceptions) printers had economized too much on their ink to do them justice, and had also forgotten the secret of the due proportions of the different margins. . . . Very real improvements have been made; but there are still problems to be solved in book-building, and they cannot all be surmounted by an appeal to the practice of Jenson. The one thing necessary for their solution is that book buyers should take a real interest in the problems; and this, as the result of a quarter of a century of propaganda, they now do to a far greater extent than formerly."—*The Times* (London), Sept. 10, 1912.

—America now has several presses which follow intelligently the inspiration of Morris, and others which lavish the same care on adaptations of the French and Italian work of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Not only are the artistic phases carefully studied, but emphasis is placed on technical perfection, and accuracy of text. The press which Elbert Hubbard established at East Aurora, New York, and which was at the height of its prosperity in 1900, did much to popularize a demand for good printing and binding in America. In accuracy, there is probably no organization which can rival the *Oxford University press* of England, which has had a continuous existence since 1585, and possesses a corresponding tradition and a valuable heritage of old type. Since 1861 it has more than tripled in size. It has a great variety of founts, and can print more than 150 different languages. It manufactures its own paper, of a very excellent quality, and is almost a self-sufficing unit. But its most famous achievement is its almost absolute accuracy. In Germany a revival took place, coincident with the increasing wealth of the nineties, which effected a tremendous change in German life. This entire movement, of which the Secessionist movement in painting and sculpture is a part, was to a great extent an arts-and-crafts development like that of Morris, stressing honesty and individuality of technique. The *Insel Verlag* and its rival publishers undoubtedly raised the general standard of excellence and taste, and helped to create a small class who are willing to pay almost anything for really beautiful books.

1900.—Modern European newspapers.—Italy's political press.—Great French journalists.—"The political press of Italy really dates from the

advent of Pius IX. The reform movement which this pontiff provoked throughout Italy, and which soon gained a momentum which took it beyond his control and his desire, had much to do with modifying legislation regarding the press; and in 1846 there appeared in Rome, with his authorization, the first of the truly political Italian journals, the *Bilancia* and the *Contemporaneo*, the latter of which became under Sterbini the organ of the radicals. In the Revolution of 1848 the last restraints were swept away, the famous 'statute' of Charles Albert specifically providing that 'the press will be free, but the law will be empowered to punish any abuse of its liberty.' In Turin they were quick to avail themselves of their new found liberty, although how much power was embodied in the modifying clause, and how effective subsequent legislation has retained it, was well illustrated [in 1898], . . . when, as a result of the Milan bread riots, no less than nineteen Milanese editors were arrested and sentenced



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to terms of imprisonment of varying lengths. The year 1848 witnessed the founding of a host of journals, many of which, such as Cavour's organ, the *Risorgimento*, Guerrazzi's *Corriere Livornese* or Mazzini's *Italia del Popolo*, are of considerable historic interest; but, unfortunately, they do not come within the scope of the present discussion, since with two notable exceptions the liberal journals of 1848 have none of them survived. . . . It is interesting to note that, old as its traditions are, the really influential part of the Italian press is of recent development. The leading papers, such as the *Secolo* of Milan, the *Tribuna* of Rome, and the *Stampa* of Turin, are all the product of united Italy. Italian journalism [at the end of the nineteenth century], . . . came to be modelled more or less upon English and American lines, as regards telegraphic intelligence, and it is noteworthy that these costly methods have been adopted in spite of the fact that the established price of an Italian daily is extremely low—not exceeding five *centesimi*—and that owing to the configuration of the country and the strong sectional feeling which still prevails, the circulation in the majority of cases is

limited to their respective provinces. A natural consequence of this local pride is that, just as Italy has no one literary centre toward which the best writers all gravitate, as toward London or Paris, in the same way she has no single city in which the press is as authoritative as the London or Parisian press. Milan, Turin, Rome, and Naples, each have several dailies of first importance, while many of the smaller cities have enterprising and well-edited papers, such as the *Resto del Carlino* of Bologna, and the *Gazetta di Catania*, which are extensively quoted."—F. T. Cooper, *Great newspapers of continental Europe* (Bookman, June, 1900).—"Among the newspapers that . . . are . . . making real progress, setting aside their entire lack of commercial morality, are some of the French journals. They have always been noted for their high literary excellence. The anonymous editorial has never been a particularly strong feature of the French newspaper. On the other hand, pure literature, in the shape of fiction or criticism, has been one of its chief characteristics. Nearly every French man of letters since the Revolution—and to some extent before—has been a regular or occasional writer for the Press. One has only to mention, among noted French journalists, such men as Marat, Mirabeau, Brissot, Camille Desmoulins, Sainte-Beuve, and, in more recent days, Thiers, Lemaitre, Sandeau, Zola and M. Brunetière, to call to the reader's mind the names of many others that might be enumerated."—A. Harmsworth, *Simultaneous newspapers of the twentieth century* (North American Review, Jan., 1901).—*Le Petit Journal*, a one-cent Parisian paper, was estimated to have, in 1921, a circulation of nearly one million copies, the largest in the world. Leading political and literary French newspapers include the *Journal des Debats*, the *Temps*, the *Siècle*, and the *Presse*, while the *Figaro* is popular in the fashionable world. The newspapers which have occupied leading positions in Germany during the twentieth century are: the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, the *Kölnische Zeitung*, the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, *Berliner Tageblatt*, *Frankfurter Zeitung*, the *Volkszeitung* and the *Vorwärts*.

1900.—Prosecution of Maximilian Harden in Germany for his newspaper articles. See GERMANY: 1900 (October 9').

1909.—Imperial press conference in England. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1909 (June).

1910.—Development of the American magazine.—"In January, 1741, three days apart and in the small city of Philadelphia, were published the first two magazines of this country. . . . One was published by Andrew Bradford, the other by Benjamin Franklin. . . . Between this and the end of the century there were at least forty-five magazines started. . . . 'The special character of the American cheap magazine as we now know it'—wrote the keen and reflective English observer, Mr. William Archer, in 1910—'is mainly due to one man, Mr. S. S. McClure. He invented and developed the particular type. The style of article which has made its fame is a richly documented, soberly worded study in contemporary history, concentrating into ten or twelve pages matter which could much more easily be expanded into a book ten or twelve times as long. Its method is to present, without sensationalism, or exaggeration, facts skillfully marshaled and sternly compressed and let them speak for themselves.' . . . Magazines have now become so numerous as to defy any account of them beyond mere classified enumeration. . . . Thanks to them, history will for the

first time possess a complete record of human thought and activity. . . . Nor does this tell the entire story. 'I desire to confess frankly,' writes Mr. H. M. Alden of *Harper's* 'that in literature the book and not the magazine is the supreme thing; but the first encouragement of the greatest writers has come from the magazine ever since the time of Poe, and the magazine has been participant of such glory as literature has shown.' That the magazine has a hundred times multiplied the audience of authors is apparent to everybody. . . . And, finally, one cannot reiterate too often the material debt of American literature to the magazine. The lives and letters of authors cry it in and between all the lines—but for the magazine very few could have lived to tell the tale. 'It is only with the modern development of the newspaper and the magazine,' says the House of Harper, 'that authorship may be said to have become a lucrative profession.' We are apt to think of our literary hand-to-mouth period as long ago—so radical and immediate was the change wrought by the International Copyright Act. But that past is not so shadowy as shady. So late as 1881 the *Century* was saying 'Not many prominent American novels have of late years reached the reader in the first instance between book-covers.' And if this might be said of novels, what of the rest of books? Before the Committee of Congress appointed to inquire whether any real need existed for the proposed copyright, Mr. Dana Estes said in 1886: 'For two years past, though I belong to a publishing house (Estes and Lauriat) which emits nearly one million dollars' worth of books per year, I have absolutely refused to entertain the idea of publishing an American manuscript. It is impossible to make the books of most American authors pay unless they are first published and acquire recognition through the columns of the magazines.'—A. Tassin, *Magazine in America*, pp. 1-3, 347, 367-369.—"In 1882 a single volume of 1,442 pages sufficed for the titles of articles published up to that time in the important magazines of the English-speaking world. But so rapid was the development of magazines thereafter that the years 1905-9 alone required a book of 2,491 pages, and the greater part of this increase had been in America. A mere list of the newspapers and magazines published in the United States, together with a few facts concerning their character, management, and circulation, filled in 1917 more than 1,000 large, closely printed pages."—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our time, 1865-1920*, p. 519.

1911.—Press censorship in Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1905-1911.

1914-1918.—Censorship during the World War.—See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship; CENSORSHIP: World War; ESPIONAGE ACT: Trials under the Espionage Act.

1914-1920.—Effects of World War.—Revival of editorial page.—Increased cost.—"The great struggle had scarcely begun [1914] when the French papers began either to suspend publication or to reduce their size, and those which continued publication for the most part confined themselves to a single edition a day and abolished all headline display. Americans who subscribe for London dailies noticed an immediate reduction in size as soon as war had been declared. A cablegram from Amsterdam announced that over eight-hundred and fifty German newspapers, according to statistics gathered by the Postal Department, had suspended the first year of the war. Belgian

THE PROLOGUE OF THE TALE OF THE MANNE OF LAWE.



DARM! CONDICION OF POVERTE!
With thurst, with coold, with hunger so con-
foundid!
To asken help thee shameth in thyn herte;
If thou noon aske, so soore artow ywoundid,
That verray nede unwrappeth al thy wounde
hid!
Maugree thyn heed, thou most for indigence
Or stele, or begge, or borwe thy despence!

Thow blamest Crist, and seist ful bitterly,
He mysdeparteth richesse temporal;
Thy neighebores thou wyteast synfully,
And seist thou hast to lite, and he hath al.
Parfay, seistow, somtyme he rekene shal,
Whan that his tayl shal brennen in the gleede,
for he noght helpeth needfulle in hir neede.

Perkne what is the sentence of the wise:
Bet is to dyen than have indigence;
Thyselve neighebor wol thee despise;
If thou be povre, farwel thy reverence!
Yet of the wise man take this sentence:
Alle the dayes of povre men been wikke;
Be war therfore, er thou come to that prikke!

If thou be povre, thy brother hateth thee,
And alle thy freendes fleen from thee, alas!
O riche marchaunts, ful of wele been yce,
O noble, o prudent folk, as in this cas!
Youre bagges been nat filld with ambes as.
But with sys cynk, that renneth for youre
chaunce;
At Christemasse myrie may ye daunce!

Ye seken lond and see for yowre wynnynge;
As wise folk ye knowen al thestat
Of regnes; ye been fadres of tidynge

journalism soon became a thing of the past, save that conducted under German supervision. . . . The most immediate effect of the war [in America] was noticed in the rapid advance in cable tolls, which not only the news-gathering organization but also the newspapers themselves were forced to pay, for the special war dispatches. So high were these tolls that newspapers pooled their interests. In New York City, for example, *The World*, *The Times*, and *The Tribune*, used a joint cable service which reduced the tolls to one third for each newspaper. . . . The war from the start did much to revive the interest in the editorial page, the influence of which had declined very much in the period of financial readjustment. Unfamiliar with European geography, unacquainted with the economic and political situations in the warring countries, readers found they must have the news interpreted through the editorial. . . . The increase in the cost of white paper later [1917-1920] made space more valuable. The result was that there was noticeable condensation of news in all departments."—J. M. Lane, *History of American journalism*, pp. 419-422.

1920.—Development of journalism in China. See CHINA: 1920: Development of journalism.

1920.—British imperial conference for better communication. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1920 (August).

1920.—Influence of advertising.—"The newspaper . . . is a business rather than a profession; but it is unlike any other manufacturing business in this respect: that while every other manufacturer must sell his wares at a price to include the cost of raw materials, overhead charges, and profits,—and this principle runs through all business whether the plant turns out pins or battleships,—the newspaper manufacturer sells his output at a loss, for the one or two cents paid for a newspaper does not cover the cost of production. Yet the newspaper owner cannot publish his journal at a loss and remain in business, and, as we know, newspapers make large profits from their advertising. Out of this anomalous state of affairs a peculiar relation has grown up between the newspaper and the advertiser. The bulk of advertising is furnished by merchants who cater to the masses and who use mediums having large general circulations. To obtain this circulation the newspaper prints what will appeal not to a limited circle but to the public at large. Moreover, since the larger the circulation the more valuable the paper is to the advertiser, the constant effort of the newspaper proprietor is to increase his circulation and to convert more white paper into his finished product. The reader, therefore, is largely the decoy—and I use the term in no offensive sense—for the advertiser; and as it is the advertisers, and not the reader, who pay the expenses and profits of the newspaper, the advertiser must be treated with the same deference that an expectant nephew shows his rich uncle; for he who holds the purse strings in a commercial age is master. The result is that the newspaper is no longer a free agent. It cannot, as a matter of business, print matter that would offend or injure its large advertisers, even to do good to the community as a whole; it may not champion an unpopular cause, for that would be to risk the loss of readers, which would lessen its value as an advertising medium and diminish profits. . . . Demagogues have encouraged the belief that the newspaper is dishonest; that it is in the pay of, or in league with, those mysterious and maleficent powers of darkness known as the 'interests'; and that this control by the 'interests'

makes it impossible for the poor or friendless to obtain justice. That, I am convinced, wrongs the newspaper proprietor. He is neither dishonest nor is he open to bribe; but like every other man engaged in business, he must consider the source whence his profits come and shape his course accordingly."—A. M. Low, *Modern newspaper as it is* (*Yale Review*, Oct., 1912).—"An honest newspaper which does not sell news to other publications has only two sources of income. One source is the public, which buys the paper for its news, its editorials, or maybe its pictures. From this the return is comparatively small; but upon the numerical strength of a paper's readers and their financial standing as a class, depends the size of the income which flows from the other source—the advertisers."—J. L. Given, *Making a newspaper*, p. 307.

ALSO IN: H. Belloc, *Free press*.—T. L. DeVinne, *Invention of printing*.—F. W. Hamilton, *Invention of typography*.—Idem, *Brief history of printing in England*.—Idem, *Brief history of printing in America*.—K. Jones, *Fleet street and Downing street*.—G. E. Littlefield, *Early Massachusetts press*.—M. Macdonagh, *Reporters' gallery*.—H. Simonis, *Street of ink*.—U. Sinclair, *Brass check*.—J. B. Williams, *Beginnings of English journalism*.—*The Times* (London), Sept. 12, 1912.—L. Salmon, *Newspapers and the historian*.

PRINTZ, Johan, or John (c. 1600-1663), Swedish general and governor of Delaware, 1642-1653. See DELAWARE: 1640-1656.

PRIOR APPROPRIATION, Law of. See RIPARIAN RIGHTS: Theories of water law.

PRIOR OF CRATO. See ANTONIO.

PRIORIES, Alien.—"These were cells of foreign abbeyes, founded upon estates which English proprietors had given to the foreign houses."—E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and characters of the Middle Ages*, ch. 4.

PRIORITY LAW, United States (1917). See RAILROADS: 1916-1920.

PRIORS, of the Florentine Guilds. See FLORENCE: 1250-1293.

PRIORY. See ABBEY: Organization, etc.; MONASTERY; MONASTICISM.

PRISAGE, in old English law, the right of the crown to take one tun of wine from every ship importing from ten to twenty tuns.

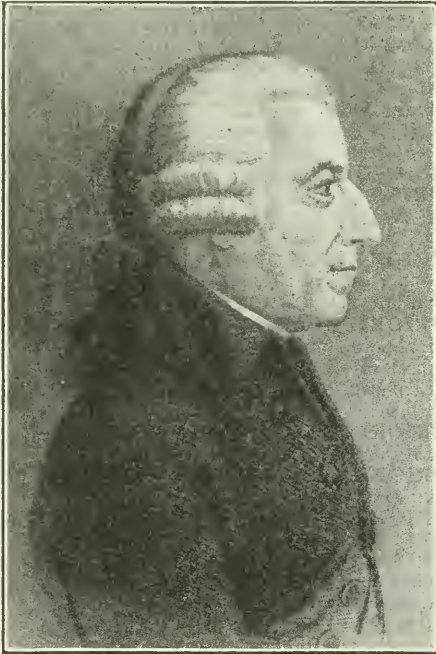
PRISCILLIANISM, Manichean doctrines held by a sect, the followers of Priscillian, bishop of Avila, in Spain, during the fourth century. The sect was condemned by a synod held at Saragossa in 380 for its ascetic and separatist tendencies, and Priscillian was excommunicated. This did not end the controversy, and some years later Priscillian was put to death at the command of the emperor, but the heresy survived throughout the fifth century, and was not altogether extinct at the date of the Council of Braga.

PRISHTINA, town in Serbia, just east of the plain of Kossova. The town was taken by the Germans in 1915 and again in 1916 by the Austro-Bulgarian forces. Its population in 1919 was 18,174. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans; b, 4.

PRISON, Mamertine. See MAMERTINE PRISON. PRISON ACT (1877). See PRISON REFORM: England.

PRISON REFORM: Beginnings.—"The Hebrew prophet ascribed to the Almighty the question: 'Have I any pleasure at all that the wicked should die?' Seneca said that punishment is designed to protect society by removing the offender, to reform its subjects, and to render others more obedient. Plato held that the proper end of pun-

ishment is not merely to render to the guilty their due, but at the same time to make them better. He so far anticipated the course of modern reform in his dream of an ideal as to propose the construction of three grades of prisons—one for persons under arrest, one for minor offenders, and one for great criminals. The intermediate prison he would have named *Sophronisterion*, because it was to be a place for teaching wisdom and continence. Aristotle defined punishment to be 'the specific of the soul,' and said that law should be 'wisdom without passion.' Saint Augustine, the venerable bishop of Hippo, in pleading for mercy to certain heretics, who had murdered two priests, declared that, however atrocious crime may be, it should not awaken anger and the desire for revenge, but should rather be looked upon as an inward malady which it is our duty to heal. Pope Boniface VIII. anticipated the famous dilemma



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of Mr. Frederick Hill, 'reformation or incapacitation,' in one of his edicts, in which he said that, while the prison is to be regarded as a place of detention rather than of retribution, yet the Church would not disapprove the incarceration of confessed or convicted clerical offenders for life or until they should give evidence of repentance. But these were the utterances of individuals. They were in direct opposition to the heathen spirit; and the Christian spirit has never made more than a partial impress upon social and legislative institutions, even in so-called Christian lands. Yet it is the reformatory idea which distinguishes the penitentiary era of criminal jurisprudence. The honor of having inaugurated that era is generally accorded to Pope Clement XI., who, when he founded the Hospital of Saint Michael, at Rome, in 1704, inscribed over the door: 'For the correction and instruction of profligate youth, that they who when idle were injurious, may, when taught, become useful, to the State.' And in the hall where the boys were at work he

placed the inscription, '*Parum est coercere improbos pœna nisi probos efficias disciplina,*' which Howard thus renders: 'It is of little advantage to restrain the bad by punishment unless you render them good by discipline.' This was a formal and official admission, by the highest authority, that the entire system of retribution and repression had proved a practical failure. The erection of this juvenile reformatory institution, therefore, is the landmark which divides two civilizations or two historical epochs. But Saint Michael's was not a prison pure and simple. It contained a department for two hundred orphan boys, and other departments for aged and infirm men and women, of whom there were over five hundred, while the number of criminal boys was only fifty. For the latter the plan of the institution provided sixty single cells, in three tiers, one above the other, ten cells in each row, on the two sides of a spacious hall lighted by three large windows, one at the end and one at each side. This corridor was used as a common work-room by day; in the centre hung a placard with one word, 'Silence!' These were the essential features of what, a century later, was called the Auburn system.—F. H. Wines, *Punishment and reformation*, p. 121-123.

Howard and Beccaria.—Early Efforts.—"In the history of prison reform, the two greatest names are those of Howard and Beccaria; one an Englishman, one an Italian; one a Protestant, the other a Catholic; one a commoner, the other a nobleman. Beccaria was younger than Howard by about ten years, but he launched his book against torture ten years before Howard's first publication. Beccaria was a thinker, a student, who worked among his books; and, though not a lawyer, his attack was directed against criminal law. Howard left his home and his native land, to pursue his studies in the field; his knowledge of the subject was gained by original observation, and his attack was aimed at the practical abuses in the administration of the law. . . . Both were sincere, courageous, and undaunted by danger or opposition. They had many views and sentiments in common. Both condemned the needless infliction of pain, and disapproved of the death penalty, of life imprisonment, of imprisonment for debt, and of long imprisonment awaiting trial. Both saw the utility and necessity for labor and of education for convicts."—F. H. Wines, *Punishment and reformation*, pp. 126-127.—In 1764, Cesare Beccaria published his brilliant treatise, "On Crimes and Punishments." The book had a great success, passing through six editions within eighteen months, and appearing in several languages. An English translation was published in 1768. In the same year, Beccaria was appointed to the chair of law and economy in the Palatine College of Milan. "Prison reform in England began with the efforts of John Howard (1726-90), who was appointed sheriff at Bedford in 1773, and made a personal investigation of English prisons. Between 1775 and 1783 Howard travelled on the Continent, finding the prisons there on the whole superior to those of England. At Augsburg he found instruments of torture and dungeons for people convicted of witchcraft. In Russia he saw the different instruments of death and torture: the axe and block, a machine for breaking arms and legs, a knife for slitting noses, the cat, knout, etc. Of the prison at Venice, the best he could say was 'Mercifully there were no irons, happily there was no fever.' Holland was in advance in reform, and Howard writes, 'I know not which to admire most: the neatness and cleanliness ap-

pearing in the prisons, the industry and regular conduct of the prisoners, or the humanity and attention of the magistrates and governors.' Howard died at Kherson, southern Russia, on his way to Constantinople. Of English prisons at this period, Joseph Kingsmill, chaplain of the Pentonville prison, says: 'The state of prisons in England when the illustrious Howard began his work of inspection was in the highest degree disgraceful to the nation. A commital to prison was, in fact, equivalent in many cases to a sentence of death by some frightful disease; and in all, to the utmost extremes of hunger and cold.'—J. H. Willsey and C. T. Lewis, *Harper's book of facts*, p. 661.—Howard is credited with so improving English prison conditions, that the terrible scourge of jail fever entirely disappeared.

European prisons.—General characteristics.—Distinguishing features in various countries.—"Inspection of prisons in Europe . . . [leads to the conclusion] that each continent has something to learn from the other. . . . On the subject of prison construction, we [Americans] can greatly profit by European models. . . . 1. Europe has adopted most generally a form of prison structure with more abundant cell room than is furnished in the United States, and with large windows in every cell. 2. The best European jails are superior to our own in providing a complete separation of jail prisoners in well lighted cells. 3. All European jails and prisons are furnished with exercise yards and prisoners are permitted and required to take exercise once or twice a day from thirty minutes to an hour. . . . 4. In a number of European countries, prisoners awaiting trial may work and receive compensation for their labor."—S. J. Barrows, *Charities*, Dec. 7, 1907.—The cell system which prevails through most of the European prisons has variations in different countries. In France, for instance, where a good deal of attention has been devoted to the subject of prisons, the cell isolation is only part of the treatment. At the other extreme is the system of transportation of criminals. In Austria, cell separation is inflicted only for comparatively short periods, the maximum being three years. Prisoners in that country have been largely employed in the execution of public works. The Denmark system passes all convicts through several stages from cell isolation to conditional liberty, and a similar plan is in force in Norway and Sweden. The cell system is in favor in Prussia. Portugal, since 1884, has been installing prisons built for separate confinement. The system of transportation which was one of the regrettable characteristics of the Russian penal code was first mentioned in a law of 1648. It was then regarded as a means of getting rid of crippled prisoners.

Belgium.—Prison laboratories in "anthropology."—Colony for vagrants.—"There are today, in nine of the chief prisons of Belgium, anthropological laboratories under the direction of specialists in criminal psychiatry, the establishment of which has put into practice the decisions of the recent congresses devoted to criminal anthropology and penitentiary science. . . . In 1907, under the impulse of modern scientific theories, a laboratory of penitentiary anthropology was started in the prison at Brussels. The term 'Anthropology' is here used in its most general sense. It comprehends all the vital activities of man, which are studied successively in the course of the examination of delinquents. Until 1920 the object of the examination and observation of convicts was only to acquire accurate criminal, sociological and anthropological data of the delinquents of Belgium. Since

that time the anthropological examination has become the starting point for various therapeutic measures. Some of these measures have been legal; others have led to modification in the penal system itself, adapting it to the biological and psychiatric individualities of the delinquents. Thus, at Brussels, there was carried on a practical experiment as to the usefulness of research in criminal anthropology in the prisons. After ten years the proof seemed conclusive, and Mr. Vandervelde, the minister of justice, decided to extend to all the prisons of Belgium the system of anthropological laboratories, and empowered the psychiatrists in charge to direct the penal treatment of the inmates. The observation of delinquents is now characterized by the method, the exactness, and the eclecticism which are the bases of science. In connection with each of the nine laboratories are several less important prisons which are thus assured of anthropological service. In order to facilitate the examination of the prisoners who are mentally affected, there have also been added to each of the main prisons a psychiatric annex for convicts who should not be kept in prison—that is, for those who are either mentally deranged or suspected of being so; drug fiends, for example—and an annex for abnormals of all kinds, especially 'irresponsibles.' The aim of the penal anthropological service is to create with the least possible delay a series of special therapeutic establishments. It has now been decided to start a special psychiatric section for epileptics, an agricultural division for those mentally defective, and a penal sanatorium for the tuberculous. Later there will be set up a hospital and penal home for old, infirm, or incurable prisoners; a prison asylum for nervous cases and abnormals of all kinds; a prison asylum for alcoholics and drug fiends; an establishment for the treatment of venereal diseases; and a group of prisons with strict regime for habitual criminals, so that the other prisons may be relieved of these recedivists, and the cost of their maintenance be reduced. The organization of these special therapeutic annexes will leave the prisons themselves for incoming prisoners and for normal convicts who are capable of working and becoming useful members of society. It will therefore be possible to concentrate, on the inmates who are most interesting and important from the social point of view, the educational and moral activities of the directors, the doctors, the institute chaplains and certain other employés of the penal institutions. By ministerial decree of June 10, 1920, all first offenders undergoing a sentence of not less than three months and all recedivists must be examined in the laboratories and be subjected to the anthropological treatment. The examination of the prisoners follows a questionnaire that is the same in all prisons. After examination at the laboratories prisoners are sent back to their original prisons with the data of their examinations and anthropological reports outlining broadly their penal treatment. The anthropological report, which broadly outlines the treatment of the prisoners while in the penitentiary, is sent first to the director of the prison, who in turn transmits it to the different members of the personnel whom it concerns from either an administrative or legal point of view. These all meet at a weekly conference presided over by the director of the prison. The anthropological specialists present their statements and develop their findings and proposals for the treatment of the convicts, and the course to be pursued is decided upon by the common agreement."—F. Delbaste, *Prison reform*

in Europe (Survey, Mar. 4, 1922).—Belgium is also credited with a highly successful colony for vagrants, Merxplas. Like Veenhuizen in Holland, it is not regarded as a strictly penal institution. "Merxplas . . . is a village in itself, with administration buildings, great dormitories and refectories, shops, church, hospital, farm buildings, sheds, and a population of from 6,000 to 7,000 colonists, with a staff of over 100 employees. Some miles distant are the colonies of Wortel, for first offenders (vagrants and mendicants), and Hoogstraeten for incapacitated persons of the same class. . . . The colonies were founded in 1823 by Dutch benevolent societies as colony homes for indigent families. In 1870, Belgium, then long separated nationally from Holland, bought the colonies and concentrated here at Merxplas, Wortel and Hoogstraeten, the 'human derelict heaps' that for many years had been increasing in population through ineffectual treatment of mendicants and vagrants in many local *dépôts de mendicité*. . . . The Belgian penal code of 1867, still in use today, defines vagabondage in the same terms as the French penal code, as follows: 'Vagabondage is a misdemeanor. Vagabonds are those without known residence, or means of support, who habitually have neither occupation nor trade.' . . . From 1870 to 1890 begging and vagabondage continued to increase until in 1891 Belgium adopted a comprehensive law 'for the repression of vagabondage and mendicity.' . . . In short, intentional vagrancy and mendicancy, in the case of able-bodied persons, has been punishable since 1891 in Belgium by compulsory segregation in a beggar colony for from two to seven years. To cover the case of the occasional or the unintentional vagrant or beggar, the law provides that the court may discharge the less serious case or commit the offender to a *maison de refuge*. . . . Habitual mendicancy or vagabondage in those under 18 years is punished by sentence to a reform school, with the age of majority as maximum. Children under thirteen in such schools are separated from older children. . . . Belgium possesses at Brussels a very complete central registration bureau for records of mendicants and vagrants. . . . At Merxplas, approximately two-thirds of the population are able-bodied and work at varied trades. . . . Among them are the following: Weaving, spinning, printing, tailoring, tanning, foundry work, blacksmithing, mat making, trunk making, shoemaking and cobbling, carpet making, the manufacture of cement blocks, concrete, bricks, furniture, wagons, carriages, pearl buttons, preparation of tobacco. Great shops accommodate the more generally practiced trades."—*Treatment of the offender (Sixty-seventh Annual Report of the Prison Association of New York, 1911, pp. 86-88, 91).*

China.—Prisons for punishment.—Prisons for reformation.—"Our prison reformers in America think that they have found the worst conditions on the globe, but they would have been surprised . . . if they could have gone with the writer and a foreign friend to one of the prisons of China's capital. . . . After going through several courts, we came to a great iron door. It was opened by the judge's servant. Inside was a long, narrow court, ten by twenty feet. We saw no one as we entered, but were nearly overcome by the odor. On the left side, on closer observation, we discovered a dirty little room with a black, smoking stove, which was the kitchen for the prisoners. Two cooks, bare to the waist and with their feet chained together, were preparing the evening meal. The next room, we were told, was used by a few of the prisoners, whose offences

were of a lighter kind, for industrial work. Four rule-weaving machines were being slowly run by chained prisoners. On the other side of the court was a building occupied by a large number of men seated on the wooden floor. We were told that they were seventy in number, and that each one must serve a term of from three years to the life sentence. I have never seen human beings who looked less like men than did these. Their dirty faces were absolutely expressionless; their hair had not been cut for many months. They were bare to the waist, and some of them wore handcuffs as well as chains on their feet. . . . Driving in a carriage to the other end of the city, down past the walls of the great Temple of Agriculture, one comes to a high white-washed wall surrounding an area of fifteen to twenty acres. . . . We were ushered into the central prison rotunda, from which we could look down the five wings. Along the sides of these wings were the rows of cells. As we walked up and down, we saw outside each door neat little cards giving the name and the offence and the term of service of each occupant. We were told that the worst prisoners were put by themselves, and that the others were in rooms in groups of from two to seven prisoners. We went into several of the larger rooms. They were forty by thirty-five paces. Each cell was spotlessly clean and lighted by electricity. Each corridor had its own washroom, which was also a model of cleanliness. At the end of each of these long corridors are the larger rooms, where the industrial work was going on. . . . The rooms were well aired and well lighted. We were next shown to the immense dining room, where a large proportion of the 500 prisoners could sit down to meals together. The warden went quite into detail about the menu, which was certainly most substantial and graded in amount according to the behavior of the prisoner. He next conducted us to the large bathroom, which each prisoner uses at least once a week; and to the dispensary, where we interviewed the Chinese doctor, trained in Japan, who reported intelligently on the health conditions of the prison. We had not expected to find religious instruction as well as general education provided in a Chinese prison, but on the second story of the main building we were ushered into a large assembly room, with rows of seats elevated gradually to the rear after the fashion of a college chemistry lecture room. Each bench was surrounded on three sides by wooden partitions, so that the prisoner, when seated, could look only in one direction and that straight forward, over the head of the man in front of him. On the wall which the prisoners faced were five paintings. The middle painting was of Confucius, in robes of blue. At his right were Buddha, in yellow, and Laotze, in white, while at his left was Jesus, in a brown robe, and Mohammed, in green. The warden explained that these paintings had been made by one of the prisoners, at the warden's own request. Every Sunday there is a lecture on Confucianism lasting half an hour. Then the prisoners are left in silence. They are expected to gaze at the religious leader they may choose and to fix their thoughts on his teachings. The warden explained that he believed there is good in all religions and that each prisoner ought to get as much good as he can from the religious leader in whom he trusts. On the same floor was a series of school rooms, where the usual subjects are taught to all inmates under eighteen years of age. . . . As we went out of the last doorway, the warden said: 'Just step into this room and I will show you the way China used

to conduct her prisons.' He produced three or four of the old, long execution knives and various instruments of torture reminiscent of the Spanish Inquisition. He spoke, of course, as if these were relics of the far past. . . . Here, in the same city, we have two institutions, one of old China, similar to those which she has had for hundreds of years, and one which the late Charles R. Henderson, the great prison reformer, said was comparable to the best prisons of Europe. There seems to the Chinese mind little inconsistency in having these two so near together."—J. S. Burgess, *China's social challenge* (Survey, Dec. 15, 1917).

Czecho-Slovakia.—Instruction for warders.—"Simultaneously with the introduction of an amended criminal code which will abolish capital punishment as well as some of the severer species of confinement in vogue under the old Austro-Hungarian regime, the reforms proposed by the present [1922] government of Czecho-Slovakia apply especially to two aspects of prison life. . . . Since December 1920, every applicant for the position of warder or official in a jail and all warders appointed since 1918 are required to have attended a four-months' course of instruction which is provided by the government. . . . The government is determined to break away from Austrian tradition [by which the prison staffs were recruited from ex-army officers], and aims at securing a prison personnel possessing sympathy and understanding. . . . The second part of the reform refers to prisoners themselves. The incorrigible criminals are to be confined away from those who are capable of improvement, while youthful offenders and first offenders are also to be treated separately. The prisoners are to be better supplied with reading matter and libraries; reading rooms are to be provided, indoor games such as chess and draughts are to be permitted, and lectures by first class lecturers are to be given. Prisoners will also be encouraged to work by payment for what they do. . . . Those who have previously followed no occupation will be given the opportunity of learning some handicraft during their terms of confinement."—*Prison reform in Europe: Czecho-Slovakia* (Survey, Apr. 1, 1922).

England.—Early nineteenth century efforts.—Centralization.—Probation.—Borstal system.—"Twenty years after Howard's death [1790] a Quaker humanitarian, Elizabeth Gurney Fry, began her work among the horribly treated women prisoners in London. In this same generation following 1775 there were distinct advances in certain local English jails which definitely anticipated the modern prison system. Little could be done in England, however, to produce a prison system until, between 1815 and 1835, Romilly, Mackintosh, Peel and Buxton had succeeded in having repealed the barbarous English Criminal laws and in securing a substitution of imprisonment for corporal punishment or banishment as the most approved method of dealing with the criminal."—H. E. Barnes, *Some leading phases of the evolution of modern penology* (Political Science Quarterly, June, 1922, p. 259).—The erection of Millbank Prison, which was commenced in 1813, was really the result of Howard's recommendation that confinement prisons be established in place of the old detention jails. In the twentieth century the English prison system is characterized by order and centralization of authority. "At the head of the prison system is the secretary of state; under him the prison commissioners, . . . salaried officials, giving their entire time. They

appoint all subordinate officials, from the governor of the prison down. The tenure of office of officials is during good behavior, and is remarkably permanent. Worry about loss of position is practically eliminated, so far as political influences are concerned. Inspectors of prisons are appointed by the secretary of state. A visiting committee of magistrates is appointed for each prison annually by quarter sessions, to be a kind of 'watchdog for the public.' The present administrative system came into existence in 1877, through the prison act. In 1876 there were 113 local prisons, governed by local authorities. . . . There was no standard of architecture, administration, punishment, promotion or privileges. The prison act of 1877 at one stroke centralized the control and conduct of all English prisons under the prison commission, although for a time there was great objection to such a drastic change. . . . No one would urge in Parliament a return to the old conditions. Not only are the English prisons managed at present satisfactorily to the English public in general, but the number of prisons has been reduced from 113 in 1877 to 57 [in 1911]. . . . In England the steps are slow and sure. . . . In 1898 an English prison act passed, providing that prisoners not sentenced to hard labor might be further classified according to the gravity of the offense and the character of the offender, and that the labor of prisoners in local prisons might, under due supervision be in association instead of cellular. . . . Corporal punishment, by the terms of the prison act of 1898, was to be awarded less frequently, and for few offenses; ordinary prisoners might earn a remission of a portion of their sentences; boards of visiting magistrates were appointed; there were provided increased opportunities for school instruction, increased privileges as to letters, visits and library books; and in the later stages of imprisonment the privilege of talking might be awarded to certain deserving prisoners. What had been the results up to 1900? In the classification of prisoners and in the development of associated labor, good. The cellular system of confinement still remained the law, but prisoners whose conduct was good might be associated if practicable. The two years between 1898 and 1900 brought a reduction of cases of corporal punishment; the remission of a certain part of the sentence in the cases of prisoners whose sentences exceeded six months brought great stimulus, as did the chance to pay off a portion of the fine, in lieu of which payment imprisonment had been imposed. . . . These innovations, . . . will seem to Americans extremely conservative, but they furnish a background upon which to consider the changes that . . . occurred in the decade 1900-1910. The principal improvement . . . has been undoubtedly the treatment of so-called juvenile adults, children less than 21 years of age. . . . Just at the beginning of the century a census of convicts was taken in English prisons, which showed that no less than 56 per cent had been previously convicted five times or more. . . . In 1908 a law, entitled the prevention of crime act, was passed which not only provided for the reformatory treatment of juvenile adults, but also—and most strikingly—for the preventive detention of habitual criminals after the sentence for which they should be imprisoned had been served. In other words, England has given the courts power to declare a man who has been persistently leading a dishonest and criminal life to be an habitual criminal; and where a person is so proved, a subsidiary sentence may be passed, ordering that on the termination of the sentence of penal servi-

tude—not less than three years—he may be kept for a further period not exceeding ten nor less than five years in a state of ‘preventive detention.’”—*Treatment of the offender (Sixty-seventh Annual Report of the Prison Association of New York, 1911, pp. 151-154)*.—In 1907, the law known as the “Probation of Offenders Act” was passed. This law gives to the court the power, under certain circumstances, to discharge an offender conditionally “on his entering into a recognizance, with or without sureties, to be of good behaviour and to appear for sentence when called on at any time during such period, not exceeding three years, as may be specified in the order.” The act also provided for probation officers for adult and juvenile offenders. The “Prevention of Crime Act,” which was passed in 1908, not only provided for the detention of habitual criminals, but laid the basis for the juvenile detention homes known as “Borstal institutions.” Borstal is the English Elmira. “Borstal as a location is the village of Borstal, on the hills above Rochester in the southeast of England, near the sea. Borstal as a system is found at the Borstal institutions of Borstal, in Feltham (in the valley of the Thames), in Aylesbury (for girls), and in a wing of Canterbury prison (for unsatisfactory cases). The Borstal system is the . . . [twentieth century] treatment of young convicted persons between 16 and 23 years of age. There is also a ‘modified Borstal’ treatment, maintained in local prisons for young persons called ‘juvenile adults,’ who receive thus a semi-reformatory course of physical and industrial education that incidentally is quite superior to the attention paid in American local or county or even in many state prisons to young prisoners, in distinction to older prisoners. . . . The Borstal association is a prisoners’ aid society, founded by Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise. . . . This society embodies the belief of Sir Evelyn that the corner-stone of any system for dealing with juvenile adults must be a well organized after-care association, which will be in possession of sufficient funds to give the needful assistance. The society . . . [was] founded under the patronage of some of the best known and most distinguished persons in English public life.”—*Treatment of the offender (Sixty-seventh Annual Report of the Prison Association of New York, 1911, pp. 168, 175)*.—A paper, written after the World War, by Stephen Hobhouse, who, as a conscientious objector, served a prison term, accuses the English prison system of certain dehumanizing factors, chiefly the general contempt shown for the prisoner as a human being.

France.—Cleanliness and system.—Educational labor.—Transportation.—“The famous prison reformer, John Howard, we are told in an article in the *Contemporary Review* for October, 1894, made three tours of inspection of the prisons of the French capital and reported that they were ‘the cleanest places in Paris.’ He was there in 1776, 1778 and 1783. As far back as 1753 Paris had a Prison Society, founded by the Abbe Breton, supported by great people, for that was the time of kindly intervention for the poor and distressed. The State gave the prisoners bread and water, charity supplied food, clothing and assistance. . . . The French always have a system and it is well to see how they apply it to the difficult subjects of prisons and their inmates. French prisons are under the jurisdiction of the Minister of the Interior, who has a Department for this special purpose. There are five classes of prisons in France: 1st, For long sentences—the property of the State. 2nd, For short sentences—these since 1811 have

been made the property of the departments in which they are situated. 3rd, Correctional establishments for the young; Metray, the oldest and best known belongs to the Philanthropic Society of Paris, but is supported in part by the State, which also exercises careful supervision. The State has five Agricultural Penitentiary Colonies, Farm Reformatives, maintained mainly by voluntary contributions, although the State, the Departments and the Communes all give a per capita allowance for the girls and boys sent by them for reformation. 4th, Lock-ups, maintained at the cost of the towns or communes in which they are situated. 5th, Depots for convicts, sentenced to the penal colonies and hard labor. The State pays all the expenses of its own penitentiary service and controls the organization of private correctional homes and colonies. Although the law of 1875 directs that the cellular system should be universally enforced, yet even now there are only 23 cellular prisons out of a total of 365 departmental prisons. . . . There has been since 1886, a Commission for the classification of habitual criminals, composed of seven members, representing the various departments, Justice, Penitentiary and Penal Colonies. This Committee examines each case and decides as to its destination. In all French prisons and reformatories for little children, girls and women, there are women inspectors. The labor and occupations of the prisons are all intended to be useful after the inmates are discharged, at one they are taught printing, at all there are schools where the convicts are both teachers and pupils, and the subjects taught include mathematics and foreign languages. In some prisons there is a brass band and a music room, and in all there are occasional readings, singing and concerts. Physical exercise is always enforced, and the yards of many of the prisons are planted with trees and flowers, cared for by the prisoners in their leisure time.”—J. G. Rosen-garten, *Prisons at home and abroad (pamphlet)*, pp. 1-3.—“By a provision of the penal code of 1791, criminals convicted a second time were ordered to be transported for life. By an act of the 24th Vendémiaire, in the year II., the Convention extended this order to include vagrants; and by the law of the 11th Brumaire, in the same year, the island of Madagascar was designated as the site of the proposed penal colony. The naval war between France and England prevented the execution of this design. In 1810, the project having remained in abeyance, the Code Napoléon abrogated the former code and so put an end to the project. In 1851, it was revived, during the reign of terror that succeeded the *coup d'état* of December 2, and by an unconstitutional ministerial decree, transportation was established. The decree named Guiana and Algiers as colonies to which prisoners might be sent; but it was modified, the year following, so as to apply only to Guiana. In May, 1854, an act legalizing transportation was passed, and this penalty was substituted for hard labor in the *bagne*, which were suppressed, though at Toulon continued to exist, until nearly twenty years later, as a depot for convicts awaiting passage across the sea. New Caledonia, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, about seven hundred miles east of Australia, was made a penal colony in 1863, at first merely as an experiment. Guiana and New Caledonia are now the only French penal settlements, though some military prisoners are still sent to Algiers. . . . French transportation is sustained by two powerful motives, the desire to be rid of dangerous criminals, and the wish to found colo-

nies."—F. H. Wines, *Punishment and reformation*, pp. 177-178, 180.

See also LETTRE DE CACHET.

Germany.—Efficient methods.—Medieval relics.—Revolution and reform.—"Prussian county compulsory workhouses seem to be managed with a German thoroughness, efficiency, and integrity, that make these county institutions, . . . fully comparable to the management of the German state prisons and penitentiaries. . . . In all European countries visited [there is] a most admirable absence of political influences. . . . Politics play no deleterious part in the appointments of correctional officials, high or low. To be sure, each country has its political parties, but the integrity of men in office is . . . rarely questioned. Positions such as . . . that of the head of the Prussian prison system . . . are practically of life tenure, during good behavior. Governors and directors of prisons, and subordinate officials as well, hold office without fear of removal for any cause except dereliction of duty, incompetency or immorality."—*Treatment of the offender (Sixty-seventh Annual Report of the Prison Association of New York, 1911, pp. 81-85)*.—The largest women's prison in Berlin was, in 1916, "a grim, heavily-barred structure in a poor district. . . . The equipment put America to shame. There were wonderful blue and white tiled corridors, spotlessly clean. The cells were as complete as a *cabin de luxe* on a steamer. The walls were soft buff color. All the corners were rounded. There were no cracks, no places for dust. Each cell had a neat little bed, a chair, complete sanitary arrangements, and two rows of shelves on which were toilet and eating utensils. These articles in brass and tin shone with newness and cleanliness. The effect was that of a sanitary dairy in white for cows. It demonstrated that a perfect existence of eating and sleeping could be carried on in a room 8 ft. by 6 ft. But cows so cared for produce pure milk. These convicts created nothing. They probably weren't even thinking good thoughts, for the windows were of ground glass. No speck of sky was visible, nor was there even a barred door to look through. The door was of solid wood, locked day and night. The small bull's-eye in the center could only be opened from the outside, and was for the use of the matron. The convict in her retreat was shut off from the world as though at the bottom of a well. No human sight or sound penetrated these walls. Even the half-hour of exercise brought little respite. The convicts, 5 ft. apart, filed round a cement court. On every side rose the high prison walls. Only above was there a tent of blue."—M. Doty, *Little commonwealth (Living Age, Jan. 29, 1916)*.—"The German revolution and the beginnings of democratic government make possible prison reform, a field in Germany where modern social ideas had least penetrated before the war. . . . There is still [1922] the executioner of the Middle Ages with his axe to carry out capital punishment; whipping is still permitted by law; but the old spirit is rapidly changing. . . . [The prison at Fuhlshüttel, Hamburg, is the largest in Europe and is now one of the most progressive.] The director, Mr. Koch, is a keen student of prison reform in other countries. . . . The obstacle which confronted him, and which he still finds in most German prisons . . . is the popular idea that the prison is primarily a place for punishment. He would make it, on the contrary, a sort of hospital for the morally sick. He decided to introduce the system of collaboration between the psychopath and social helper. . . . At present [1922] there are

at Fuhlshüttel three . . . assistants picked from civil life on their merits as practical social workers. . . . Aside from ordinary prison duties, they act as advisers to the men, helping them in their relations with their families and with the outside world. They see to it that the men's families have some sort of livelihood. . . . The idea of making the prison more like a large hospital, a place to live in rather than to rot in, is becoming a reality through extensive modern improvements. There are new kitchens, washrooms, a smithy and table factory, and, in construction, new hardware and soap factories. Gardens and playgrounds are also being planned. In place of the lockstep, prisoners are learning sports. . . . There is a prisoners' orchestra of twelve pieces, and a choir. . . . The men have been divided into three categories according to the length of their terms."—S. Griffith, *Prison reform in Europe: Germany (Survey, May 20, 1922)*.

Holland.—Vagrancy and Veenhuizen.—"From the end of the sixteenth century, when Holland founded its 'Rasp-houses' and 'Spin-houses' for the repression especially of beggars and mendicants, to the present day, when the vagrancy colony at Veenhuizen stands as an example of thousands of acres of land reclaimed not from the seas but from the desert heath, the little kingdom of Holland, numbering only about a million more inhabitants than live in greater New York, has given much attention to the reduction of vagrancy. . . . Far in the northern part of Holland, some thirty miles east of the Zuyder Zee, is situated Veenhuizen, the celebrated vagrancy labor colony. About eight miles from Assen, it is surrounded by uncultivated heath. . . . Veenhuizen has a long history. In 1818, the Dutch Society of Beneficence, having organized with 20,000 members within one year, founded several agricultural colonies for dependent families, called Frederiksoord, Willemsoord and Wilhelminasoord. Two years later, in 1820, a colony of about 1,900 acres for mendicants and vagrants, was established at Ommen, and was christened Ommerschans (Ommer barracks or fort). A second colony, called Veenhuizen (fen-dwellings), of 2,380 acres was also founded some eight miles west of Assen. . . . In 1859 the Dutch government took over both the beggar colonies (Ommerschans and Veenhuizen), when the Dutch Society of Beneficence was over two million dollars in debt. By degrees the government concentrated the beggars and vagrants at Veenhuizen. Begging became almost without exception the charge upon which the colonists were committed. At no time have the beggar colonies been self-supporting. . . . In 1890 the colony of Ommerschans was discontinued. In 1910, Dr. Albert Wilson of Edinburgh, in a study of tramps and beggars, wrote of Veenhuizen that 'they get encouraging results, for the system rewards and stimulates industry in lazy non-workers. Many of these recover and get into honest work again. Many of the drunkards recover. But, as in all such discouraging, hopeless undertakings, there are many failures and some return two or three times.' . . . The colonists are fed much less liberally than in American correctional institutions. Apart from the supplementary use of the canteen as a stimulus to work, the European prison administrations believe that their dietaries are sufficient, and that ours are too liberal."—*Treatment of the offender (Sixty-seventh Annual Report of the Prison Association of New York, pp. 102-105, 107, 110)*.

Italy.—Positivist reform of Italian penal code.—Italy was one of the first nations to abolish capital punishment; but the modern prison reform

movement has been slow in developing there. One of the most eminent names in the history of Italian prison reform, after Beccaria, is that of the Marchesa Giulia Falletti di Barola, who in the early half of the nineteenth century labored earnestly for the amelioration of prison conditions. "The nomination of a commission, presided over by Henry Ferri, for the reform of the Penal Code of 1889, by royal decree, September 14, 1919, is an event of great scientific importance and of real satisfaction to all who struggled and worked for the affirmation of criminological positivism. The Italian Positive School began in 1878 with the second edition of 'The Delinquent,' by Cæsar Lombroso; with the 'Theory of Imputability' and 'New Horizons of Penal Rights,' by Henry Ferri; with the 'Positive Criterion of Penalties,' by Raffaele Garofalo. . . . Forty years of research, of experience, of proposals, of scientific propaganda—the chief instigator of which was Henry Ferri—had shown up the defects of the Italian Code of 1889. . . . The Royal Decree of September 14, 1919, N. 1743, published in the *Official Gazette* of September 29th, N. 231, reads: 'Art. 1. At the Ministry of Justice is instituted a commission appointed to suggest the necessary reforms in the system of penal legislation to obtain, in harmony with the principles and rational methods for the defense of society against crime in general, a more efficacious and sure defense against habitual delinquency.' . . . Mr Ferri proposed, and the commission discussed and approved, the proposal to nominate four fundamental sub-commissions, which should show the principal types of criminals and allot the relative measures to each category of these. Then the expediency of the nomination of two other sub-commissions is conceded, which should respectively work on the co-ordination of the penal legislation of the restored territory with that of Italy and with the reforms at the institution of judicial police.

"The sub-commissions, numbering six in all, will be composed thus: I. Study of Occasional Criminals. . . . II. Study of the Habitual Criminals. . . . III. Study of Abnormal Criminals (lunatics, inebriates) . . . IV. Study of Criminals Under Age. . . . V. Co-ordination of the Legislation of the Restored Lands to the Italian Legislation. . . . VI. Reform of Judicial Police."—E. Ferri, *Journal of American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology*, May, 1920, pp. 67, 70, 71, 76.—There are seventy-seven penal establishments in Italy. Agricultural labor for convicts has been largely tried.

Japan.—Light punishments.—Slow reform.—"It is one of the most noteworthy facts in the history of our prison system that, in 1903, four prisons for the young were established at Kawagoe, Kumagai, Karatsu, and Nanao, where every effort has been made to correct and convert criminals under age, by making them work at farming and various handicrafts as well as by giving them a sound education. More recently, in 1906, the new building of the Odawara branch prison belonging to the Yokohama Prison office has been completed. This prison is a house of correction appropriated to the confinement of young prisoners, where they are treated according to the most up-to-date principles. . . . Our prison system, though it originated more than a thousand years ago, made no considerable progress during a great part of that long period. It underwent some changes when the Tokugawa family came into the office of Shōgun, but its fundamental principles remained essentially the same as they had been. That there was no outcry for prison reform, as there was in Western countries, may

probably be attributed to the fact that the modes of punishment were comparatively mild in our country. At the time of the Restoration, when every evil practice in the country began to be cleared away, the prison rules then in operation were reformed, personal rights and liberties were asserted to an extent before unknown, and the prospect suddenly became bright and promising so far as matters relating to the administration of justice were concerned. Thus came about the tour of inspection through the British settlements, and later, the mission to Europe. But for some time afterwards, little of importance happened in the way of prison reform, until in 1890 Herr Seebach was invited here from a famous model Moabit-Prison in Germany, and a gaolers' training school was established in Tōkyō and placed under his care. Since then the public have turned their attention more and more closely to the work of bettering the police and prison system; and of all the workers in the field, there stands at the head Prince Yamagata, who, when Minister of Home Affairs, contributed much to the reform, with the cordial assistance of his able subordinate, Viscount Kéigo Kiyoura, then Chief of the Police Bureau of the Home Department. In conclusion, there is one thing we must not forget for a moment, namely, the important part played by Christianity in these reforms. Before the introduction of enlightened German ideas concerning prisons in our country, it was an American missionary, Dr. Bayley by name, who first taught us how to manage prison affairs in a proper manner."—S. Okuma, *Fifty years of new Japan*, v. 1, pp. 317-318.

New South Wales.—Convict transportation abolished. See NEW SOUTH WALES: 1831-1855.

Spain.—Model prison at Valencia.—School of criminology.—"With regard to the logical and effective treatment of the criminal class, Spain is showing herself well in advance of the times. The Spanish Press has had a great deal to say about a new prison which is being run on entirely individual lines—at Valencia. . . . The aim of this Model Prison is thoroughly to educate those who are in sore need of instruction: to give them a new interest in life and to ensure their being able to support themselves honestly on their release. All sorts of trades are taught in airy and comfortable workrooms: such as grass-weaving, cabinet-making, etc.: and the whole atmosphere is not one of depression and unhappiness but rather of cheerful energy. . . . In connection with the really valuable work which Spain is to-day doing in the field of Criminal Anthropology, I quote at length from a most interesting article—from the pen of Señor A. Aguilera y Arjona—which was recently published in the *Nuevo Mundo*—"The School of Criminology in Madrid is installed in the same building as the prison. It is on the ground floor and consists of two lecture rooms, a library, a museum, a room for the professors, and a few smaller rooms. With this modest installation and the generous collaboration of a nucleus of *savants*, the immensely important work of penitentiary reform is being begun. . . . The pupils of the School of Criminology, having terminated their course of studies, will be sent out to direct prisons and penal establishments. . . . If, as is expected, the Madrid School of Criminology realises its ambitions, the probable result will be the entire reformation of Spanish prisons and the establishment of a new Penal Legislation to replace the antiquated system now in vogue.' . . . In the person of Don Rafael Salillas, Spain possesses an anthropologist of the first order: one who, in

many respects, walks in line with Cesare Lombroso."—Mrs. Villiers-Wardell, *Spain of the Spanish*, pp. 18-21.

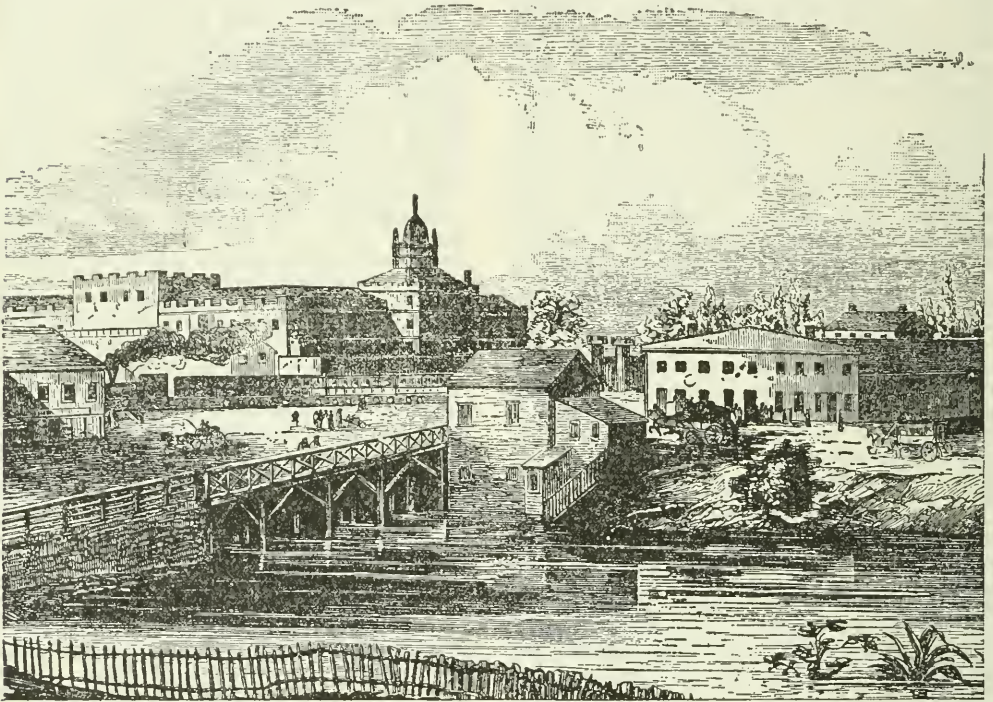
Sweden.—Half a century of reform.—Conditional release.—"The Swedish prison system in its present form [1914] is the result of about half a century's persistent and thorough work of reformation. The initiative to these reforms was taken by the Crown Prince of that day, afterwards King Oscar I., through his well-known work: *On Punishments and Prisons*, published in 1840. In this work he advocates the Philadelphian system (that of separate confinement) as the most suitable basis for the treatment of prisons in general. . . . The work of building provincial prisons according to the separate confinement system was immediately undertaken, and most of the läns of the Kingdom had prisons of this kind when the prison law of 1857 was promulgated. Through this law the separate confinement system was made obligatory for all sentenced to penal servitude for a term of two years or less. Separate confinement of *prisoners under trial* was completely realized. The separate confinement system was very considerably extended through the prison laws of July 29, 1892 and June 22, 1906. These laws provide that each prisoner sentenced to penal servitude shall, as far as possible, be kept in separate confinement for the whole time, if this does not exceed three years; but when the term is longer, for the first three years. . . . The prisons of the Kingdom—except for several jails in the towns and hundreds—amount to forty, with more than 3,000 solitary cells in all. . . . For those sentenced for vagrancy or mendicity or to compulsory work by the poor-law, there are four *penal workhouses*, two for men, viz. at *Svartsjö* and in *Karlskrona* each with room for 300, and two for women: in *Norrköping* for about 150, and *Landskrona*, 100; compulsory labour is done in common, but the nights are passed in solitary confinement. . . . Only the relatively few prisoners sentenced to penal servitude for a term exceeding three years and those sentenced for life are transferred, after three years of separate confinement, to work together in large workshops, but are carefully kept apart while not working, and spend the night in solitary cells. . . . In the application of the *separate confinement system*, the aim has always been, as far as possible, to prevent results of isolation injurious to the prisoners. . . . Various means are employed for this, such as systematic and regular work which demands assiduous attention from the foremen; daily exercise in the prison yards for at least half an hour; rational physical exercise and gymnastics, both in the cells and under supervision outside in the grounds; libraries chosen with discrimination (about 50,000 vols. altogether); instruction in religion and school-subjects; and by visits in the cells by the prison officials, as well as by other voluntary visitors; absolutely strict obedience to rules and regulations is required, and all means for self-indulgence, as for instance tobacco and snuff, are totally forbidden for those sentenced to penal servitude or to imprisonment in default of payment of fines. . . . All penitentiaries and penal workhouses are governed by the *Royal Board of Prisons*."—V. Almquist, *Prison system* (J. Guinchard, ed.), *Sweden*, pt. 1, pp. 268-270, 272.—"By the terms of a law passed in 1906 the principle of *conditional release* was introduced into Swedish criminal law. By that measure a Swedish court of justice is empowered to order that the execution of a penalty imposed shall be postponed, the delinquent in the meantime being under probation. Should he pass

through that period satisfactorily, the penalty he was sentenced to undergo is cancelled once for all. The privilege of the conditional release is only accorded to first offenders who had not been guilty of crimes involving severer penalties than three months' hard labour, six months' imprisonment, or a fine which it may be concluded the delinquent will be compelled to discharge by serving a term in gaol. Full *responsibility* with respect to criminal acts commences at the age of fifteen, but for those between the ages of fifteen and eighteen a special scale of reduced punishments is applicable."—F. P. Wetter, *Criminal law* (J. Guinchard, ed.), *Sweden*, pt. 1, pp. 313-314.

United States: Historical development in connection with European progress.—"While prisons, for the holding of human beings in confinement, have existed since the days of primitive cannibalism, the prison, as a distinct institution for the confinement of persons convicted of crime, is an institution which has developed almost entirely within the last hundred and forty years. Down to about 1780, in both Europe and America, the jails or prisons existed primarily for the confinement of heretics and debtors or for the safe-keeping of those accused of crime and pending their trial. Such as were convicted were normally sentenced either to corporal punishment, or, as became common after the colonial expansion began, to deportation. To speak with strict historical accuracy, the introduction of the notion of employing confinement within a prison, as the general method of punishing crime [in place of capital punishment], was due to William Penn and the Quakers of West Jersey, who provided for a system of workhouses in the penal code they drew up in 1681. Four years later William Penn introduced the same system into his Pennsylvania colony. . . . The real center from which the modern prison and its accompanying system of discipline and administration has spread was the system introduced in Philadelphia by the Quakers following 1776. In 1776 the Philadelphia Friends formed an association, entitled the Philadelphia Society for Assisting Distressed Prisoners, for the purpose of relieving the conditions of the debtors and accused persons confined in the jail at Third and High Streets. After the Revolutionary War this society was reorganized in the German School House at Philadelphia, as the Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Public Prisons. Between 1786 and 1795 the Society had secured the abolition of the barbarous criminal laws of Pennsylvania and the substitution of imprisonment for corporal punishment in the case of all crimes except murder. This necessitated the provision of a system of penal institutions which would make the confinement of the offender possible, and there was thus produced the modern prison. The Quakers . . . conceived the notion that the prevention of further depravity through evil association, as well as the probable future reformation of the culprit, would be most surely obtained through the solitary confinement of the convict. . . . To provide such a beneficial moral environment the Philadelphia reformers were able to persuade the Pennsylvania legislature to remodel the Walnut Street jail in 1790-91, so as to permit of the solitary confinement of the worst types of offenders. With the growth of the population of the state it became necessary to provide more commodious penal institutions, and, in 1818-21, laws were enacted authorizing the erection of two state penitentiaries on the system of solitary confinement. The Western Penitentiary was opened at Pittsburgh in 1826, and the Eastern Penitentiary at Philadel-

phia in 1829. This Eastern, or Cherry Hill Penitentiary, immediately became the world's most famous penal institution, visited by prison reformers from every point of the Western World. . . . The reason for the relative lack of popularity of the Pennsylvania system in America was primarily the rise in this country of another and a rival system of prison administration, namely, the Auburn system of combined isolation and association which, owing mainly to the indefatigable labors of Louis Dwight, came generally to dominate American penal administration until its popularity was threatened by the introduction of the Elmira system a half-century later. . . . Imitating the precedent of Pennsylvania by substituting imprisonment for corporal punishment, New York state reformed its penal code in the last decade of the eighteenth century and thereby created the necessity for a system of prisons. The older in-

formatory type of prison discipline ought to be substituted for the contemporary repressive prison system. It was a long time, however, before this aspiration was adequately realized. It was only achieved, and then imperfectly, in the Elmira Reformatory system introduced into New York State following 1870. A number of significant currents of reform in penology converged in producing this system. An important element was contributed by the new methods of prison discipline introduced in the British penal colony in Australia. Captain Alexander Maconochie came to Norfolk Island in Australia in 1840, and was able to bring about a tremendous improvement in penal methods by eliminating the old flat-time sentence and introducing the beginnings of commutation of sentence for good behavior. Every convict, according to the seriousness of his offense, instead of being sentenced to a given term of years, had a certain num-



STATE PRISON AND RAILROAD BUILDINGS, AUBURN, NEW YORK, IN 1849

stitutions proving so unequal to the task of housing the larger number of prisoners confined under the new method of punishment that by 1810 the Governor had to pardon as many prisoners annually as were committed, the legislature, in 1816, authorized the building of a new prison at Auburn. Between 1817 and 1824, the system of discipline here enforced alternated between the old congregate system and the solitary or Pennsylvania system, but, by 1824, under the guidance of Elam Lynds, Gershom Powers and John Cray, the Auburn system of solitary confinement by night and associated labor by day had come into existence. This type of discipline and administration was soon introduced in the new Sing Sing prison, and into the state prisons of Connecticut and Massachusetts at Wethersfield and Charlestown, respectively. . . . In his two works, *The Penitentiary Systems of Europe and America* (1828) and *The Theory of Imprisonment* (1836) that wise and progressive French penologist, M. Charles Lucas, had clearly taken the advanced position that a curative re-

ber of marks set against him which he had to redeem before he was liberated. . . . At about the same time the notion of an indeterminate time sentence was originated and given popularity through the writings of Archbishop Whately of Dublin, the Scotchman George Combe, and especially the English reformers, Frederick and Matthew Davenport Hill. Its supplement, the famous parole system, while anticipated by a number of other reformers, was most systematically and effectively advocated by the French publicist, Bonnevillle de Marsangy. Maconochie's system of determining the period of incarceration upon the basis of the behavior of the convict was combined with the notion of the indeterminate sentence and parole in the famous Irish system of prison administration, which was introduced by Sir Walter Crofton in the decade following 1853. To these earlier progressive innovations he added the practice of classifying convicts in graded groups, through which each convict had to pass before obtaining his freedom on parole, his ad-

vancement being determined by his conduct. The notion of productive and instructive prison labor, which goes back to the Pennsylvania Quakers, was also developed by a number of progressive penologists during the second quarter of the nineteenth century, especially by Montesinos in Spain and Obermaier in Bavaria. All of these liberal and progressive innovations . . . attracted the attention of the leading American reformers, most notably Theodore W. Dwight and E. C. Wines of the New York Prison Association, F. B. Sanborn of Concord, Massachusetts, Z. R. Brockway, Superintendent of the Detroit House of Correction, and Gaylord Hubbell, Warden of Sing Sing Prison. All of these men prepared able, vigorous and widely read public reports or private monographs, urging the adoption of these advanced methods in the American prison system, but they were able only to secure the introduction of these innovations for the treatment of younger first offenders. A law authorizing the creation of such an institution at Elmira, New York, was passed in 1869, and the institution was opened in 1877, with Mr. Brockway as its first superintendent. A decent preliminary approximation to the principle of the indeterminate sentence was secured, and the inmates were divided into classes or grades through which they might advance to ultimate parole by virtue of good conduct, if they did not desire to remain in the institution for the maximum sentence. The great advance which the Irish and Elmira systems mark over Pennsylvania and Auburn systems, was the fact that in these later types of penal discipline the term of incarceration was at least roughly made to depend upon the observable progress made by the prisoner on the road to ultimate reformation. . . . One of the most conspicuous and significant phases of the progress of prison administration in the last century has been the development of a scientific differentiation in the institutions designed to treat the criminal class. . . . The rise of the Pennsylvania and Auburn systems marked a great step in the way of progress. The accused were separated from the convicted, and separate portions of the prison were assigned to the male and female prisoners. The next step came in the creation of Houses of Refuge for young offenders. . . . The movement reached its highest early development in Holland, where, by the seventeenth century, a famous system of such institutions for the neglected and delinquent youth had developed. . . . The first House of Refuge for juvenile delinquents in this country was opened at Madison Square in New York City on January 25, 1825. It was built far north of the center of the city, in the hope that a century of municipal expansion would not disturb it. The second institution of the kind was opened in Boston in 1826, and the third in Philadelphia in 1828. But these were private institutions, though in part open to the use of the commonwealth. The first state institution for juvenile delinquents was opened at Westboro, Massachusetts, in 1847. These early Houses of Refuge, however, were nothing more than prisons for young offenders. . . . The origination of the more modern and humane method of handling juvenile delinquents in the cottage or family arrangement was due to the work of the French publicist and reformer, Frederick Auguste Demetz . . . [who] opened at Mettray in 1840, his first agricultural colony for juvenile delinquents administered according to the 'Family system.' His system spread rapidly, being first introduced into this country at the state reform school in Lancaster, Ohio, in 1855. . . . The progress has been a long and gradual one from

these early 'cottage institutions' to such a system as that of the George Junior Republic or that now practiced in such a reform school as the girls' institution at Sleighton Farms in Pennsylvania, where inmate self-government and an extremely close approximation to normal family life prevail. . . . About the same time, there began a movement for transferring the insane and idiotic from penal institutions and poor-houses to the first crude hospitals for the insane. This important advance owes its origin almost wholly to the great work of Dorothea Lynde Dix, a name little known to-day, but one which is worthy to rank with any in the history of the nineteenth-century philanthropy. For a generation following 1830 she labored incessantly in the cause of a better and more scientific method of handling the insane. . . . Our prisons started at the close of the eighteenth century either with no labor at all, or else with merely the crudest forms of tasks, such as breaking stone, grinding meal, or even manipulating a treadmill. With development of the merchant capitalists in this country in the 1830's, there arose a demand for prison labor, and these men very generally contracted for the services of such convict labor as they desired, according to the 'lease' system, whereby they took complete charge of the prisoners during working hours. This method became remarkably popular during the period of abnormal demand for prison labor in the Civil War. This crude lease system obviously possessed certain oppressive features, and it was gradually supplanted by the so-called 'piece-price' variety of the contract system, according to which the contractor did not lease the bodies of the convicts, but agreed to pay for the product of their labor at a stipulated price per piece. Where willing contractors did not exist or where their methods were obnoxious, the 'public-account' system was introduced, and the products made by the prisoners were sold by the state agents in the public market. But, after the rise of the labor organizations in the 70's, violent opposition to convict labor arose on the part of the laborers outside the prison walls. Prison labor was branded an unfair type of competition, and free labor demanded a cessation of both the contract and public-account systems. Where the labor organizations were strong they either brought about the abolition of practically all prison labor, producing great suffering on the part of the prison population, as in Pennsylvania since 1897, or forced the states to adopt the 'state-use' system, in which prison-made products were not sold to the public at all, but were used in various state institutions. More recently the progress of a more liberal attitude towards the criminal has allowed him to be employed outside the prison on roads or public improvements, and in this way there has developed that variant of the state-use system known as the 'public works and ways' system. Particularly significant has been the recent movement to purchase large prison farms and to put the convicts at agricultural labor. Some feeble beginnings have been made toward instituting a system of compensation or wages for convicts."—H. E. Barnes, *Some leading phases of the evolution of modern penology* (*Political Science Quarterly*, June, 1922).—See also NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1876-1884.

United States: Jail system. — Antiquated features.—"Very little change has occurred in the constitution or management of the jail in this country, since the days of our forefathers. The county and municipal jails still [written in 1921] exist. The cost of erecting and maintaining the jail is borne by the county or the municipality. The

sheriff is usually the official in charge, though in some states keepers are appointed. Prisoners, it is true, do not now pay for their board and lodging; counties and municipalities must meet that expense out of the general taxes. In many counties, however, the board is in the nature of a fee which is paid to the sheriff or keeper on a per diem basis. In several places, there is still the fee for unlocking the jail doors, a political rakeoff of considerable value. Jails continue to serve as houses of detention and places of punishment. Little or no work is done in any of them, and while the sanitation has improved with the general progress of that science throughout the world, there is still the general atmosphere of seventeenth century slovenliness and neglect. Grand juries inspect on occasion with the same result that attended their efforts in the distant past. Most states have, however, now established state inspection, and in some states this policy has borne good fruit. The only change of any importance that has taken place has come through the establishment of juvenile reformatories and the development of the probation system. . . . Our jail has been very severely handled by critics. All, foreigners and Americans alike, have proclaimed in no uncertain tones that it is a disgrace to the nation. . . . The food is often inadequate and the rations improperly balanced. As a result, a man comes out of jail little fitted to take his part in the fierce competitive struggle which is now going on. In spite of all laws to the contrary, there is often intimate association of the prisoners; juvenile offenders are frequently thrown in with adults and hardened criminals. Proper provision for the separation of the convicted and the unconvicted is not made, and in many jails female prisoners are even denied that privacy which every instinct of decency demands. Few jails have adequate workrooms. Idleness is thus the rule, and work the exception. Supported at public expense and living a life of vicious ease, is it any wonder that prisoners suffer in health and morals from imprisonment in the jail? . . . Prison reformers are turning more and more to the plan of eliminating the jails rather than reforming them. The reasons which have influenced men to work for the abandonment of jails as places of detention for sentenced prisoners are two in number. In the first place the county is entirely too small a unit of prison administration. . . . The majority of the jails are . . . limited in population. Some indeed have no inmates; others have three or four. It is, therefore, useless to expect county authorities to establish a modern prison for the detention and reformation of criminals. Nor would it be wise for them to do so. . . . One such institution would easily suffice for several counties. The second reason for this attempt to replace the jails by state institutions is closely akin to the first. Just as the county is not able, on account of its size, to provide the kind of prison which public opinion now demands, so also it fails and will continue to fail, to solve the question of management because a good superintendent is not to be had for the money which the county authorities, having in mind the small number of prisoners in the jail, are willing to offer. . . . The experience, moreover, of England supports this view. . . . A steady growth of supervision and control by the central government . . . finally terminated in 1878 in the assumption by the state of the entire control of the jails. At once an enormous reduction in the number was made. In the United States the same movement is well under way. . . . In view of the fact that the change from local jails to state institutions will

be slow in coming, it will be well to consider briefly some of the schemes for a better utilization of the present jails. . . . In Washington County, Vt., the prisoners are allowed to work for private individuals on the outside, going to and from the jail to work as ordinary workmen from a boarding house, without guards and dressed in citizen clothes. They pay to the jail a certain proportion of their wages, sufficient to cover the cost of the institution, and the remainder they are allowed to keep for themselves. A similar arrangement is also in force in Wisconsin. Through legislation, many states have made it possible to employ jail prisoners on the roads. In the South, this is done almost universally, and the jail serves merely as a house of detention, the prisoners being sent, immediately after being sentenced, to road camps. In the North, it is more customary to bring the men back to the jail at the close of the day's work. Everywhere in the South it has been found that far better conditions prevail where the road work is carried on by the state than where it is directly under the oversight of local authorities, thus indicating the superiority of state control as compared with that of local authorities. Indeed, conditions in some of the local road camps have been and are now unspeakable. In addition to road work, the jail prisoners have carried on other kinds of public work of a minor nature, such as caring for public lawns. They have also done some farming. All of these efforts to get the men out of jail at work in the open air are to be encouraged. They do not, however, constitute an ideal solution of the problem. The jail still remains on account of the smallness of its size generally incapable of making any positive contribution to a prisoner's character, and, while its evils may be mitigated, they cannot be eradicated in any of these ways."—L. N. Robinson, *Penology in the United States*, pp. 39-47, 50-51.

United States: National Prison Congress, 1870.—Local associations.—The establishment of the first prison association in Philadelphia in 1776, inaugurated an important method of reform. New York's prison association was founded in 1844, and received its charter from the state in 1846. "Conspicuous among the many results in which the Association shared were the campaign for the establishment of Elmira Reformatory; the study of the Jukes family by Mr. Dugdale, one of the managers of the Association; the development of probation in New York State; the development through many years of the parole system in New York City for the State reformatories and State Prisons; the establishment of the National Prison Association (now the American Prison Association) through the activity of Dr. E. C. Wines, corresponding secretary of the Association in 1870; the organization of the International Prison Congress by Dr. Wines. . . . The most conspicuous militant activity of the Association has been . . . the campaign under the slogan: 'Sing Sing Must Go.' . . . One of the most important branches of the work of the Prison Association is its Parole Bureau. . . . A special bureau of the Prison Association is devoted to the charitable assistance of the families of men who are imprisoned."—*Treatment of delinquents (Seventy-third Annual Report of the Prison Association of New York, 1917, pp. 17-19, 90)*.—"Each year the association carries on legislative activities at Albany during the sessions of the Assembly and Senate. In 1916 a prison exhibit was opened in New York, consisting of fourteen divisions, devoted to such subjects as prison industries, the released prisoner, parole and probation, correctional needs, etc. "The most complete

and authoritative compendium of American belief with reference to all the elements that enter into the prison question is the 'Declaration of Principles,' which was adopted by the National Prison Congress of Cincinnati [in 1870]. It was formulated by Dr. E. C. Wines, but slightly, though not materially, modified by the committee to which it was referred for revision. Every section of this paper was separately voted upon by the Congress.

... The supreme aim of prison discipline [according to the documents of this Congress] is the reformation of criminals, not the infliction of vindictive suffering. . . . But neither in the United States nor in Europe, as a general thing, has the problem of reforming criminals yet been solved.

... It is evident, therefore, that our aims and our methods need to be changed. . . . Since hope is a more potent agent than fear, it should be made an ever present force in the minds of the prisoners, by a well devised and skilfully applied system of rewards for good conduct, industry, and attention to learning. Such reward should consist of: 1. A diminution of sentence. 2. A participation by prisoners in their earnings. 3. A gradual withdrawal of prison restraints. 4. Constantly increasing privileges, as they shall be earned by good conduct. Rewards, more than punishments, are essential to every good prison system."—C. R. Henderson, ed., *Correction and prevention*, pp. 46-47.

United States: Indeterminate sentence.—Origin in Massachusetts.—"Probation arose in Massachusetts. Officially, it dates from a law of 1878 authorizing the mayor of Boston to appoint a probation officer for Suffolk County. For some six years prior to this the work had, however, been carried on unofficially. About the year 1872, a large hearted man, Father Cook by name, began his ministry in the criminal courts of Boston. He succeeded in gaining the good will of the judges, and, where it seemed that the offender stood in more need of a wise and sympathetic friend than a sentence, the case would be *continued* and the offender turned over to Father Cook. . . . Though probation in Massachusetts had met with a fair degree of success, it was not until 1899, twenty-one years after the first law had been placed on the statute books, that the system ceased to be a purely Massachusetts institution. In that year, Rhode Island passed a law providing for both adult and juvenile probation, and in the same year Minnesota and Illinois embarked on the scheme of juvenile probation. . . . By January 1, 1921, thirty-five states and the District of Columbia had adopted adult probation, but forty-seven states plus Alaska, Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia had probation for juveniles. The year 1903 was very favorable for the spread of Juvenile probation, nine states having made provision for its use in that year. Similarly the year 1909 can be considered the banner year for adult probation as it was then that eight states put it into their penal system. . . . The paroling of prisoners is now [1921] quite general in the United States. State after state has rapidly provided some method of doing this, and now there is no state that does not release a large proportion of its prisoners from state prisons and penitentiaries in this way."—L. N. Robinson, *Penology in the United States*, pp. 195-197, 217.—The law of 1889 in New York state introduced the principles of indeterminate sentence and parole which were extended by laws passed in 1901, 1902, and 1907. "Chapter 738, Laws of 1907, changed the penalty for murder second degree from life imprisonment to an indeterminate term having a minimum of 20 years and

a maximum of life. . . . It is the intent of this law that the man who has demonstrated the fact that he is a persistent criminal shall be kept under supervision during life. . . . If at any time after he has served his minimum term there is a reasonable probability that he will remain at liberty without violating the law, the Board may parole him."—*Report of the Board of Parole for State Prisons*, 1907.

ALSO IN: *American Year Book*, 1915, pp. 411-412.—*Ibid.*, 1916, p. 404.

United States: George Junior Republic.—Much attention has been turned from many directions, within the last few years, upon the reformatory experiment which bears the name of the George Junior Republic. From an ordinary undertaking to give a few summer weeks of country fresh air to a group of neglected, roughly-bred boys, out of the slums of the city of New York, it has grown into a unique institution, which remolds character and refashions life for hundreds of the young of both sexes, who had been given the wrong start in the world by the circumstances into which they were born. It has done this by the simple method of organizing them into a self-governing community—a republic in which they are citizens, invested with all the responsibilities, duties, and cares that go with republican citizenship in its larger spheres. This remarkable organization was not framed up by its architect, Mr. William R. George, on the lines of a preconceived theory, but took its shape slowly from suggestions of experience as they came. He began in 1890 to take companies of boys of the hoodlum class from New York city to his place of summer residence, at Freeville, a few miles from Ithaca and not far from Auburn, New York. Step by step, from year to year the fabric of self-government and self-supporting industry was constructed, until the Junior republic emerged, with its president and other executive officers, its representative legislature, its courts, its police, its own monetary system and bank,—a political and industrial commonwealth of boys and girls (for both sexes have been included), taken out of a derelict class for treatment by this simple inoculation with social responsibilities.

United States: Correctional institutions.—"The Board of Parole of the City of New York was organized in 1905. At the same time an institution for youthful offenders was located on Hart's Island, to be known as the New York City Reformatory for Misdemeanants. . . . The New Hampton Farms colony was established to relieve Hart's Island and the younger boys were transferred in March, 1914. The boys are chosen because of their trustworthiness and are put on honor. They have erected such buildings as were necessary, have plowed sixty acres of the farm, and planted over forty. . . . San Diego in 1912 organized a 7,000-acre farm for delinquents. Duluth conducts a farm of 1,000 acres, to which drunks and similar offenders are sent for ten to twenty days. The so-called farm is chiefly of second-growth timber which is being cleared by the prisoners. The men are not only working in the open air; the foremen are unarmed guards. Cincinnati is engaged in humanizing its correctional institutions. Its Houses of Refuge for boys and girls are now located on farms. A farm of 300 acres was purchased in Glendale in 1913, and 'Boyland' was established. Another farm of 135 acres in Wyoming, Ohio, was bought for the girls. . . . The girls are taught domestic occupations, but the inmates of the workhouse do the laundry work for these two houses and other public institutions.

Thus the women are given occupation with the use of modern conveniences, and, at the same time, serve the community profitably. Juvenile correctional institutions are usually located in the country. Cleveland has gone beyond any other city in the concentration of its correctional institutions under one administration, while keeping them in the country. The Cooley Farms, a tract of 2,000 acres, named in honor of Doctor Harris R. Cooley, Tom Johnson's original appointee to take charge of Cleveland's dependents and delinquents, houses the Colony Farm for almshouse inmates, the Correction Farm for vagrants, the Girls' and Boys' Farms, and the Overlook Farm for tuberculosis patients. The purpose of these farms is to afford a refuge where offenders may work out their own salvation, living in the open air and paying their own way. Doctor Cooley has humanized the almshouse. The old couples, who were formerly segregated, are now allowed to live together on this big farm and work their own little garden patches. Over the door of the poorhouse is this inscription, 'It is better to lose money than to lose love.' The petty offenders, who are sent to the Correction Farm, have been so invigorated that they have organized a Brotherhood of Prisoners which finds employment for the released prisoners."—C. Zueblin, *American municipal progress*, pp. 162-163.

United States: Paid prison labor in New Jersey.—An important extension of the wage payment system has been introduced in New Jersey. "Men are selected for training, for shop work, for road construction work, for work upon farms, and are moved from one type of work to another through the application of the United States Army Group and Industrial Tests. . . . The payment of a wage is reserved for those who actually turn out products that are marketable or work that saves the State a definite amount of money expenditure. . . . A wage payment is made for clearing land, for growing crops and for caring for live stock at the State Prison Farm at Leesburg. . . . Under contracts for road construction with the Highway Department, the State receives, for men working on the roads, the prevailing rate of wages of the locality for the grade of labor to which they belong, less extra cost of supervision, if any, and less allowance for their inefficiency as contrasted with free labor, if any. When the remainder is received in the department, a deduction is made to cover the average cost of maintenance and the remainder is paid to the man himself as his own cash payment. This is in accordance with the principles laid down by President Wilson in his proclamation, pursuant to which the War Labor Policies Board, during the war, fixed the wages paid for the employment of New Jersey State prisoners upon the reconstruction of soldiers' shoes."—G. Lewis, *New York Times*, Aug. 19, 1920.

ALSO IN: H. E. Barnes, *History of the penal reformatory and correction institutions of the state of New Jersey*.—G. W. Kirchway, *Report of the New Jersey Prison Inquiry Commission (Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, Aug., 1918)*.

United States: Prison labor laws. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1864-1920.

United States.—Results of prison reform movement.—Percentages of real reformation.—New methods of Thomas Mott Osborne.—Education: Renewed interest.—"The movement, which began in the first twenty-five years of our national life, to establish state institutions in which the more serious offenders should be imprisoned, has become a permanent feature of our nation. With the exception of Delaware, each state now

[1921] has at least one state prison or state penitentiary; several of the states have two, and New York has four. The total combined number of state prisons and state penitentiaries is fifty-eight. In 1910, the number of criminals committed to these fifty-eight prisons was 20,981; the number of prisoners enumerated within the prisons on January 1, 1910, was 56,896. . . . Unlike the population of the country, these state institutions are moving from the city to the country. The drift is unmistakable; so much so that it is extremely doubtful if any new ones will be built in or on the outskirts of a city. Even those well established institutions, now located in a city, are buying large farms and transferring to these a sufficient number of trustees to work the place. Minnesota, for example, now has 965 acres; Wisconsin over 2,000; and the new Penitentiary at Rockview, Pennsylvania, about 5,000 acres. In the report of nearly every state prison, not already equipped with a farm, there is an insistent demand on the part of the warden for land on which to work part of his men. Though this movement from the city to the country is taking place all over the United States, it has reached its greatest development in the South where climatic conditions make farming the year around a genuine possibility. The huge size of some of the southern prison farms is almost beyond belief. South Carolina has 4,168 acres; Florida has 17,000 acres; Texas, 73,461 acres; Louisiana, 15,600 acres; and Mississippi 28,750 acres. . . . The Elmira [reformatory] idea spread rapidly. By 1921, there were, all told, twenty-nine reformatories for adults—eighteen for men and eleven for women—located in eighteen different states. . . . Outside of New York not a single reformatory for women was established before 1900. . . . Since that time, progress has been rapid, accentuated greatly by the World War which has brought the problem of the proper treatment of prostitutes very much into the foreground. Six more states have either built or are building reformatories for women. . . . Mr. Brockway states that in 1888 a searching investigation of all the paroled prisoners of the Elmira reformatory was made and that 78.5 per cent were found to be living self-supporting and orderly lives. The following paragraphs, quoted from a report of the former warden of the Ohio State Reformatory, Mr. Leonard, give a somewhat more detailed picture of the outgoing stream: 'From the best information obtainable, I would give as my best judgment and belief after making liberal deductions, that sixty-five per cent (65%) of the young men who go out on parole from this institution, live free from crime and their success in life and usefulness as citizens is above the average of the people of their class and circumstances; this because of the education and industrial training received at the Reformatory. 'Another twenty-five per cent (25%) are weak in character and of low value as citizens and liable, under special temptation, to stumble into delinquency. The remaining fifteen per cent (15%) recommit crime of varying degrees, and upon the whole are of little value in the social fabric and should be classed as delinquents and a burden upon society. . . . If there is any mistake in this estimate it is in placing too high the number that revert to criminal conduct.' From figures in the report of the Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory for 1917-18, it would appear, taking the average for the last eighteen years, that 14.44 per cent of those paroled each year violate their parole during the year. Thirty-five per cent of the one hundred and sixty women paroled from the Clinton Farms Reformatory,

New Jersey, since its beginning had by 1917 violated their parole. The superintendent of the Illinois State Reformatory says in his biennial report for the period of 1914-1916 that ninety per cent of those paroled during this period made their parole, that is, obtained their final releases. . . . From such information as is available, from ten to forty per cent of those paroled violate their parole within the period of supervision. Considering the class of offenders sent to the reformatories, this does not seem to the writer a discouragingly large average.—L. N. Robinson, *Penology in the United States*, pp. 76, 88, 120, 123, 126-127, 149-150.—The most important contribution of the twentieth century to prison reform has been the system of self-government, inaugurated by Thomas Mott Osborne, first at Auburn and then at Sing Sing, in 1914. "Mr. Osborne, who is in the middle fifties, is an alumnus of Harvard and a man of affairs. He retired from business with a fortune, and has held more than one public office. . . . In 1913 [he] was made chairman of the State Commission on Prison Reform. During his entire public life he has been known to politicians as an eager obstructor of political schemes and an aggressive enemy of Tammany Hall and all its works. He was little known to the general public, however, until September, 1913, when he attracted attention that was world-wide by undergoing a week's voluntary confinement under the name of 'Tom Brown,' in Auburn prison, during which period he lived the life of the other prisoners, worked with them in the shops, subsisted on their food, and slept in a cell at night. . . . His animating purpose was to ascertain actual conditions in a state prison; to learn at first hand some of the evils of the existing prison system. It was his prison 'partner' Jack Murphy, as is told in the narrative of Mr. Osborne's underworld experiences, 'Within Prison Walls,' who conceived the idea of the Mutual Welfare League, the system of self-government by the inmates themselves [as distinct from the honor system] that has revolutionized all previous notions of prison discipline, and which was adopted in Auburn in February [1914]. . . . Mr. Osborne began the work of organizing the league soon after his release from his self-imposed prison term, and from the beginning sought to have the men evolve its principles and pledges among themselves—not through him nor through officers of the prison. . . . An inmate of the prison is eligible to membership in the league; . . . The men elect their own officers, without the slightest suggestion by prison officers, and this condition automatically ended the 'stool pigeon,' or spy, system at Auburn, for the companies of prisoners and their officers instinctively aimed to adjust themselves to secure the minimum of trouble at chapel, in the shops, and at recreation."—F. M. White *Prisons of freedom* (C. Bacon, ed., *Prison reform*, pp. 113-114.)—"When, on that day momentous in prison annals, the first Sunday in December, 1914, Mr. Osborne [then warden of Sing Sing] revolutionized Sing Sing's system of government and gave the men privileges hitherto unheard of in penal institutions, he warned them that they held their fate largely in their own hands. 'What the average man outside of prison will have in mind when the time comes to consider whether our experiment is a success,' he said, in effect, will not be whether you have been benefited, but whether he has. Therefore the best argument I can advance to the Legislature when I ask for a new prison and additional privileges for you will be that under the new system you have done more and better work. Let me impress upon every one of you that the work

you accomplish will be the measure of the success of our experiment in the public mind.' That the men realized that the warden spoke the truth is indicated by a comparison of the statement of the prison's industries for the fiscal year of 1913-14, under the old conditions, with that of 1914-15, under the new. The gross sales of the products of Sing Sing in 1913-14 amounted to \$318,733.59, and in 1914-15 to \$354,327.89, showing an increase under the Osborne régime of \$60,722.56, or about twenty-one per cent. The profit goods manufactured at Sing Sing in 1913-14 was \$282,093.83, and in 1914-15 \$342,816.39, showing an increase under the Osborne régime of about one hundred per cent. The per centage of profit on the production of 1913-14 was fourteen per cent; under the Osborne régime in 1914-15 it was twenty-four per cent. The per capita cost of officers' salaries at Sing Sing for the last fiscal year was far less than at any of the other three State prisons. At Great Meadow, with an average daily population of 712, the per capita cost of officers' salaries was \$94.14; at Clinton, with an average daily population of 1,447, it was \$88.35; and at Auburn, with an average daily population of 1,429, it was \$88.53. At Sing Sing, with an average daily population of 1,616, the per capita cost of officers' salaries was only \$80.85. One of the most striking results of the operation of the machinery of the Mutual Welfare League in Sing Sing has been its beneficial effect upon prison discipline."—F. M. White, *True Sing Sing* (C. Bacon, ed., *Prison reform*, pp. 122-123).—"The full history of the Mutual Welfare League is still to be written; but the experiences of the last ten years at Auburn and Sing Sing prisons and the United States Naval Prison at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, are full of instruction for those who wish to learn. Unfortunately, the League no longer exists at Portsmouth, it has been crushed out of recognition at Auburn, and it was badly mutilated some years ago at Sing Sing, where, however, it still survives, having converted two wardens who took office as skeptics. But what has been done once can be done again."—T. M. Osborne, *Prisons and common sense* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Sept., 1923).—"In the California State Prison at San Quentin, correspondence courses are conducted by the extension division of the University of California. "San Quentin is not a model prison. It has many faults, but its health and educational activities are real contributions to the prison problem. There I found a genuine interest in education; and an ambition to attempt the experiment of turning the prison into an educational institution. Some nine hundred men were registered in eleven hundred individual courses. The chaplain who is in charge of the work, has, with the coöperation of the University of California made a genuine beginning of what is the most interesting and promising education experiment in the American prisons."—F. Tannenbaum, *Facing the prison problem* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Feb., 1922).—"The Kansas penitentiary at Lansing also offers prisoners the chance to take the extension courses given by the agricultural college of the state. The crime wave which followed the World War caused a renewal of interest in prisons and prison reform. Political prisoners also directed attention to the prison. "More intelligence, probably, has been locked up in our prisons during the past three years [written in 1920] than ever before at one time. The political and war-time offenders of several kinds—persons convicted under the Espionage act for expression of opinion, conscientious objectors, members of the I. W. W., and others have brought to their cell life a faculty for critical

analysis and a power of statement that probably excel, at least in amount, anything of the sort heretofore possessed by people behind the bars."—*Survey*, Apr. 24, 1920, p. 151.—Kate Richards O'Hare, Evan Thomas, and Frank Tannenbaum in America and Stephen Hobbhouse in England are among the political prisoners who have written of inside conditions. "A whole new literature on reform of the penal system has arisen in England. . . . In Belgium, Austria, Germany, Czechoslovakia and other continental countries a prison reform movement is under way that is inspired largely by a new-born public sentiment to bring the penal institutions into line with modern democratic thought."—*Survey*, Mar. 4, 1922, p. 883.

International conferences.—Coöperation of experts.—The International Prison Association, which has had a wide influence, was organized in 1871. "Its existence was due primarily to the initiative of an eminent American penologist, the late Rev. E. C. Wines, and to the official encouragement and support given to the enterprise by the Government of the United States. Dr. Wines was not the first to secure international consideration of penological problems. As early as 1846 several eminent penologists of Europe, among them Aubanel, Ducpetiaux, and Mittermaier, organized a congress of persons in different countries interested in the prevention of crime and in the study of penological questions. The congress was held in Frankfort-on-the-Main in that year, in Brussels in 1847, and again in Frankfort in 1857. These congresses were due entirely to private initiative and activity. No governments were officially represented, and they were not organized on a permanent basis. Dr. Wines was able, however, to unite private interest and activity with official power and influence. Both are necessary in a work of this kind. . . . Dr. Wines was fortunate in securing the coöperation of the heads of governments, of the directors of prison administration, and of some of the most prominent criminalists in Europe. At the first Congress, held in London, in 1871, twenty governments were represented. Then it became necessary to insure the life of the congress and to provide for its continued activity. This was done by the establishment of a permanent commission composed of a representative from each government subscribing to its constitution and also to its treasury. The International Prison Commission, which is the executive and permanent arm of the Congress, endeavors to maintain some relation not only between the governments which are united for this object, but between experts in every land. Valuable as are the quinquennial meetings and discussions, a phase of its work still more valuable is the preparation of reports by experts and competent writers, in different countries, concerning questions and problems submitted by the Commission. It is thus able to secure the coöperation of a large number of experts who are not able to attend the Congress in person."—S. J. Barrows, *Progress in penology* (C. Bacon, ed., *Prison reform*, pp. 23-24).—See also CRIME AND CRIMINOLOGY.

ALSO IN: *Proceedings of the International Prison Congress, 1-8, 1872-1910.*—R. F. Quinton, *Crime and criminals.*—Idem, *Modern prison curriculum.*—H. Dixon, *John Howard and the prison world of Europe.*—C. R. Henderson, ed., *Correction and prevention—Annual Reports of the Prison Association of New York.*—*Annual Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work.*—C. R. Henderson, *Cause and cure of crime.*—*Journal of the American Institute of Crime and Criminology.*—C. Lytton, *Prisons and prisoners.*—G. A. Ives, *History*

of penal methods.—E. Ruggles-Brise, *English prison system.*—B. and S. Webb, *English prisons under local government.*—M. Gordon, *Penal discipline.—Report of the Prison System Enquiry Committee* (S. Hobbhouse and A. F. Brockway, ed.).—L. N. Robinson, *Penology in the United States.*

PRISONERS OF WAR. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Convention with respect to laws and customs of war on land; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIII. Prisoners and prisons: a; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part VI. Section 1; SEVRES, TREATY OF (1920) Part VI. Prisoners of war; YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: World War activities: 1914-1918: Work among prisoners.

PRISONS AND PRISON-PENS, Confederate: Libby.—Belle Isle.—Andersonville.—Libby prison, best known of the Confederate prisons during the Civil War, was generally used for officers, although some private soldiers were also confined there. It was situated in Richmond, Virginia, and consisted of a row of brick buildings, formerly a tobacco warehouse. "The prison did not seem to be under any general and uniform army regulations, but the captives were subject to the caprices of Major Turner, the officer in charge, and Richard Turner, inspector of the prison. It was among the rules that no one should go within three feet of the windows, a rule which seems to be general in all Southern prisons of this character. . . . Often by accident, or unconsciously, an officer would go near a window, and be instantly shot at without warning. . . . The daily ration in the officers' quarter of Libby prison was a small loaf of bread about the size of a man's fist, made of Indian meal. Sometimes it was made from wheat flour, but of variable quality. It weighed a little over half a pound. With it was given a piece of beef weighing two ounces. . . . Belle Isle [where private soldiers were confined] is a small island in the James River opposite the Tredegar Iron-works, and in full sight from the Libby windows. . . . The portion on which the prisoners are confined is low, sandy, and barren, without a tree to cast a shadow, and poured upon by the burning rays of a Southern sun. Here is an enclosure, variously estimated to be from three to six acres in extent, surrounded by an earthwork about three feet high, with a ditch on either side. . . . The interior has something of the look of an encampment, a number of Sibley tents being set in rows, with 'streets' between. These tents, rotten, torn, full of holes,—poor shelter at any rate,—accommodated only a small proportion of the number who were confined within these low earth walls. The number varied at different periods, but from 10,000 to 12,000 men have been imprisoned in this small space at one time, turned into the enclosure like so many cattle, to find what resting place they could. . . . Thousands had no tents, and no shelter of any kind. . . . They were fed as the swine are fed. A chunk of corn-bred, 12 or 14 ounces in weight, half-baked, full of cracks as if baked in the sun, musty in taste, containing whole grains of corn, fragments of cob, and pieces of husks; meat often tainted, suspiciously like mule-meat, and a mere mouthful at that; two or three spoonfuls of rotten beans; soup thin and briny, often with worms floating on the surface. None of these were given together, and the whole ration was never one-half the quantity necessary for the support of a healthy man."—V. Mott, and others, *Report of the United States Sanitary Commission, Commission of inquiry on the sufferings of prisoners of war in*

the hands of the rebel authorities, ch. 2-3.—The little hamlet of Anderson, so named, in 1853, after John W. Anderson, of Savannah, but called Andersonville by the Post Office Department, is situated in the heart of the richest portion of the cotton and corn-growing region of Georgia, on the Southwestern Railroad, 62 miles south from Macon and 9 miles north of Americus. "Here, on the 27th day of November, 1863, W. S. Winder, a captain in the rebel army, and who was selected for the purpose, came and located the grounds, for a 'Confederate States Military Prison.' . . . When the site was definitely established, it was found to be covered with a thick growth of pines and oaks. . . . The trees were leveled to the ground, and the space was cleared. . . . No buildings, barracks, houses, or huts of any kind were built. The canopy of the sky was the only covering." In March, 1864, John H. Winder, father of the W. S. Winder mentioned above, became commandant of the post, and with him came Henry Wirz, as superintendent of the prison. "From Colonel Chandler's Inspection Report [the report of a Confederate official] dated August 5th, 1864, I quote the following: 'A railing around the inside of the stockade, and about 20 feet from it, constitutes the 'dead line,' beyond which prisoners are not allowed to pass. A small stream passes from west to east through the inclosure, about 150 yards from its southern limit, and furnishes the only water for washing accessible to the prisoners. Bordering this stream, about three quarters of an acre in the centre of the inclosure are so marshy as to be at present unfit for occupation, reducing the available present area to about 23½ acres, which gives somewhat less than six square feet to each prisoner'; and, he remarks, 'even this is being constantly reduced by the additions to their number.' . . . At the close of the war, Wirz was tried before a military commission, over which General Lew. Wallace presided, was condemned, and was hanged at Andersonville, November 10, 1865."—A. Spencer, *Narrative of Andersonville*, ch. 1, 4, 5, 13, 15.—On the part of the Confederate authorities, Gen. Robert E. Lee, writing to Dr. Carter, of Philadelphia, April 17, 1867, said: "Sufficient information has been officially published, I think, to show that whatever sufferings the Federal prisoners at the South underwent were incident to their position as prisoners, and produced by the destitute condition of the country, arising from the operations of war. The laws of the Confederate Congress and the orders of the War Department directed that the rations furnished prisoners of war should be the same in quantity and quality as those furnished enlisted men in the army of the Confederacy, and that the hospitals for prisoners should be placed on the same footing as other Confederate State hospitals in all respects. It was the desire of the Confederate authorities to effect a continuous and speedy exchange of prisoners of war; for it was their true policy to do so, as their retention was not only a calamity to them, but a heavy expenditure of their scanty means of subsistence, and a privation of the services of a veteran army."—*Southern Historical Society Papers*, v. 1, p. 122.—In his book on "The War between the States," Alexander H. Stephens wrote as follows: "Large numbers of them [Federal prisoners] were taken to Southwestern Georgia in 1864, because it was a section most remote and secure from the invading Federal armies, and because, too, it was a country of all others then within the Confederate limits not thus threatened with an invasion, most abundant with food, and all resources at command for the health and comfort of prisoners.

They were put in one stockade for the want of men to guard more than one. The section of country, moreover, was not regarded as more unhealthy, or more subject to malarious influences than any in the central part of the State. The official order for the erection of the stockade enjoined that it should be in 'a healthy locality, plenty of pure water, a running stream, and, if possible, shade trees, and in the immediate neighborhood of grist and saw mills.' The very selection of the locality, so far from being, as you suppose, made with cruel designs against the prisoners was governed by the most humane considerations. Your question might, with much more point, be retorted by asking, Why were Southern prisoners taken in the dead of winter with their thin clothing to Camp Douglas, Rock Island, and Johnson's Island—icy regions of the North—where it is a notorious fact that many of them actually froze to death? As far as mortuary returns afford evidence of the general treatment of prisoners on both sides, show nothing to the disadvantage of the Confederates, notwithstanding their limited supplies of all kinds, and notwithstanding all that has been said of the horrible sacrifice of life at Andersonville. It now appears that a larger number of Confederates died in Northern, than of Federals in Southern prisons, or stockades. The report of Mr. Stanton, as Secretary of War, on the 10th of July, 1866, exhibits the fact that, of the Federal prisoners in Confederate hands during the war, only 22,576 died; while of the Confederate prisoners in Federal hands 26,436 died."—A. H. Stephens, *The War between the States*, v. 2, col. 22.—These statistics differ seriously from the following. "There can be no accurate count of the mortality in rebel prisons. The report made by the War Department to the 40th Congress shows that about 188,000 Union soldiers were captured by the Confederates; that half of them were paroled, and half confined in prison; of this number 36,000 died in captivity. The Union armies, on the other hand, captured 476,000 Confederates; of these 227,000 were retained as prisoners, and 30,000 died. While the percentage of mortality in Northern prisons was 13 in the hundred, that in Rebel prisons was 38."—J. G. Nicolay and J. Hay, *Abraham Lincoln*, v. 7, ch. 16.—*Report of Special Committee on Treatment of Prisoners (House of Representatives Report no. 45, 40th Congress, 3d Session)*.—*Trial of Henry Wirz*.—*Southern Historical Society Papers*, v. 1.

ALSO IN: J. McElroy, *Andersonville*.—F. F. Cavada, *Libby life*.—A. B. Isham, H. M. Davidson and H. B. Furness, *Prisoners of war and military prisons*.—J. Schouler, *History of the United States*, v. 6, pp. 407-414.—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850*, v. 5, pp. 483-515.—J. K. Hasmer, *Outcome of the Civil War*, p. 240-248.

PRISON-SHIPS, British: At New York. See U.S.A.: 1776-1777: PRISONERS AND EXCHANGES.

PRISEND, or PRIZREN, city of Jugo-Slavia, on the Rieka river, about forty miles west of Uskub. Its population, in 1910, was 21,244. Prisent was formerly included in European Turkey, and was the capital of Kossovo. By the Treaty of Bucharest, in 1913, Kossovo became a part of Serbia. Prisent was captured in 1916, by the Central powers, but, under the peace treaty of 1919, it was included in the territory of the new republic of Jugo-Slavia. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 4.

PRISSAC, town in Alsace. It was taken by the French in September, 1703. See GERMANY: 1703.

PRIVATE WARFARE, Right of. See LAND-FRIEDE.

PRIVATEERING: Letters of marque.—A private armed vessel or privateer is a vessel owned and officered by private persons, but acting under a commission from the state usually called letters of marque. . . . The commission on both elements, alone gives a right to the thing captured and insures good treatment from the enemy. A private vessel levying war without such licence, although not engaged in a piratical act, would fare hardly in the enemy's hands.—Based on T. D. Woolsey, *Introduction to the study of international law*, p. 207.—Privateers of powers recognized as belligerents are not pirates by the law of nations. "A privateer cannot be regarded as a pirate because she is manned and operates under an ordinance authorizing foreigners to fit out and take commissions as privateers from the state issuing the ordinance, and to take enemy's property out of neutral ships."—J. Q. Adams, *Memoirs*, p. 38.

Distinction between privateers and letters of marque.—"There is a distinction between a privateer and a letter of marque in this, that the former are always equipped for the sole purpose of war, while the latter may be a merchantman, uniting the purposes of commerce to those of capture. In popular language, however, all private vessels commissioned for hostile purposes, upon the enemy's property, are called letters of marque."—F. H. Upton, *Law of nations affecting commerce during war*, p. 186.—See also PARIS, DECLARATION OF; RE-TORSION.

Use of privateers.—"The practice of privateering was adopted in the Napoleonic wars; and it was recognised generally that the whole system encouraged abuse and misconduct, so that in course of time public opinion turned against it."—F. Smith (Lord Birkenhead), *International law*, p. 203.—"The war [of 1812-14] lasted about three years, and the result was, as near as I have been able to ascertain, a loss to Great Britain of about 2,000 ships and vessels of every description, including men-of-war and merchantmen. . . . I have found it difficult to ascertain the exact number of our vessels taken and destroyed by the English; but I should judge they would not amount to more than 500 sail. It must be recollected that the most of our losses occurred during the first six months of the war. After that period, we had very few vessels afloat, except privateers and letters-of-marque."—G. Coggeshall, *History of American privateers, 1812-14*, pp. 394-395.—"A notable departure was made in the case of the Crimean War, 1854, by Great Britain and France, who agreed to discontinue the issue of letters of marque to private owners. On the resumption of peace, the Declaration of Paris, 1856, was signed whereby privateering may no longer be practised by the signatory powers when at war with one another. The United States, Spain, Mexico, Venezuela, Bolivia and Uruguay did not assent to the prohibition, the power first named basing its refusal on the convenience of privateers to a state without a powerful navy, as long as the right of capturing private property on the seas survives: an amendment exempting private property from such capture having been rejected. In the American Civil War of 1861, the President was authorised by Congress to issue letters of marque, but he did not make use of the authority thus granted to him. The Confederates offered licences to foreign vessels, but they were not accepted, owing to the restrictive legislation of the maritime powers and the threat of the United

States to treat privateers as pirates. In the Spanish-American War, 1898, the United States declared her intention to accept the Declaration of Paris; but Spain claimed the right to issue letters of marque though she did not put the claim into practice. The United States acted thus in accordance with a definitely proclaimed policy, Spain without prejudice to her right to issue letters of marque if she so desired. However, at the Hague Conference in 1907, both Spain and Mexico proclaimed their adhesion to the Declaration of Paris, as Japan had done in 1886; so that privateering may be said to have been, in fact, abolished. The Declaration of Paris may now be regarded as part of international law and as possessing binding force generally, though a few states have not yet formally signified their adhesion to it. In the Great War of 1914, proposals were made in certain quarters that the practice of privateering should be resumed for various reasons; but none of the belligerents paid any attention to such suggestions. Moreover, so far as Great Britain is concerned, in a case that came before the Prize Court soon after the commencement of hostilities, the President declared that the Court would deem the Declaration of Paris to be part of international law and to possess binding force."—F. Smith, (Lord Birkenhead), *International law*, pp. 203-204.—See also BUCCANEERS: Privateering, etc.

PRIVILEGE OF UNION AND GENERAL PRIVILEGE OF ARAGON (1283). See CORTES: Early Spanish.

PRIVILEGES, Charter of (1701). See PENNSYLVANIA: 1701-1718.

PRIVILEGIUM MAJUS. See AUSTRIA: 1330-1364.

PRIVY COUNCIL: Origin.—Great development under the Tudors.—Decadence in modern times.—"The period of three centuries following the Norman Conquest was a formative one for English institutions. The circumstances of the Conquest brought immense authority to the Crown. This authority was certain to be controlled and limited as English liberties were secured. The original nucleus of royal power was the *curia regis*. The early history of this body would involve an account of the gradual and complicated process by which judicial, executive, legislative and political functions were separated, one from another, and assigned to different organs. Out of the *curia regis* there developed the King's Council. 'At no time,' says a recent writer, 'did English kings fail to have particular counsellors, known as *consiliarii*, *consultors*, *familiares*, *domestici*, or *aulici*, including men of the exchequer. In this they were like other kings (most notably the King of France), other princes, and even bishops and barons who possessed councils of uncertain composition.' Just when the King's personal advisers began to have a recognized position as a distinct and organized body it is not easy to say. The view of Bishop Stubbs that this council can be traced only from the minority of Henry III can no longer be accepted because of the discovery of good evidence that the King's Council was already distinct and organized in the reign of John. It seems possible that it may yet be distinguished as early as Henry II's reign. But there is no positive proof. We know that the Common Council of the realm claimed under Henry III the right to nominate as well as to confirm great officers, and thus to force the King to choose worthy associates as his personal advisers. But the problem presented numberless practical difficulties, especially as there was at the

time no developed or clearly defined legislative power apart from the King—no Parliament with acknowledged prerogatives. The historic process of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries brought the King's Council to its maturity by the close of the Plantagenet period. It was then the one sworn council of the King. Not large in numbers, it possessed, nevertheless, real power and efficiency as well as great dignity. Devoted to the work of legislation as well as administration, touching at times on the domain of a jealous and watchful Parliament, it was the mainspring of government. The powerful status to which it had attained was the result of the cumulative effect of custom rather than of statutory regulation. In the fifteenth century under the house of Lancaster the Council, now coming to be known as the Privy Council, reached its greatest power. Through force of many circumstances it was able to over-shadow alike the Crown, Parliament, and the people. It had fallen from its great traditions and its prestige by the time of Henry VII's accession; but it afforded the later Tudors, intent upon building up a great system of centralization, a royal instrument by means of which they were enabled to establish organized and efficient rule throughout the kingdom. Under their sway the Privy Council gathered together and held all the threads of administration and diplomacy. In its effectiveness as a Tudor organ, it has been characterized as 'practically the predecessor of the modern Cabinet of Ministers.'—H. B. Learned, *President's cabinet*, pp. 9-10.—"It was in the reign of Henry VI. that the King's Council first assumed the name of the 'Privy Council,' and it was also during the minority of this King that a select Council was gradually emerging from out of the larger body of the Privy Council, which ultimately resulted in the institution of our modern Cabinet. [See CABINET: English: Origin of term.] From the accession of Henry VII. to the reign of Charles I. the Privy Council was wholly subservient to the royal will, and the instrument of unconstitutional and arbitrary proceedings. The first act of the Long Parliament was to deprive the Council of most of its judicial power, leaving, however, its constitution and political functions unchanged. Since the Revolution of 1688 the Privy Council has dwindled into comparative insignificance, when contrasted with its original authoritative position. Its judicial functions are now restrained within very narrow limits. The only relic of its ancient authority in criminal matters is its power of taking examinations, and issuing commitments for treason. It still, however, continues to exercise an original jurisdiction in advising the Crown concerning the grant of charters, and it has exclusively assumed the appellate jurisdiction over the colonies and dependencies of the Crown, which formerly appertained to the Council in Parliament. Theoretically, the Privy Council still retains its ancient supremacy, and in a constitutional point of view is presumed to be the only legal and responsible Council of the Crown. . . . As . . . [the Sovereign] can only act through her privy councillors, or upon their advice, all the higher and more formal acts of administration must proceed from the authority of the Sovereign in Council, and their performance be directed by orders issued by the Sovereign at a meeting of the Privy Council specially convened for that purpose. No rule can be laid down defining those political acts of the Crown which may be performed upon the advice of particular ministers, or those which must be exercised only 'in Council'—the distinction de-

pends partly on usage and partly on the wording of Acts of Parliament. . . . The ancient functions of the Privy Council are now performed by committees, excepting those formal measures which proceed from the authority of . . . [the Sovereign] in Council. The acts of these committees are designated as those of the Lords of the Council. These Lords of Council (who are usually selected by the Lord President of the Council . . .) constitute a high court of record for the investigation of all offences against the Government, and of such other extraordinary matters as may be brought before them. . . . If the matter be one properly cognizable by a legal tribunal, it is referred to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. This committee, which is composed of the Lord President, the Lord Chancellor, and such members of the Privy Council as from time to time hold certain high judicial offices, has jurisdiction in appeals from all colonial courts: it is also the supreme court of maritime jurisdiction, and the tribunal wherein the Crown exercises its judicial supremacy in ecclesiastical cases. [See also COURTS: England: Supreme Court of Judicature Act; BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial federation; Privy council as supreme court.] The Privy Council has also to direct local authorities throughout the kingdom in matters affecting the preservation of the public health. A committee of the Privy Council is also appointed to provide 'for the general management and superintendence of Education,' and subject to this committee is the Science and Art Department for the United Kingdom. . . . Formerly meetings of the Council were frequently held, but they now seldom occur oftener than once in three or four weeks, and are always convened to assemble at the royal residence for the time being. The attendance of seven Privy Councillors used to be regarded as the quorum necessary to constitute a Council for ordinary purposes of state, but this number has been diminished frequently to only three. No Privy Councillor presumes to attend upon any meeting of the Privy Council unless specially summoned. The last time the whole Council was convoked was in 1839. Privy Councillors are appointed absolutely, without patent or grant, at the discretion of the Sovereign. Their number is unlimited. . . . Since the separate existence of the Cabinet Council, meetings of the Privy Council for purposes of deliberation have ceased to be held. The Privy Council consists ordinarily of the members of the Royal Family, the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Bishop of London, all the Cabinet Ministers, the Lord Chancellor, the chief officers of the Royal Household, the Judges of the Courts of Equity, the Chief Justices of the Courts of Common Law, and some of the Puisne Judges, the Ecclesiastical and Admiralty Judges and the Judge-Advocate, the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, the Speaker of the House of Commons, the Ambassadors and the Chief Ministers Plenipotentiary, the Governors of the Chief Colonies, the Commander-in-Chief, the Vice-President of the Committee of Council for Education, certain other officials I need not particularize, and occasionally a Junior Lord of the Admiralty, though it is not usual for Under Secretaries of State or Junior Lords of the Treasury or Admiralty to have this rank conferred upon them. A seat in the Privy Council is sometimes given to persons retiring from the public service, who have filled responsible situations under the Crown, as an honorary distinction. A Privy Councillor is styled Right Honourable, and he takes precedence of all baronets, knights, and younger sons of viscounts and barons."

—A. C. Ewald, *Crown and its advisers, lecture 2.*

ALSO IN: A. V. Dicey, *Privy council*.—A. L. Lowell, *Government of England*.—G. B. Adams, *English constitutional history*.—R. B. Haldane, *Work for the empire of the judicial committee of the privy council* (*Cambridge Law Journal*, no. 2, 1922).

Japan. See JAPAN, CONSTITUTION OF: Chapter IV: Art. LVI.

PRIZE COURT, International. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1907: Second peace conference; 1909 (October); LONDON, DECLARATION OF.

PROBATION OF OFFENDERS ACT, England (1907). See PRISON REFORM: England.

PROBATION SYSTEM. See PRISON REFORM: United States: Indeterminate sentence and parole system of New York.

PROBULI, board of ten provisional councillors instituted at Athens during the later period of the Peloponnesian War, after the great calamity at Syracuse. It was intended to introduce a conservative agency into the too democratic constitution of the state; to be "a board composed of men of mature age, who should examine all proposals and motions, after which only such among the latter as this board had sanctioned and approved should come before the citizens. This new board was, at the same time, in urgent cases itself to propose the necessary measures."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 4, ch. 5.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 413-411.

PROBUS, Marcus Aurelius, Roman emperor (Western), 276-282. See ROME: Empire: 192-284; GAUL: 277.

PROBUS, Wall of. See GERMANY: 277.

PROCESSION OF THE HOLY SPIRIT, Controversy on. See FILIOQUE CONTROVERSY.

PROCONSUL AND PROPRAETOR, Roman.—"If a Consul was pursuing his operations ever so successfully, he was liable to be superseded at the year's close by his successor in the Consulship; and this successor brought with him new soldiers and new officers; everything, it would seem, had to be done over again. This was always felt in times of difficulty, and the constitutional usages were practically suspended. . . . In the year 328 B. C. the Senate first assumed the power of decreeing that a Consul or Praetor might be continued in his command for several successive years, with the title of Proconsul, or Propraetor, the power of these officers being, within their own district, equal to the power of the Consul or Praetor himself. The Proconsul also was allowed to keep part of his old army, and would of course continue his Tribunes and Centurions in office. . . . Almost all the great successes of Marcellus and Scipio were gained in Proconsular commands."—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 35.

PROCOPIUS. See PROKOP.

PROCTOR, Henry A. (1765-1859), British soldier. Served in the War of 1812. See U.S.A.: 1812 (June-October); 1812-1813; Harrison's north-western campaign.

PROCTOR, Redfield (1831-1908), American cabinet officer and senator. Governor of Vermont, 1878-1880; secretary of war, 1889-1891; United States senator, 1891-1908. See VERMONT: 1898.

PROCURATIONS, payments granted in the Roman Catholic church to a visiting bishop or archbishop from a parochial church. See PAPACY: 8th-16th centuries.

PROCURATOR, Roman provincial governor. See ROME: Empire: B. C. 31-A. D. 14.

* PRODICUS OF CEOS (born c. 465 or 450 B. C.), Greek humanist. See ATHENS: B. C. 461-431: Age of rationalism.

PROFIT SHARING. See LABOR REMUNERATION: Methods of remuneration.

PROGRESISTAS PARTY: Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.

Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1906-1909.

PROGRESSIVE PARTY: Russia. See RUSSIA: 1915-1916.

United States.—The Progressive party was founded by the followers of Theodore Roosevelt in August, 1912, after his failure to secure the nomination for the presidency at the Republican National convention in June, 1912. Among the leading principles of the party were the initiative, recall, referendum, woman suffrage, and the extension of government control of interstate business. (See INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States; RECALL: Recall of judicial decisions.) Although polling a larger vote in the first year of its existence than the Republican party (an electoral vote of 88 to 8), the new party rapidly declined and never again nominated a presidential candidate. Many of its policies, however, were appropriated by other parties and were subsequently enacted into law.—See also U.S.A.: 1910 (August-November); 1911-1912 (January-June); 1912: Formation of Progressive party; 1912-1916.

South Africa. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1898; 1902-1904.

ALSO IN: C. A. Beard, *Campaign of 1912*.

PROGRESSIVE WAGE. See LABOR REMUNERATION: Methods of remuneration.

PROHIBITION. See LIQUOR PROBLEM.

PROHIBITION PARTY, political party, founded in 1869. Besides prohibition, it has strongly advocated woman suffrage, uniform marriage and divorce laws, a sound currency and civil service reform. In the campaign of 1920 it polled 195,923 votes in the twenty-four states where it had a column on the ballot. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1869-1893; U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: Prohibition; 1900 (May-November); 1904 (May-November); 1908 (April-November); 1916 (February-November).

PROHIBITORY ACT (1775). See U.S.A.: 1775-1776: Effect of association; 1776 (January-June): King George's war measures.

PROJECTILES, Laws concerning. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

PROKOP, or Procopius, the Great (d. 1434), Hussite leader. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434.

PROLETARIAN DICTATORSHIP.—"In his [Marx's] letter criticising the Gotha party programme, written in May, 1875, it is stated: 'Between capitalist and communist society lies the period of the revolutionary transformation of the one into the other. This requires a political transition stage, which can be nothing else than the revolutionary dictatorship of the proletariat.' Marx had unfortunately omitted to specify more exactly what he conceived this dictatorship to be. Taken literally, the word signifies the suspension of democracy. But taken literally it also means the sovereignty of a single person, who is bound by no laws. A sovereignty which is distinguished from a despotism by being regarded as a passing phase, required by the circumstances of the moment, and not a permanent institution of the State. The expression 'Dictatorship of the Proletariat,' that is the dictatorship not of a single person, but of a class, excludes the interference that Marx thought of dictatorship in the literal sense. He speaks in the passage above quoted not of a

form of government, but of a condition which must everywhere arise when the proletariat has conquered political power. That he was not thinking of a form of government is shown by his opinion that in England and America the transition might be carried out peacefully. Of course, Democracy does not guarantee a peaceful transition. But this is certainly not possible without Democracy. However, to find out what Marx thought about the dictatorship of the proletariat, we need not have recourse to speculation. If in 1875 Marx did not explain in detail what he understood by the dictatorship of the proletariat, it might well have been because he had expressed himself on this matter a few years before, in his study of the Civil War in France. In that work, he wrote: 'The Commune was essentially a government of the working class, against the appropriating class, the political form under which the freedom of labour could be attained being at length revealed.' Thus the Paris Commune was, as Engels expressly declared in his introduction to the third edition of Marx's book, 'The Dictatorship of the Proletariat.' . . . The dictatorship of the lower classes opens the way for the dictatorship of the sword. Should it be said, after the example of the middle-class revolutions, that the Revolution is synonymous with civil war and dictatorship, then the consequences must also be recognised, and it must be added the Revolution would necessarily end in the rule of a Cromwell or a Napoleon. This is, however, by no means the necessary upshot of a proletarian revolution where the proletariat forms the majority of the nation, which is democratically organised, and only in such cases do the conditions for Socialist production exist. By the dictatorship of the proletariat we are unable to understand anything else than its rule on the basis of democracy."—K. Kautsky, *Dictatorship of the proletariat*, pp. 42-44, 58.—See also SPARTACIST MANIFESTO; RUSSIA: 1917 (September-November), and after.

PROME, town of Lower Burma, about 150 miles northwest of Rangoon. Captured by the English during the first Burmese War, 1825. It was returned to the Burmese, and captured again in the second war in 1852. See INDIA: 1823-1833; 1852.

PROPAGANDA, College of the, institution for the education of Catholic missionaries. See PAPACY: 1622.

PROPAGANDA FIDE, one of the eleven sacred congregations. See VATICAN: Present-day papal administration.

PROPAGANDA IN THE WORLD WAR. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: d.

PROPERTIUS, Sextus (fl. 30-15 B.C.), Roman elegiac poet. See LATIN LITERATURE: B.C. 43-A.D. 14.

PROPERTY, Communal ownership of. See ANARCHISM: 1839-1894; SOCIALISM; PROLETARIAN DICTATORSHIP; SPARTACIST MANIFESTO; COÖPERATION.

PROPERTY LAWS. See COMMON LAW: 1540-1582; 1580; 1776; 1834.

PROPERTY RIGHTS. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776; WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B.C. 600-300; 1870-1911.

During warfare. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Convention with respect to the laws and customs of war on land; WAR POWERS OF THE UNITED STATES: Fifth and sixth amendments.

PROPERTY TAX, United States. See TAXATION: Local taxation in the United States.

PROPHESYINGS.—In the early part of the

reign of Queen Elizabeth, among those English reformers who were subsequently known as Puritans, "the clergy in several dioceses set up, with encouragement from their superiors, a certain religious exercise, called prophesyings. They met at appointed times to expound and discuss together particular texts of Scripture, under the presidency of a moderator appointed by the bishop, who finished by repeating the substance of their debate, with his own determination upon it. These discussions were in public, and it was contended that this sifting of the grounds of their faith, and habitual argumentation, would both tend to edify the people, very little acquainted as yet with their religion, and supply in some degree the deficiencies of learning among the pastors themselves. [The prophesyings, however, were suppressed by the queen and Archbishop Parker.]"—H. Hallam, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: J. B. Marsden, *History of the early Puritans*, ch. 4, sect. 7-25.

PROPHETS, Greek. See ORACLES.

Hebrew.—"The Hebrew word 'Nabi' is derived from the verb 'naba'. . . . The root of the verb is said to be a word signifying 'to boil or bubble over,' and is thus taken from the metaphor of a fountain bursting forth from the heart of man, into which God has poured it. Its actual meaning is 'to pour forth excited utterances,' as appears from its occasional use in the sense of 'raving.' Even to this day, in the East, the ideas of prophet and madman are closely connected. The religious sense, in which, with these exceptions, the word is always employed, is that of 'speaking' or 'singing under a divine afflatus or impulse,' to which the peculiar form of the word, as just observed, lends itself. . . . It is this word that the Seventy translated by a Greek term not of frequent usage in classical authors, but which, through their adoption of it, has passed into all modern European languages; namely, the word . . . Prophet. . . . The English words 'prophet,' 'prophecy,' 'prophesying,' originally kept tolerably close to the Biblical use of the word. The celebrated dispute about 'prophesyings,' in the sense of 'preachings,' in the reign of Elizabeth, and the treatise of Jeremy Taylor on 'The Liberty of Prophesying,' i. e. the liberty of preaching, show that even down to the seventeenth century the word was still used, as in the Bible, for 'preaching,' or 'speaking according to the will of God.' In the seventeenth century, however, the limitation of the word to the sense of 'prediction' had gradually begun to appear. . . . The Prophet then was 'the messenger or interpreter of the Divine will.'"—Dean Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church*, v. 1, lecture 19.—See also JEWS: Religion and the prophets.

PROPHETS, Schools of the. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. (c) 14th-A.D. 6th centuries: Judæa.

PROPHYLACTIC TREATMENT OF DISEASE. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Experimental method.

PROPONTIS, Greek name of small sea which intervenes between the Pontus Euxinus (Black sea) and the Ægean, now called the Sea of Marmora.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION: General principles.—Four means of giving representation to minorities.—Objections to the principle.—"The problem of representation of minorities in a democracy is vitally related to a fundamental principle of democratic government. 'No real democracy, nothing but a false show of democracy, is possible without it,' wrote John Stuart Mill. 'Nothing is more certain than that the vir-

tual blotting out of the minority is no necessary consequence of freedom, but instead is diametrically opposed to the first principle of democracy: representation in proportion to numbers.' Parliament should be composed of the same elements as the nation; but everyday experience goes to show that under the simple rule of numbers a considerable minority, if broken up among different districts, can be wholly blocked from access to the legislature. If it obtains any seats, they are stray, chance ones, not those to which it is entitled. To quote again from Mill: 'A majority of the electors should always have a majority of the representatives; but a minority of the electors should always have a minority of the representatives. Man for man they should be as fully represented as the majority, and unless they are, there is not equal government, but a government of inequality and privilege,—contrary to all just government, but above all contrary to the principle of democracy which professes equality as its very root and foundation.' The chief schemes devised to give representation to minorities are four in number. First, there is the incomplete vote, which is practicable only in districts where there are several deputies to be chosen. Supposing that there are three names on the ticket, each elector may vote for two only, rendering it possible for the minority party by concentration to elect one representative. This system is in vogue in parliamentary elections in Spain and Portugal. It has the disadvantage that it is merely limited, without being proportional, and therefore does not necessarily correspond to the division of the electorate. It also provides only for two parties. The second system is the cumulative vote. The voter may cast as many votes as there are names on the ticket and may distribute them as he pleases. Members of a minority can cast all their ballots for one or two names and run up a total sufficient to place their candidate beside those of the majority. Even a small minority can usually win at least one seat. This is the system employed in Cape Colony, and Chile. In practical experience the result is sometimes upsetting, for two popular candidates of a minority may win to one of a majority, because of the wastage of votes by the latter. The majority must therefore fall back upon strong party government, and the system leads to an accentuation of 'organization' rule. Third, we have the preferential system, known from its inventor as the Hare system. Each voter votes for his first, second, and third choices, etc. The total number of votes cast is divided by the number of seats to find the minimum number which a candidate must receive in order to be elected. The first choices are counted first, and those who have received a number of these equal to the electoral quotient are declared elected. The first choices remaining to the winners are then counted for the other candidates in the order of preference indicated, and as the latter are brought up to the necessary quota they are awarded places, until the seats have been filled. The system has been put into practice only on a small scale and in limited areas [see MICHIGAN: 1920]; and its complexity will probably debar it from adoption in large electoral districts. It furnishes nevertheless an accurate index of the wishes of the voters. Fourthly, the list system, more generally known as the d'Hondt system, furnishes the most practical scheme of proportional representation yet devised. The main features of the system have already been described as they have been applied in Belgium. It is in use also in Cuba, Sweden, Denmark, certain of the Swiss cantons, Würtem-

berg, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Holland, and is gaining headway among the western states in the United States. The chief advantages of the list system are its simplicity, its compatibility with the party system of government and with large constituencies, and the accuracy with which it reflects shades of opinion in the electorate. It is argued against proportional representation that it will lead to class distinctions and legislation, if small groups are encouraged to form with the certainty that they can acquire a footing in the legislature. Majority rule is open to abuse, but in most countries it has not been abused to such an extent that it is necessary to throw over the idea of a legislature of breadth and unity for one of a legislature tuned, or perhaps untuned, to a great variety of discordant notes. Esmein declares that proportional representation will organize disorder, make cabinets unstable, and vitiate party life. It will produce legislatures constitutionally unable to agree upon any constructive program. These objections in theory have not been entirely realized in the countries where the system has been employed; and it is probable that the steady progress of the last two decades in the introduction of minority representation will continue."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 2, pp. 317-320.—See also APPORTIONMENT; GERRYMANDER.

ALSO IN: H. G. Wells, *In the fourth year*, pp. 120-130.—J. H. Humphreys, *Proportional representation: A study in methods of election*.—J. F. Williams, *Reform of political representation*.

Belgium.—"The proportional system was accepted in 1899 only after a long struggle. It compelled a change in the districting of the kingdom, for large constituencies are a necessity for R. P. (*Représentation Proportionnelle*), as the Belgians call it. To apportion the seats to minorities there must be enough to go around. The smaller voting districts were bunched into *arrondissements*, naming from three to twenty-one deputies by *scrutin de liste*. At the same time the voters choose substitutes, so that bye-elections are unnecessary. The party lists, with the candidates arranged in a chosen order, are presented to the officials who prepare the ballots fifteen days before election. Seldom does a party make out a full list, since it rarely happens that a party captures all the deputies. As seats are allotted to candidates in the order in which they stand on the party list, that order is of great importance. It must not be left wholly to the discretion of the sponsors, who turned in the list. Every elector can vote in one of two ways. He may mark the square at the head of the column, thus approving both the list and the arrangement of its candidates. Or he may blacken the square opposite *one* name to indicate that, while he favors the party, he prefers to have another person its first, perhaps its only, nominee to be elected. This affords him a check on the power of the local party organization, but it has produced little more independent voting than we have in the United States. At the end of the polling the seats are allotted according to a mathematical calculation devised by Professor Victor d'Hondt of the University of Ghent, the most perfect scheme yet invented. . . . Apparently complicated, the proportional system is in practice very simple, and even the large cities usually finish their calculations during the evening of election day. The mathematical reckoning is done by expert accountants, so that the system offers no difficulties to the voter. Belgian electors are diligently educated up to the business of voting without confusion or mistake,

and the number of spoiled ballots is small. Proportional representation has not increased the number of small parties as was feared before its adoption. The four great parties continue to poll the largest part of the votes. Public interest in politics has been enlivened by reviving vigorous and effective party activity, and preventing the tyranny of the majority. Most salutary of all the effects of proportional representation has been the closing of the rift which was rapidly widening between the Walloons and the Flemish, when the Catholics and the Socialists were left face to face with no mediators after the introduction of universal suffrage. Its desirability is no longer open to serious question. The leaders of all the chief parties and the bulk of the voters seek, not to abolish proportional representation, but to make it more perfect."—C. Seymour and A. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 2, pp. 198-199, 201-202.

Denmark.—"The system employed in Denmark is as follows. Before the seats have been allotted, the total number of votes cast is divided by the number of deputies to obtain the electoral quotient. The total vote of each party is divided by this quotient to see how many of the deputies it should have. It is then calculated how many seats each party actually won in the separate constituencies, and how many additional ones it needs to fill out its proper quota. Parties which returned no deputies at all from the constituencies get none of the additional seats, nor do those which returned their full quota. The additional seats which the other parties gain are awarded within the party to those candidates who polled the highest number of votes and yet failed of election on the first distribution of seats."—C. Seymour and A. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 2, pp. 179-180.

ALSO IN: J. R. Commons, *Proportional representation*.

England.—The practicability and desirability of proportional representation was under investigation in the United Kingdom, during 1909, by a Royal Commission, which had frequent sessions for hearings at Whitehall. At a hearing in October Lord Hugh Cecil, who represented Oxford in the House of Commons, argued with great force in favor of proportional representation, as a means of moderating the constraint exercised over independent opinion by party ties. He said that the present system was not satisfactory. It greatly hindered free discussion in the House of Commons, and tended to exaggerate there the intensity of feeling and the rigidity of the party system. Majorities were generally large, and often it was merely a trial of endurance. The empty condition of the House on many occasions proved that discussion never influenced divisions, and there was an elimination of independent opinion. Decisions were on party issues, except when new subjects such as the fiscal question, were brought forward. With smaller majorities independent opinion—specific rather than general—would have more opportunity, and that would be a gain. There was a growing tendency to lift foreign politics, and to a lesser degree, colonial politics beyond party, and to a large extent the government could count on the support of moderate opponents when foreign and colonial matters were considered. He did not think the effect of proportional representation would be to form any more groups than they had at present, but his desire was that there should be members who were not absolute party men, and independent members would have more chance of getting returned. He considered that desirable, and did not apprehend

the return of faddists. Even now faddists were easily elected to Parliament, where for the most part they were disregarded. He did not agree that practically all sections of the community were represented under the existing system. A very large and important section between the two parties was never represented, having always to choose between one or the other extreme. Under the British Representation of the People Act of 1918 proportional representation is used in the election of the eleven university members of the Commons. This act also proposes to apply the scheme to one hundred parliamentary seats; but this provision has not yet been put into effect.—See also ENGLAND: 1918: Representation of the People Act.

ALSO IN: G. Wallas, *Human nature in politics*, pp. 217-226.—H. Cecil, *Proportional representation* (*Contemporary Review*, Dec., 1919, pp. 609-620).

South Africa.—The principle of proportional representation was brought into practice in the municipal elections of the Transvaal in October, 1909. The Constitution of the Union of South Africa applies it, also, to the election of senators in the Union Parliament. "The proportional method chosen is, in each case, that of the single transferable vote, and the Johannesburg elections will furnish an example of the use of this system on a larger scale than any hitherto attempted, whilst the senatorial elections will furnish examples of its application to very small electorates. The duty of the voter, both in the senatorial and in the municipal elections, will be the same. He must place the figure 1 against the candidate for whom he desires to vote, and, in addition, he may and should place the figures 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and so on against the names of the other candidates in the order of his preference. The numbering of additional preferences, if not so vital as that of marking the first choice, is of extreme importance, and the elector should continue to indicate preferences until he has exhausted his powers of choice. The object, in marking preferences, is to prevent the waste of voting power. For, if the elector's first choice has obtained more votes than are necessary to secure his election, or if his first choice has obtained so few votes as to be hopelessly out of the running, the returning officer will carry forward these votes in accordance with the wishes expressed by the electors, as indicated by the preferences marked. . . . The vote is always credited to the first choice and is not transferred save in the contingencies named. If, however, no effective use can be made of the vote in the return of the elector's first choice the returning officer, in the absence of any instructions from the voter, will be unable to carry the vote forward, and the vote will therefore have no influence in determining the result of the election. Electors should therefore exercise to the full their privilege of marking preferences."—*The State* (*South African National Magazine*, Oct., 1909).

Sweden.—"Proportional representation in Sweden offers an interesting variant from the system in other countries, although in the main it is similar to the method employed in Belgium. In order to preserve the fullest liberty to the elector there are no official ballots or nominations. Party organizations print their own ballots, which are accepted by the returning officers; but the voter is free to change these at will. The voter may or may not indicate at the top of his ballot the party to which he belongs. The names on the ballot prepared by the voter must appear in vertical succession, and must not exceed the number to be elected by more than two. In counting, the papers with indications

as to party are grouped together, and the others are put in a 'free group.' The votes obtained by each party list are reckoned up, and the proper number of seats allotted to the list according to the Hondt rule. In Sweden, however, the seats are distributed one at a time, the first to the highest candidate, whose list must wait until the number represented by one-half its total vote is reached; the second highest candidate next; and so on."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 2, p. 184.

United States.—In the United States proportional representation is making its chief appeal to the cities. In 1894, the Proportional Representation Society addressed the members of the New York constitutional convention as follows:—"At present instead of representative men 'available' candidates are nominated. These are often selected because their opinions are neutral and for that reason they will be opposed by the smallest number of voters. If candidates have any decided views on important public questions they are too often compelled to secure their election by the sacrifice of their independence. . . . The principle of proportional representation appeals with special cogency to those considerable classes of voters, like farmers, mechanics and laboring men who have interests which they feel should be represented, but whose numbers and influence frequently do not permit them to control majorities. It would generally enable any of these classes of people consisting of a considerable fraction of all, to select and elect one or more candidates of their own, in whose ability, integrity and wisdom they would have confidence. The complaint is a very old one that the workingmen are not adequately represented in our legislative bodies. . . . Proportional representation requires (1) the abolition of districts from which single representatives are to be elected (2), the creation of large districts from which several representatives shall be elected, and (3) the adoption of some method of election which will enable voters to concentrate their support on a single candidate. . . . In 1870 the people of Illinois revised their state constitution and adopted the following article: 'The House of Representatives shall consist of three times the number of the members of the senate, and the term of office shall be two years. These representatives shall be elected in each senatorial district at the general election in the year A.D. 1872, and every two years thereafter. In all elections of representatives aforesaid, each qualified voter may cast as many votes for one candidate as there are representatives to be elected, or may distribute the same or equal parts thereof among the candidates as he shall see fit, and the candidates highest in votes shall be declared elected.' The effect of this provision has been that if any body of voters in a district has more than a fourth of the votes, by giving all of them or 'plumping,' as it is called, for one candidate they can elect him, no matter how the majority who are opposing them may combine. On the other hand, the majority, by dividing their votes equally between two candidates—that is each voter giving $1\frac{1}{2}$ votes to each candidate—can elect both. Thus, both the majority and the minority in the district are represented—the majority by two representatives and the minority by one. This method of electing representatives in 1892 gave every district in the state one or two representatives of each of the dominant parties in the House of Representatives. . . . The practical result of the Illinois system is to give the minority party in *all* the districts of the state

a representation in the legislature, and it thus obviates some of the evils resulting from the election of single representatives in each district by a mere majority of the voters. This system has been adopted in Illinois for more than twenty years and its operation has been generally satisfactory to the people of that state. It at any rate has accomplished its original purpose, that of giving minorities representation. With two parties in the field there are always three candidates, sometimes four, to select from, three of whom can be elected. Consequently the voter has considerably more freedom of choice and freedom of voting than under the old system, when only one member is elected. It also favors independent voting because any number of voters in a district, greater than a fourth, who unite, can always elect a candidate. For the reason that it gives electors much greater freedom in the election of candidates, the system was very appropriately called by the late Senator Buckalew, of Pennsylvania, who was its great advocate—"Free Voting." . . . The aim of this system is to give a nearly complete representation of the qualified voters, so that not merely the part which is victorious at the polls shall be represented in the representative chamber; that is to say, not a majority in single constituencies who succeed in electing their representatives, but also the minority in all those constituencies who have unavailingly cast their votes for defeated candidates, are to find proper representation by this improved system of voting, and that the question to be decided at the polls is not which party is to be represented, but how many are to represent the various opinions. It has been explained that the general principle upon which the system of free voting is based is, first, the enlargement or consolidation of the districts and the election of *more* than two members from each, then by allowing each voter to distribute his votes among the candidates as he shall see fit, it places it in the power of a fraction of *much less than a majority* of the voters in a district to elect a candidate. Thus, in Illinois, when three members of the House of Representatives are elected from each district, any number of voters greater than a fourth who unite on a candidate can elect him, no matter how their opponents may combine their votes against them. The effect of this is that whenever a minority of citizens consisting of more than a fourth of the voters combine they can secure a representative, even though the political managers have complete control of a portion or all the rest of the voters. The influence which they exert is thus very much lessened, and the corrupt 'remnant' are powerless to get complete control of elections. If five members were elected in a district, then any number of voters greater than a sixth can elect a candidate; if seven are chosen the elective quota would be one more than an eighth of all the voters."—Proportional Representation Society, *Address to members of the constitutional convention of the state of New York*, pp. 4-7, 10, 13-15.—In 1896 the commission which framed the charter for the greater city of New York declared it, a source of sincere regret that "under the constitution of the State as it now stands, it has appeared to be impossible to provide for minority or proportional representation in the charter of Greater N. Y., without making a vital part of the charter depend upon a provision of uncertain constitutionality." In 1915, the city of Ashtabula, Ohio, adopted a charter which provided for city-manager government and for the election of the council by the Hare or Single transferable vote system. A similar system was

adopted in Boulder, Colorado, in 1915; in Kalamazoo, Michigan, in 1918; in Sacramento, California, in 1920; and in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1921; but the provisions of the Kalamazoo charter were soon declared void.

PROPRÆTOR. See PROCONSUL AND PROPRÆTOR, ROMAN.

PROPRIETARY GOVERNMENT: Of American colonies. See DELAWARE: 1640-1656, to 1691-1702; MARYLAND: 1632, to 1688-1757; NORTH CAROLINA: 1669-1693; 1688-1729; PENNSYLVANIA: 1681, to 1692-1696; 1701-1718, to 1776.

PROPYLÆA, Greek term for the gate-house at the entrance of sacred enclosures. See ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS; ARCHITECTURE: Classic: Greek: Doric and Ionic styles.

PROSPER OF AQUITAINE, or Prosper Tiro (c. 390-c. 465), French historian. See HISTORY: 19.

PROTAGORAS (c. 481-411 B. C.), Greek philosopher. See AGNOSTICISM; ATHENS: B. C. 461-431.

"PROTECTED AREAS," South Africa. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1901-1902.

PROTECTIVE TARIFF. See TARIFF.

"PROTECTOR," The. Supreme Court case. See U. S. A.: 1869-1872.

PROTECTORATE, Cromwell's. See ENGLAND: 1653 (December); 1654-1658; 1658-1660.

PROTECTORATES AND SPHERES OF INFLUENCE: Protected independent states.—

"These States retain their domestic autonomy, and in general their right of control over their foreign relations with such exceptions, however, as the treaties they have entered into with the protecting State or States happen to call for. . . . A few are under the protection of Great Powers as a body, while others are under the protection of single States. Morocco was recognized by the general act of the Algeciras Conference as an independent State, but the provisions made for reforms in the administration of the country and in the disposition of its commercial facilities amount to the creation of an international protectorate over it. Albania was recognized as autonomous by the London Ambassadorial Conference of 1912, and given a special form of government under international control. In the case of China a number of treaties have been entered into between the State and the Great Powers by which a variety of restrictions have been placed upon the exercise of functions belonging to the normal State, but they are not to be regarded as placing China in the position of a protected State. . . . The extraterritorial jurisdiction of foreign powers in China, the foreign concessions or settlements in a number of its cities, and the administration by foreigners of certain services, such as the salt tax and the maritime customs, . . . [are] restrictions to which China is subject. . . . Cuba represents perhaps the best example of an independent State under the protection of a single power. The restrictions placed upon Cuba by the Platt Amendment have not been regarded as an infringement of its international personality and have not excluded that State from a place within the family of nations or deprived it of representation at international conferences. What is to be the ultimate position of the Dominican Republic and of Haiti in consequence of the treaties entered into by those countries with the United States in 1907 and 1915 it is difficult to determine at present. So also the position of Persia, which, in 1907, was forced to submit to having 'spheres of influence' inscribed within its territory by Great Britain and Russia, is for the present uncertain. Abyssinia still

remains nominally independent under the joint guaranty and protection of Great Britain, France, and Italy."—W. W. Willoughby and C. G. Fenwick, *Types of restricted sovereignty and of colonial autonomy*, p. 7.

Guaranteed states.—"There are now in force a number of treaties in which the signatory powers have undertaken to guarantee the independence and territorial integrity of a particular State without at the same time imposing such restrictions upon it as to amount to placing it in the condition of a protected State. Such is the character of the treaty of 1907 by which Great Britain, Germany, France, and Russia agreed among themselves to respect the integrity of Norway and to protect it against attacks by others, but without making any demands upon Norway in return. This agreement falls short of putting Norway in the position of a neutralized State, but it at least assures Norway of protection as an independent State. Cuba, by contrast with Norway, has received a guaranty of its independence from the United States, but the restrictions accepted by Cuba upon its free conduct in certain matters actually place it in the status of a protectorate, though it is not thereby excluded from membership within the family of nations. The independence of Panama has been guaranteed by the United States without imposing upon it any formal restrictions other than those involved in the right of the United States to maintain order in the cities of Panama and Colon in case the Republic of Panama should be unable to do so. Montenegro, Serbia, and Roumania received an informal guaranty of their independence when they were 'recognized as independent' by the Congress of Berlin. In return for this recognition the signatory powers imposed upon those States certain restrictions upon the exercise of their new sovereignty which had in view the maintenance both of the domestic peace of those States and of the general peace of the Balkan Peninsula. . . . This category applies for the most part to semi-civilized or at least politically undeveloped communities which are not members of the family of nations. Though called States, and possessing a greater or less degree of nominal independence, they are virtually dependencies of the protecting power. Their relations to the protecting power are fixed by treaties, a fact which distinguishes their position from that of colonies possessing a similar degree of control over their domestic affairs. The best examples of this category are exhibited by the so-called native or protected States of India in their relation to the British Empire. They do not hold political intercourse with other powers, and they admit a certain amount of interference by Great Britain in their domestic affairs."—W. W. Willoughby and C. G. Fenwick, *Types of restricted sovereignty and of colonial autonomy*, pp. 7-9.

Colonial protectorates.—"These are regions of territory in which there is no organized State recognized as such by international law and over which the protecting power undertakes to exercise control with the formal consent of the native chiefs or tribes in occupation of the territory. [They are usually African or Asiatic territories of a very primitive character.] In fact, however, in practically all cases the protectorate itself has had no say with regard to the status imposed upon it. The use of the term 'protectorate' by the protecting power is simply one of convenience, and when first applied indicates that the territory has not been effectively occupied so as to give title by right of occupation but that no other State may make any claims to jurisdiction or deal with the region in question except through the protecting State. 'Co-

lonial protectorate' is thus a term invented to give control over an area to a State before it is ready actually to annex it. Technically the inhabitants are not citizens or subjects of the protecting State, and the protectorate would not ipso facto cease to be neutral should its protecting State go to war."—*Ibid.*, p. 9.

Spheres of influence.—"A 'sphere of influence,' as distinguished from a colonial protectorate, does not involve occupation of the territory or the establishment there of any machinery of government. It is more in the nature of a claim of first option to the exercise of commercial, industrial, and possibly of political rights within the region in question and operates as a caveat, informing other powers that an attempt on their part to extend their influence into that region will be regarded as an unfriendly act. In some cases the claim of this sphere of influence is founded upon treaties between the powers claiming it and the State having sovereignty over the territory, and in other cases upon treaties between that power and other powers that have bordering interests."—*Ibid.*, p. 10.

Administered states or provinces.—"The history of international relations furnishes a number of instances in which political areas, while remaining under the nominal sovereignty of one State, have been placed under the exclusive administrative control of one or more other States. The chief instances are to be found in connection with certain provinces of the Turkish Empire which the powers wish to detach from the control of Turkey without formally repudiating its sovereignty over the said provinces. For example, Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed by the treaty of Berlin in 1878 under the administrative control of Austria-Hungary, though still nominally under the sovereignty of the Porte. Cyprus, under the treaty of 1878 between Turkey and Great Britain, was placed under the Administrative control of the latter State. Egypt during the period from 1883 to 1914 came so largely under the administrative control of Great Britain as to approximate to the status of an administered province, although nominally it remained a vassal state of Turkey. During the period from 1899 to 1902, when the United States remained in military occupation of Cuba pending the organization of a stable national government, the administration of the island bore a resemblance to that of an administered province, the United States acting as trustee for the future Cuban state whose existence it had guaranteed. [See also CUBA: 1898-1899 (December-October), to 1901-1902.] At the present time Haiti and the Dominican Republic, although sovereign States in other respects, are being substantially administered by the United States."—*Ibid.*, p. 11.—See also HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1911-1916.

Autonomous colonies and dependencies.—"The self-governing 'dominions' of Great Britain furnish the best illustrations of autonomous colonial government, but other less fully autonomous colonies of Great Britain are included in this study by way of comparison. [See BRITISH EMPIRE: Governments of the empire.] For the same reason the reorganization of the Porto Rican Government, under the act of 1917, is included, although it marks a step toward the inclusion of that dependency within the Federal Government of the United States. On the other hand the act of 1916 providing for the reorganization of the Government of the Philippine Islands, provides a more autonomous government for that dependency with the object of preparing the islands for ultimate independence. British India presents a more

difficult problem. Under its present form of government British India is neither autonomous nor self-governing, for, while the British Parliament rarely legislates directly for India, the administration of India is entirely within British control, and the delegation of power entrusted to the governor general in council is the result of an unilateral act on the part of Great Britain. The interest of British India in connection with the present report arises from the fact that the British Government has now before it a Report on Constitutional Government for India, which presents a comprehensive scheme of reforms in the direction of 'the progressive realization of responsible government.' Should this report be adopted by Parliament, British India would at once assume a unique and most instructive position among the autonomous colonies and dependencies of the Great Powers."—*Ibid.*, pp. 11-12.

ALSO IN: J. Westlake, *Collected papers*.

PROTESTANT: Origin of name. See PACAPY: 1525-1529.

PROTESTANT, or EVANGELICAL, UNION, organization of Protestant princes founded in 1608. See GERMANY: 1608-1618.

PROTESTANT CONFESSION OF FAITH. See PACAPY: 1530-1531.

PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH: 1607-1776.—Part of the Church of England.—"The beginnings of the Church of England in this country [United States] reach back into the seventeenth century, although the Protestant Episcopal Church was not formally organized as an independent branch until 1785. [The name refers only to that branch of the Church of England in America.] Clergymen of the Church of England accompanied the early colonists . . . across the sea. . . . In 1607 worship according to the Anglican ritual was established in the new colonies at Jamestown, Va., and Kennebec, Me. It was soon discontinued in Maine, but in Virginia it was not interrupted. An Episcopal congregation was gathered in New Hampshire in 1631, and parishes were formed in other parts of New England and the Middle States in the early colonial days, Trinity parish, New York City, being constituted in 1693, and Christ Church parish, in Philadelphia, in 1695. The church became the established church in New York, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, and Georgia. In Virginia, for a considerable period, no other form of worship was tolerated. In Massachusetts, on the other hand, the Anglican service was not allowed until liberty for it was secured by royal proclamation in 1662. The Episcopal Church received considerable assistance from England, particularly from the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, organized in 1701, which sent over many missionaries. It is said that at the beginning of the Revolutionary War the society was maintaining about eighty missionaries in the colonies."—H. K. Carroll, *Religious forces of the United States*, p. 317-318.

1776-1789.—**Confusion and disorganization.**—**Results of the Revolutionary War.**—Attempts to organize.—"The close of the war found the Episcopal churches thoroughly disorganized. . . . The Maryland churches elected Dr. William Smith bishop and the Connecticut churches, Dr. Samuel Seabury. No steps were taken by Dr. Smith toward consecration, but Dr. Seabury went to England and applied to the Archbishop of Canterbury. The latter received him cordially but could not see his way clear to accede to his request under the existing political conditions. Dr. Seabury, therefore, applied to the non-juring Scottish

bishops, who, after some hesitation, performed the office, in November, 1784. As it became evident that the Episcopal churches of the different states were organizing independently, a movement to constitute an Episcopal Church for the whole United States was inaugurated, largely by the initiative of Dr. William White. . . . The project of a general convention aroused varying sentiments. In the South it was feared that too much ecclesiastical authority would be assumed by it, while in the North it was feared that too much would be conceded to it. . . . While no serious disposition to question the validity of Bishop Seabury's consecration was manifested, yet the desire was general to be connected with the Church of England rather than with that of Scotland. . . . In 1789 a union of the different forces was effected. . . . Two houses were constituted in the General Convention, and the constitution and Book of Common Prayer were adopted. Thus the same year that saw the complete organization of the Federal Government witnessed also the full equipment of the Protestant Episcopal Church. . . . Four bishops . . . united in 1792 in the ordination of Dr. Thomas John Claggett, Bishop of Maryland, and thus was inaugurated the distinctively American Episcopate."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, pp. 609-610.

1789-1811.—Period of suspended animation.—"The Protestant Episcopal Church, notwithstanding its new home and constitution, was popularly regarded as an English institution, and distrusted or hated accordingly. . . . The church . . . was misunderstood in its temper and spirit; and had it been at that time understood, it would not have been better liked. The religious sentiment of the day demanded more fervor of personal expression in worship. . . . The prevailing religious temper was largely subjective. The liturgical tone of the church was largely objective. . . . Its own faults, as well . . . hindered its advance. It was nowhere a type of vigorous earnestness or aggressive spirituality. . . . The departure of the Methodists of the South had left the church there in a sort of respectable torpor; and the Congregationalists and Presbyterians of the Western and Middle States stood aloof on both patriotic and ecclesiastical grounds. . . . The records of the General Conventions of this period show the paucity of growth by the slender representation of the churches."—C. C. Tiffany, *History of the Protestant Episcopal church*, pp. 386-387.

1811-1836.—Aggressive leadership and polity.—"The period which now comes before us marks a distinct advance in the history of the Protestant Episcopal Church. It is distinguished at the outset by the consecration to the Episcopate of a group of three men who had a formative influence over its life and character. . . . The . . . group of bishops who shaped its destinies were John Henry Hobart, Alexander V. Griswold, and Richard Channing Moore. . . . Bishop Hobart . . . was the originator of many societies for the advancement of the church. . . . He was earnest in missionary enterprises. . . . Bishop Griswold . . . recreated the Episcopal Church in all New England outside of Connecticut . . . [while] the episcopate of the Rev. Richard Channing Moore . . . for Virginia and the South was as epoch-making as that of Bishop Hobart in New York and Bishop Griswold in New England. . . . The Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society was formally inaugurated . . . in 1821. . . . The great hindrance before this time to planting missions in the new States and Territories had been the identity of the state with the diocese. It was not until 1838 that the word

'State' was replaced by the word 'Diocese' in the constitution. . . . There thus existed for years many dioceses which were represented in the General Convention only in the House of Clerical and Lay Deputies, because there was no bishop. . . . At this last Convention [1835] before the death of Bishop White the clergy list, which in 1811 had contained one hundred and sixty-nine names (Virginia not included), had grown to include seven hundred and sixty-three. The two bishops . . . who were in attendance then, were now represented by fourteen bishops. . . . Nine States were represented in 1811; in 1835 twenty-one."—C. C. Tiffany, *History of the Protestant Episcopal church*, pp. 410, 416, 424, 444-445, 453.

1836-1874.—Internal dissensions.—As in the Church of England, two parties developed in the American church, the high-church party and the evangelicals. "The Oxford movement was discussed in pulpits and from the press at the session of the diocesan Conventions, and at length became the absorbing topic of debate at the meeting of the General Convention of 1844. . . . The opponents of the 'Tractarian' school were in earnest in their efforts to withstand the inroads of that which they characterized as 'another gospel.' The alterations which had been made in the conduct of the services of the Church; the new interpretations of our doctrinal standards which were proposed; the changed attitude which the Church was called upon to take before the Christian world, aroused a fierce opposition on the part of those whose sympathies were with the 'Evangelical' school; . . . the whole church was in arms. . . . It was felt by numbers . . . that 'Anglo-Catholic teachings seemed to lead to Roman Catholic conclusions.' The reaction from any tendency of this nature came when . . . defections abroad were followed by the perversion of one and another of our own Church, laymen and lay-women, deacons, priests, and finally, a bishop of the American Church. The shock was great. But with this culminating act . . . the tide, which had seemed at one time setting toward Rome, turned. Another cause of division in the ranks of the church during this period was the outbreak of the Civil War. With the close of the war, however, the different dioceses became again members of the General Convention and the breach was immediately healed."—W. S. Perry, *History of the American Episcopal church*, v. 2, pp. 270-272.—The old ritualist controversy was renewed soon after the close of the war, reaching its height in 1873 when certain of the extreme evangelicals led by Bishop George D. Cummins, of Kentucky withdrew and organized the Reformed Episcopal Church. In 1874 a canon limiting communion ritual was enacted (repealed in 1904), and after that time the excitement of the controversy cooled down.

1873-1910.—Toleration and harmony.—Soon after the secession of Bishop Cummins and his followers was "the introduction of a church congress, which gave to churchmen of different types opportunity to compare views and present ideals. Dominated largely by what became known as the broad church doctrine, it has served to emphasize harmony rather than diversity and has formed a strong factor in church life. Similar influence has been exerted by the Brotherhood of St. Andrew, founded in 1886, while the increasing emphasis on missionary work, both at home and abroad, has called forth many latent energies and at the same time has brought the church into sympathetic and cooperative relations with other Chris-

tian bodies."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, *pl.* 2, *p.* 611.

1910-1920.—Question of church unity.—"At the General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church held in Cincinnati, in 1910, a movement was inaugurated to bring about a World Conference on Faith and Order to be participated in by all Christian Communions, throughout the world, both Catholic and Protestant which confess . . . Jesus Christ as God and Saviour. In spite of the great difficulties arising from the war the work of preparation for this gathering has steadily proceeded. Almost all the great Communions of the world including the Eastern and Anglican Churches have identified themselves with the movement and the assembling of the Conference at no distant day seems now to be an assured fact. An important preliminary Conference for the furtherance of this undertaking . . . [has recently been] held at Geneva. In England the preparatory work for the World Conference has brought forth two remarkable Interim Reports signed jointly by leading representatives of the Free Churches and of the Church of England. The second of these reports . . . marks notable advance in the movement towards unity. . . . At the . . . General Convention, held in Detroit, in 1919, a Proposal was presented providing for approach toward unity between the Protestant Episcopal Church and the Congregational Church. . . . The plan suggested by the Bishop of London for approach between the Church of England and the Wesleyan Methodist Church and that suggested by the Bishop of Zanzibar as a basis for the union of the Churches in East Africa are, in principle, the same as the proposed Concordat between the Congregational and Episcopal Churches in the United States. . . . If the Anglican church will now follow out to their full implications the principles embodied in her formularies she may play a great part in the reunion of Christendom. Approach toward Rome at this time is not possible. But reunion between the Anglican and the Eastern Churches seems to be near at hand. And there is today in the Protestant Churches an eager, almost passionate, desire for unity."—W. T. Manning, *Call to unity*, *pp.* 49-50, 53-56, 118.—"In 1920 the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States reported 8,103 churches and 1,065,825 members. The Reformed Episcopal Church had 65 churches and 11,806 members."—*Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, Year Book of the Churches*, 1920, *p.* 201.—See also BISHOP: Since the Reformation.

ALSO IN: A. L. Cross, *Anglican episcopate and the American colonies*.—W. S. Perry, *Episcopate in America*.—G. Hodges, *Three hundred years of the Episcopal church in America*.

PROTESTANT REFORMATION. See EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Characteristics of the period, etc., to Genevan reformers.

PROTESTANT SCHOOL OF MUSIC. See MUSIC: Modern: 1540-1672.

PROTESTANTISM, Early. See EUROPE: Middle Ages: Background of the Protestant Reformation; Renaissance and Reformation: Characteristics of the period, etc.

Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1516-1576; 1611-1618; 1621-1648.

Brittany. See BRITTANY: 16th century.

England. See ENGLAND: 1547-1553; 1555-1588; CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

France. See FRANCE: 1534-1560; 1560-1563; 1563-1570; 1572 (August); 1572-1573; 1577-1578; 1584-1589; 1598-1599; 1661-1680; 1681-1698; 1702-1710; also FLORIDA: 1562-1563.

Germany. See GERMANY: 1517-1523; 1530-1532 to 1564-1581; 1618-1620 to 1630-1631; 1631 to 1635-1638; 1640-1645 to 1648-1705; LUTHERAN CHURCH: 1517-1852.

Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1668-1683.

Ireland. See IRELAND: 1641.

Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 1581.

Switzerland. See SWITZERLAND: 1481-1501.

See also CHRISTIANITY: 16th century: Reformation; FEDERAL COUNCIL OF CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA; INTERCHURCH WORLD MOVEMENT; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Statistics of Protestant missions in all fields; PAPACY: 1555-1603; PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH; DE HERETICO COMBURENDO.

PROTESTANTISM, Social. See ECONOMICS: 19th-20th centuries: Social Protestantism.

PROTOCOL. See TREATIES, MAKING AND TERMINATION OF.

System of arbitration. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1910-1916.

PROTO-POLYNESIANS, hybrid race in the islands of the western Pacific. See MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN, RACE.

PROTOPOPOV, Alexander Dmitrievich (1864-1918), Russian statesman. Appointed minister of the interior, 1916. See RUSSIA: 1916: Opposition of Duma to Cabinet; 1916-1917 (January-March); 1917 (March 8-15); WORLD WAR: 1917: Russia and the eastern front: c; c, 1; d.

PROTOSEVASTOS. See SEVASTOS.

PROUDHON, Pierre Joseph (1809-1865), French Socialist. See ANARCHISM: 1839-1894.

PROVEDITORI, Venetian naval officers commissioned to act as spies on their commanders. See VENICE: 1378-1379.

PROVENÇAUX. See ALBIGENSES.

PROVENCE, Comte de. See LOUIS XVIII.

PROVENCE: Roman origin.—"The colonization of Narbo [Narbonne, 118 B.C.] may be considered as the epoch when the Romans finally settled the province of southern Gallia, which they generally named Gallia Provincia, and sometime simply Provincia. From the time of Augustus it was named Narbonensis Provincia, and sometimes Gallia Braccata. It comprehended on the east all the country between the Rhone and the Alps. The most northeastern town in the Provincia was Geneva in the territory of the Allobroges; Massilia, the ally of Rome, remained a free city. On the west side of the Rhone, from the latitude of Lugdunum (Lyon), the Cevenna, or range of the Cévennes, was the boundary of the Provincia. . . . The limits of the Provincia were subsequently extended to Carcaso (Carcassonne) and Tolosa (Toulouse); and it will appear afterwards that some additions were made to it even on the other side of the Cévennes. This country is a part of France which is separated by natural boundaries from the rest of that great empire, and in climate and products it is Italian rather than French. In the Provincia the Romans have left some of the noblest and most enduring of their great works."—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, *v.* 1, *ch.* 22.—The Provincia of the Romans became the Provence of medieval times. See FRANCE: Maps of Medieval period: 1154-1360.

Cession to Visigoths.—"The fair region which we now call Provence, nearly the earliest formed and quite the latest lost 'Provincia' of Rome, that region in which the Latin spirit dwelt so strongly that the Roman nobles thought of migrating thither in 401, when Alaric first invaded Italy, refused to submit to the rule of the upstart barbarian [Odoacer, or Odovacar, who subverted the Western em-

pire in 476]. The Provençals sent an embassy to Constantinople to claim the protection of Zeno for the still loyal subjects of the Empire." But Zeno "inclined to the cause of Odovacar. The latter, however, who perhaps thought that he had enough upon his hands without forcing his yoke on the Provençals, made over his claim to Euric king of the Visigoths, whose influence was at this time predominant in Gaul."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 4.—See also ARLES: 508-510.

493-526.—Embraced in Ostrogothic kingdom of Theodoric. See ROME: Medieval city: 488-526.

536.—Cession to Franks.—Out of the wreck of the Visigothic kingdom in Gaul, when it was overthrown by the Frank king, Clovis, the Ostrogothic king of Italy, Theodoric, seems to have secured Provence. Eleven years after the death of Theodoric and on the eve of the subversion of his own proudly planted kingdom, in 536, his successor Witigis, or Vitigis, bought the neutrality of the Franks by the cession to them of all the Ostrogothic possessions in Gaul, which were Provence and part of Dauphiné.—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 9 and v. 4, bk. 5, ch. 3.

877-933.—Kingdom. See BURGUNDY: 843-933.

943-1092.—Kings become counts.—Spanish connection.—Development of chivalry and poetry as a prelude to medieval art and civilization.—"Southern France, . . . after having been the inheritance of several of the successors of Charlemagne, was elevated in 879 to the rank of an independent kingdom by Bozon, who was crowned at Mantes under the title of King of Arles, and who reduced under his dominion Provence, Dauphiny, Savoy, the Lyonnese, and some provinces of Burgundy. The sovereignty of this territory exchanged, in 943, the title of King for that of Count, under Bozon II.; but the kingdom of Provence was preserved entire, and continued in the house of Burgundy, of which Bozon I. was the founder. This noble house became extinct in 1092, in the person of Gilibert, who left only two daughters, between whom his possessions were divided. One of these, Faydide, married Alphonso, Count of Toulouse; and the other, Douce, became the wife of Raymond Berenger, Count of Barcelona. . . . The accession of Raymond Berenger, Count of Barcelona and husband of Douce, to the throne of Provence, gave a new direction to the national spirit by the mixture of the Catalans with the Provençals. . . . Raymond Berenger and his successors introduced into Provence the spirit both of liberty and chivalry, and a taste for elegance and the arts, with all the sciences of the Arabians. The union of these noble sentiments gave birth to that poetical spirit which shone out, at once, over Provence and all the South of Europe, like an electric flash in the midst of the most palpable darkness, illuminating all things by the brightness of its flame."—J. C. L. S. de Sismondi, *Literature of the South of Europe*, v. 1, ch. 3.—See also BURGUNDY: 1032.

1179-1207.—Age of chivalry.—Refinement of life.—Luxury.—Courts of love.—"At the accession of Philippe Auguste [crowned as joint-king of France, 1179, succeeded his father, 1180], the greater part of the south of France was holden, not of him, but of Pedro of Arragon, as the supreme suzerain. [See SPAIN: 1035-1258.] To the Arragonese king belonged especially the counties of Provence, Forcalquier, Narbonne, Beziers, and Carcassonne. His supremacy was acknowledged by

the Counts of Bearn, of Armagnac, of Bigorre, of Cumminges, of Foix, of Roussillon, and of Montpellier; while the powerful Count of Toulouse, surrounded by his estates and vassals, maintained with difficulty his independence against him. To these extensive territories were given the names sometimes of Provence, in the larger and less exact use of that word, and sometimes of Languedoc, in allusion to the rich, harmonious, picturesque, and flexible language which was then vernacular there. [See LANGUEDOC.] They who used it called themselves Provençaux or Aquitanians, to indicate that they were not Frenchmen, but members of a different and indeed of a hostile nation. Tracing their descent to the ancient Roman colonists and to the Gothic invaders of Southern Gaul, the Provençaux regarded with a mixture of contempt, of fear, and ill will, the inhabitants of the country north of the Loire, who had made far less progress than themselves, either in civil liberty, or in the arts and refinements of social life. . . . Toulouse, Marseilles, Arles, Beziers, and many other of their greater cities, emulous of the Italian republics, with whom they traded and formed alliances, were themselves living under a government which was virtually republican. Each of these free cities being, however, the capital of one of the greater lords among whom the whole of Aquitaine was parceled out, became the seat of a princely and luxurious court. A genial climate, a fertile soil, and an active commerce, rendered the means of subsistence abundant even to the poor, and gave to the rich ample resources for indulging in all the gratifications which wealth can purchase. . . . They lived as if life had been one protracted holiday. Theirs was the land of feasting, of gallantry, and of mirth. . . . They refined and enhanced the pleasures of appetite by the pleasures of the imagination. They played with the stern features of war in knightly tournaments. They parodied the severe toils of justice in their courts of love. They transferred the poet's sacred office and high vocation to the Troubadours, whose amatory and artificial effusions posterity has willingly let die, notwithstanding the recent labours of MM. Raynouard and Fauriel to revive them."—J. Stephen, *Lectures on the history of France*, lecture 7.—"In the south of France, more particularly, peace, riches, and a court life, had introduced, amongst the nobility, an extreme laxity of manners. Gallantry seems to have been the sole object of their existence. The ladies, who only appeared in society after marriage, were proud of the celebrity which their lovers conferred on their charms. They were delighted with becoming the objects of the songs of their Troubadour; nor were they offended at the poems composed in their praise, in which gallantry was often mingled with licentiousness. They even themselves professed the Gay Science, 'el Gai Saber,' for thus poetry was called; and, in their turn, they expressed their feelings in tender and impassioned verses. They instituted Courts of Love, where questions of gallantry were gravely debated and decided by their suffrages. They gave, in short, to the whole south of France the character of a carnival, affording a singular contrast to the ideas of reserve, virtue, and modesty, which we usually attribute to those good old times."—J. C. L. S. de Sismondi, *Literature of the South of Europe*, v. 1, ch. 3.—See also TROUBADOURS.

ALSO IN: C. C. Fauriel, *History of Provençal poetry*.—S. Smith, *Land of the troubadours*.

1209-1242.—Albigensian Crusades. See ALBIGENSES.

1246.—Count becomes founder of the third House of Anjou. See ANJOU: 1206-1442.

1348.—Sale and transfer of Avignon to the pope. See PAPACY: 1294-1348.

1536-1546.—Invasion by Charles V.—Defensive wasting of the country.—Massacre of Waldenses. See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

16th century.—Strength of Protestantism. See FRANCE: 1559-1561.

PROVIDENCE, Maryland, Battle of (1655). See MARYLAND: 1650-1675.

PROVIDENCE, Rhode Island, second largest city in New England, on an arm of Narragansett bay, thirty-five miles from the coast. The population in 1920 was 237,595.

1636.—Founded by Roger Williams. See RHODE ISLAND: 1636; MASSACHUSETTS: 1636; U.S.A.: 1607-1752; AMERICA: Map of early colonial grants.

1638.—Constitution. See RHODE ISLAND: 1638-1647.

1647.—Charter granted. See RHODE ISLAND: 1641-1647.

1745.—Revision of charter. See RHODE ISLAND: 1647-1776.

1900.—Becomes capital of Rhode Island. See RHODE ISLAND: 1900.

PROVINCIAL CONGRESS, United States. See U.S.A.: 1774-1775.

PROVINCIAL CONVENTION, First. See NEW YORK: 1775.

PROVINCIAL ESTATES. See NETHERLANDS, CONSTITUTION OF: Chapter IV: Sect. 1, 2.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT, Roman. See ROMAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT.

PROVINCIALE, compendium of canon law. See ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: Definition.

PROVISION LAWS, England. See TARIFF: 1815-1828.

PROVISIONS OF OXFORD. See COMMON LAW: 1258.

PROVISORS, Statute of (1351). See ENGLAND: 1306-1393.

PROXENI.—In ancient Sparta, "the so-called Proxeni, whose number was fluctuating, served as the subordinates of the kings in their diplomatic communication with foreign States."—G. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state, pt. 3, ch. 1, sect. 9*.

PROYART, town of northern France, about twenty miles east of Amiens. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 27.

PRUDHOMME, René François Armand Sully. See SULLY-PRUDHOMME.

PRUSA, ancient name of Brusa, or Broussa, in Asiatic Turkey, about fifty-seven miles south of Constantinople.

258.—Captured by the Goths. See GOTHIS: 258-267.

1326.—Made first capital of the Ottomans. See TURKEY: 1240-1326.

1402.—Sacked by Timur. See TIMUR.

PRUSSIA: Original country and its name.—"Five-hundred miles, and more, to the east of Brandenburg, lies a Country then [10th century] as now called Prussen (Prussia Proper), inhabited by Heathens, where also endeavours at conversion are going on, though without success hitherto. . . . Part of the great plain or flat which stretches, sloping insensibly, continuously, in vast expanse, from the Silesian Mountains to the amber-regions of the Baltic; Prussen is the seaward, more alluvial part of this,—extending west and east, on both sides of the Weichsel (Vistula), from the

regions of the Oder river to the main stream of the Memel. [See also AUSTRIA: Birthplace.] 'Bordering-on-Russia' its name signifies: Bor-Russia, B'russia, Prussia; or—some say it was only on a certain inconsiderable river in those parts, river Reussen, that it 'bordered,' and not on the great Country, or any part of it, which now in our days is conspicuously its next neighbour. Who knows?—In Henry the Fowler's time, and long afterwards, Preussen was a vehemently Heathen country; the natives a Miscellany of rough Serbic Wends, Letts, Swedish Goths, or Dryasdust knows not what;—very probably a sprinkling of Swedish Goths, from old time, chiefly along the coasts. Dryasdust knows only that these Preussen were a strong-boned, iracund herdsman-and-fisher people; highly averse to be interfered with, in their religion especially. Famous otherwise, through all the centuries, for the amber they had been used to fish, and sell in foreign parts. . . . Their knowledge of Christianity was trifling; their aversion to knowing anything of it was great."—T. Carlyle, *Fred-erick the Great, bk. 2, ch. 2*.

13th century.—Conquered and Christianized by Teutonic Knights.—The first Christian missionary who ventured among the savage heathen of Prussia proper was Adalbert, bishop of Prague, who fell a martyr to his zeal in 997. For two centuries after that tragedy they were little disturbed in their paganism; but early in the 13th century a Pomeranian monk named Christian succeeded in establishing among them many promising churches. The heathen party in the country, however, was enraged by the progress of the Christians and rose furiously against them putting numerous converts to the sword. "Other agencies were now invoked by Bishop Christian, and the 'Order of Knights Brethren of Dobrin,' formed on the model of that which we have already encountered in Livonia, was bidden to coerce the people into the reception of Christianity. But they failed to achieve the task assigned them, and then it was that the famous 'Order of Teutonic Knights,' united with the 'Brethren of the Sword' in Livonia, concentrated their energies on this European crusade. Originally instituted for the purpose of succouring German pilgrims in the Holy Land, the 'Order of Teutonic Knights,' now that the old [Palestinian] crusades had become unpopular, enrolled numbers of eager adventurers determined to expel the last remains of heathenism from the face of Europe. After the union of the two Orders had been duly solemnized at Rome, in the presence of the Pope, in the year A.D. 1238, they entered the Prussian territory, and for a space of nearly fifty years continued a series of remorseless wars against the wretched inhabitants. Slowly but surely they made their way into the very heart of the country, and secured their conquests by erecting castles, under the shadow of which rose the towns of Culm, Thorn, Marienwerder, and Elbing, which they peopled with German colonists. The authority of the Order knew scarcely any bonds. Themselves the faithful vassals of the Pope, they exacted the same implicit obedience, alike from the German immigrant, or colonist, and the converted Prussians. . . . In 1243 the conquered lands were divided by the Pope into three bishoprics, Culm, Pomerania, and Ermeland, each of which was again divided into three parts, one being subject to the bishop, and the other two to the brethren of the Order."—G. F. Maclear, *Apostles of mediæval Europe, ch. 16*.—"None of the Orders rose so high as the Teutonic in favour with man-

kind. It had by degrees landed possessions far and wide over Germany and beyond, . . . and was thought to deserve favour from above. Valiant servants, these; to whom Heaven had vouchsafed great labours and unspeakable blessings. In some fifty or fifty-three years they had got Prussian Heathenism brought to the ground; and they endeavoured to tie it well down there by bargain and arrangement. But it would not yet lie quiet, nor for a century to come; being still secretly Heathen; revolting, conspiring ever again, ever on weaker terms, till the Satanic element had burnt itself out, and conversion and composure could ensue."—T. Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 6.—See also LIVONIA: 12-13th centuries.

1466-1618.—Conquest and annexation to Polish crown.—Surrender by Teutonic Knights.—Erection into a duchy.—Union with electorate of Brandenburg. See POLAND: 1333-1572; BRANDENBURG: 1417-1640.

1618-1700.—Protestant religions of every denomination favored in Hohenzollern state.—"The whole territory of the new duchy of Prussia was alienated ecclesiastical land; the pope's anathema and the emperor's ban fell on the head of the renegade prince. Never was the Roman See willing to recognize such robbery. In uniting the ducal crown of their Prussian cousins with their own electoral hat the Hohenzollerns of the Mark broke forever with the Roman church. Their state stood and fell henceforward with the fortunes of Protestantism. At the same time John Sigismund adopted the reformed creed. . . . At the same time of thus gaining a firm footing on the Baltic John Sigismund acquired the [Rhenish] duchy of Cleve together with the counties of Mark and Ravensberg,—a territory narrow in circumference but highly important for the internal development as well as for the European policy of the state. They were lands which were strongholds of old and proven peasant and civic freedom, richer and of higher capacities for culture than the needy colonies of the East, outposts of incalculable value on Germany's weakest frontier. In Vienna and Madrid it was felt as a severe defeat that a new evangelical power should establish itself there on the Lower Rhine where Spaniards and Netherlanders were struggling for the existence or non-existence of Protestantism—right before the gates of Cologne which was the citadel of Romanism in the empire. . . . A power so situated could no longer have its horizon bounded by the narrow circle of purely territorial policy; it was a necessity for it to seek to round off its widely scattered provinces into a consistent whole; it was compelled to act for the empire and to strike for it, for every attack of strangers on German ground cut into its own flesh. . . . For the House of Brandenburg, too, tempting calls often sounded from afar, . . . but a blessed Providence, which earnest thinkers should not regard as a mere chance, compelled the Hohenzollerns to remain in Germany. They did not need the foreign crowns, for they owed their independent position among other states to the possession of Prussia, a land that was German to the core, a land the very being of which was rooted in the mother country, and yet at the same time one that did not belong to the political organization of the empire. Thus with one foot in the empire, the other planted outside of it, the Prussian state won for itself the right to carry on a European policy which could strive for none but German ends. It was able to care for Germany without troubling itself about the empire and its

superannuated forms. . . . The state of the Hohenzollerns . . . was on the sure road to ruin so long as John Sigismund's successor looked sleepily into the world out of his languid eyes. . . . It was at this juncture that the elector Frederick William, the greatest German of his day, entered the chaos of German life as a prince without land, armed only with club and sling, and put a new soul into the slumbering forces of his state by the power of his will. From that time on the impulse of the royal will, conscious of its goal, was never lost to the growing chief state of the Germans. One can imagine English history without William III, the history of France without Richelieu; the Prussian state is the work of its princes. . . . [The "Great Elector" created one of the first standing armies. (See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 27.)] Already in the first years of the rule of the Great Elector, the peculiar character of the new political creation shows out sharply and clearly. The nephew of Gustavus Adolphus who leads his army to battle with the old protestant cry of 'with God' resumes the church policy of his uncle. He it is who first among the strife of churches cries out the saving word and demands general and unconditional amnesty for all three creeds. This was the program of the Westphalian peace. And far beyond the provisions of this treaty of peace went the tolerance which the Hohenzollerns allowed to be exercised within their lands. . . . While Austria drives out its best Germans by force, the confines of Brandenburg are thrown open with unequalled hospitality to sufferers of every creed. How many thousand times has the song of praise of the Bohemian exiles sounded forth in the Marks! . . . When Louis XIV revokes the Edict of Nantes the little Brandenburg lord steps forth boldly against him as the spokesman of the protestant world, and offers through his Potsdam Edict shelter and protection to the sons of the martyred church. . . . Thus year after year an abundance of young life streamed over into the depopulated East Marks; the German blood that the Hapsburgs thrust from them fructified the land of their rivals, and at the death of Frederick II about a third of the inhabitants of the state consisted of the descendants of immigrants who had come there since the days of the Great Elector. . . . The particularism of all estates and of all territorial districts heard with horror how the Great Elector . . . supported his throne on the two columns of monarchical absolutism: the miles perpetuus and permanent taxation. In the minds of the people troops and taxes still passed for an extraordinary state burden to be borne in days of need. But Frederick William raised the army into a permanent institution and weakened the power of the territorial estates by introducing two general taxes in all his provinces. On the country at large he imposed the general hide-tax (*generallhufenschoss*), on the cities the accise, which was a multiform system of low direct and indirect imposts calculated with full regard for the impoverished condition of agriculture and yet attacking the taxable resources at as many points as possible. In the empire there was but one voice of execration against these first beginnings of the modern army and finance system. Prussia remained from the beginning of its history the most hated of the German states; those imperial lands that fell to this princely dynasty entered, almost all of them, with loud complaints and violent opposition into this new political combination. All of them soon afterwards blessed their fate. . . . Frederick William's

successor by acquiring the royal crown gained for his house a worthy place in the society of the European powers and for his people the common name of Prussians. Only dire need, only the hope of Prussia's military aid, induced the imperial court to grant its rival the new dignity. A spasm of terror went through the [Roman] theocratic world: the electorate of Mainz entered a protest; the Teutonic Order demanded back again its old possession, which now gave the name to the heretical monarchy, while the papal calendar of states, for nearly a hundred years to come, was to know only a 'margrave of Brandenburg.'"—H. von Treitschke, *Deutsche Geschichte im 19ten Jahrhundert* (tr. from the German), v. 1, pp. 26-36.—See also GERMANY: Map: At peace of Westphalia.

ALSO IN: T. Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*.

1626-1629.—Conquests of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in his war with Poland. See SWEDEN: 1611-1629.

1656-1688.—Complete sovereignty of duchy acquired by the Great Elector of Brandenburg.—His curbing of the nobles. See BRANDENBURG: 1640-1688.

1700.—Dukedom erected into a kingdom.—In the last year of the seventeenth century, Europe was on the verge of the great War of the Spanish Succession. The emperor was making ready to contest the will by which Charles II of Spain had bequeathed his crown to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV of France. (See Spain: 1698-1700.) "He did not doubt that he would speedily involve England, Holland and the Germanic diet in his quarrel. Already several German princes were pledged to him; he had gained the Duke of Hanover by an elector's hat, and a more powerful prince, the Elector of Brandenburg, by a royal crown. By a treaty of November 16, 1700, the Emperor had consented to the erection of ducal Prussia into a kingdom, on condition that the new King should furnish him an aid of 10,000 soldiers. The Elector Frederick III apprised his courtiers of this important news at the close of a repast, by drinking 'to the health of Frederick I, King of Prussia'; then caused himself to be proclaimed King at Königsberg, January 18, 1701."—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV* (tr. by M. L. Booth), v. 2, ch. 5.

1701.—Annexation of Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 1700-1701.

1701-1740.—Rule of Frederick William I. See GERMANY: 1701-1740.

1713.—Neufchâtel and Spanish Geulderland acquired.—Orange relinquished. See UTRECHT, TREATY OF: 1712-1714.

1717-1809.—Abolition of serfdom. See SERFDOM: 14th-19th centuries; 18th-19th centuries: Prussia.

1720.—Acquisition of territory from Sweden, including Stettin. See SWEDEN: 1719-1721.

1732.—Treaty with Austria and Russia concerning Polish succession. See POLAND: 1732-1733.

1740-1741.—War of the Austrian Succession. See AUSTRIA: 1740 (October-November); 1740-1741.

1740-1785.—Military tactics of Frederick the Great. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 17.

1741.—Secret treaty with France. See AUSTRIA: 1741 (May-June).

1741.—Secret treaty with Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1741 (October).

1742-1745.—War with Austria.—Treaty of Breslau. See AUSTRIA: 1742 (January-May); 1742 (June); 1743-1744; 1744-1745.

1751.—Code of Frederick the Great. See CODES: 1751.

1763-1772.—Part in the first partition of Poland. See POLAND: 1763-1790; EUROPE: Map of eastern Europe, 1768.

1777-1779.—Claims Bavaria. See BAVARIA: 1777-1779.

1790.—Alliance with Poland. See POLAND: 1763-1790.

1790.—Alliance with Turkey. See POLAND: 1791-1792.

1791-1792.—Conference and Declaration of Pillnitz. See AUSTRIA: 1790-1797; PILLNITZ, DECLARATION OF.

1792-1793.—Part in second partition of Poland. See POLAND: 1791-1792; 1793-1796.

1793.—First coalition against France. See FRANCE: 1793 (March-September).

1795-1796.—Part in third partition of Poland. See POLAND: 1793-1796; EUROPE: Map of central Europe (1797).

1800.—Member of Neutral League of the North. See ARMED NEUTRALITY.

1806.—Control of Hanover.—League with Russia.—Territory reduced by Napoleon. See AUSTRIA: 1809-1814; EUROPE: Modern: Map of Central Europe in 1812.

1815.—Embraced in Germanic confederation.—Cession of Lusatia. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF; GERMANY: Map: After the Congress of Vienna.

1815.—Quadruple Alliance. See FRANCE: 1815 (July-November).

1815.—Occupation of Paris.—Second Treaty of Paris.—Holy Alliance. See FRANCE: 1815 (July-November).

1833.—Member of Zollverein. See TARIFF: 1833.

1840-1850.—Beginning of representative government. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1840-1850.

1848.—War with Denmark. See DENMARK: 1848-1862.

1849-1917.—Electoral law.—Failure of attempts to liberalize Prussia. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1849-1917.

1850-1918.—Constitution of 1850 and its operation.—"Prussia has, since 1850, had a Constitution and a Parliament. What are they like? The Constitution was granted by the King, and nowhere does it recognize the sovereignty of the people. What the monarch has granted he can alter or withdraw. All the restriction the Constitution imposes upon the monarchical principle is that henceforth it shall be exercised and expressed in certain forms, with a certain procedure. Prussian statesmen and Prussian jurists maintain with practical unanimity that this does not mean any diminution of the power of the monarch, that the fact that he creates a Legislature does not for an instant mean that he devolves upon it part of the sovereignty. The Legislature of Prussia is the Landtag, which consists of two chambers, the House of Lords and the House of Representatives. The Legislature does not initiate much legislation. Most of the bills passed by it have been proposed by the Government; that is, by the King. The Legislature has practically no control over the administration; that is, over the powerful and permanent bureaucracy. It can in this sphere express opinions and practically nothing more. The Constitution does not determine the composition of the House of Lords, but leaves that to the King to determine by royal ordinance. As a matter of fact, this House is really overwhelmingly dominated by the land-owning nobility, the famous

Junkers, men frequently more royalist than the King, conservative and militaristic to the marrow of their bones. The House is subject to the absolute control of the monarch through his unrestricted power to create peers. It is really a sort of royal council, an extension or variation of the royal power. It is a body that in no sense represents the people of Prussia. It has a veto upon all legislation, and the King has an absolute veto also. Yet there exists another House in this Legislature which enacts the laws that govern 40,000,000 Prussians—the so-called House of Representatives; and marvelous, indeed, is the construction and composition of that body. Every Prussian man who has attained his twenty-fifth year has the vote. Is Prussia, therefore, a democracy? Not exactly, for the exercise of this right is so arranged that the ballot of the poor man is practically annihilated. Universal suffrage has been rendered illusory. And this is the way it has been done: The voters are divided in each electoral district into three classes according to wealth. The amount of taxes paid by the district is divided into three equal parts. Those taxpayers who pay the first third are grouped into one class; those, more numerous, who pay the second third, into another class; those who pay the remainder, into still another class. The result is that a very few rich men are set apart by themselves, the less rich by themselves, and the poor by themselves. Each of these groups, voting separately, elects an equal number of delegates to a convention, which convention chooses the delegates of that constituency to the lower house of the Prussian Parliament. This system gives an enormous preponderance of political power to the rich. The first class consists of very few men, in some districts of only one. The second is sometimes twenty times as numerous, the third sometimes a hundred, or even a thousand times. Thus though every man has the suffrage, the vote of a single rich man may have as great weight as the votes of a thousand workingmen. Universal suffrage is manipulated in such a way as to defeat democracy decisively and to consolidate a privileged class in power in the only branch of the Government that has even the appearance of being of popular origin. Bismarck, no friend of Liberalism, once characterized this electoral system as the worst ever created. Its shrieking injustice is shown by the fact that in 1900 the Social Democrats, who actually cast a majority of the votes, got only 7 seats out of nearly 400. It is one of the most undemocratic systems in existence. The voters do not choose their representatives directly. The suffrage is indirect, and is, moreover, as we have seen, grossly unequal. As this system is in vogue for municipal elections as well as for State elections, it throws power, whether in the municipality or in the nation, into the hands of men of wealth. In 1908 there were 293,000 voters in the first class, 1,065,240 in the second, 6,324,079 in the third. The first class represented 4 per cent., the second 14 per cent., the third 82 per cent. of the population. In Cologne the first class comprised 370 electors, the second 2,584, while the third had 22,324. The first class chose the same number of electors as the third. Thus, 370 rich men had the same voting capacity as 22,324 proletarians. In Saarbrücken, the Baron von Sturm, formed the first class all by himself, and announced complacently that he did not suffer from his isolation. In one of the Berlin districts Herr Heffte, a manufacturer of sausages, formed the first class. This system would seem to be monstrous enough by reason of the monstrous

plutocratic cast. But this is not all. This reactionary edifice is appropriately crowned by another device, oral voting. Neither in the primary or the secondary voting is a secret ballot used. As a matter of fact, a large number of voters prefer to forego their miserable privilege entirely and stay at home. In 1903, 23.6 per cent. only of them voted for the Prussian House of Representatives, while the same year 75 per cent. voted in the elections for the Reichstag, where the secret ballot is used. Of those who failed to vote, much the larger percentage is from the third class, whose members evidently feel the nullity of the privileges they enjoy in this 'people's kingdom of the Hohenzollern,' as the Kaiser alluringly describes it. An additional evidence as to the perfection of the 'people's kingdom' is this. With the exception of a thoroughly insignificant measure passed in June, 1906, there has been no change in the electoral districts since 1858. No account has been taken of the changes in the population, and there are the same or worse disparities than there are in the case of the Reichstag, as previously stated. It thus happens that 3,000,000 inhabitants of four large Prussian districts return 9 representatives, while three other million, divided among forty smaller districts, return 66. Here again the natural result of the change of the population owing to the economic evolution has inordinately increased the influence of the rural districts, prevaillingly Conservative. In 1903 under this system 324,157 Conservative votes elected 143 representatives; but 314,149 Social Democratic votes did not secure the election of a single member."—C. D. Hazen, *Germany, last stronghold of autocratic monarchy* (New York Times, July 1, 1917).

1856.—Represented in commission on navigation of the Danube river. See DANUBE: 1850-1916.

1866 (June-July).—War with Denmark and Austria over Schleswig-Holstein question. See AUSTRIA: 1862-1866; GERMANY: 1861-1866; 1866; EUROPE: Modern: Wars of the great powers (1848-1878).

1867-1917.—Failure of liberal policy. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1867-1917.

1870-1871.—War with France. See FRANCE: 1870 (June-July), to 1871 (January-May); GERMANY: 1866-1870, to 1870 (September-December).

1871.—Birth of the German nation. See GERMANY: 1870 (September-December); 1871 (January); WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: a, 2.

1872-1910.—Vigorous Germanization of Polish provinces. See POLAND: 1872-1910.

1875.—Establishment of Bank of Prussia as Reichsbank. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1871-1914.

1880-1890.—Control of railways. See RAILROADS: 1832-1905.

1882.—Rescript of King William.—In connection with Article 44 [of the Constitution of 1850] the course of domestic and parliamentary politics drew forth the following Declaratory Rescript from the German Emperor and King of Prussia, in 1882:

"The right of the King to conduct the Government and policy of Prussia according to his own discretion is limited by the Constitution (of January 31, 1850), but not abolished. The Government acts (documentary) of the King require the counter-signature of a Minister, and, as was also the case before the Constitution was issued, have to be represented by the King's Ministers; but they nevertheless remain Government acts of the King, from whose decisions they result, and who thereby constitutionally expresses his will and pleasure. It is

therefore not admissible, and leads to obscuration of the constitutional right of the King, when their exercise is so spoken of as if they emanated from the Ministers for the time being responsible for them, and not from the King himself. The Constitution of Prussia is the expression of the monarchical tradition of this country; whose development is based on the living and actual relations of its Kings to the people. These relations, moreover, do not admit of being transferred to the Ministers appointed by the King. Their preservation, too, is a political necessity for Prussia. It is, therefore, my will that both in Prussia and in the Legislative Bodies of the realm (or Reich), there may be no doubt left as to my own constitutional right and that of my successors to personally conduct the policy of my Government; and that the theory shall always be gainsaid that the [doctrine of the] inviolability of the person of the King, which has always existed in Prussia, and is enunciated by Article 43 of the Constitution, or the necessity of a responsible counter-signature of my Government acts, deprives them of the character of Royal and independent decisions. It is the duty of my Ministers to support my constitutional rights by protecting them from doubt and obscuration, and I expect the same from all State servants (Beamten) who have taken to me the official oath. I am far from wishing to impair the freedom of elections, but in the case of those officials who are intrusted with the execution of my Government acts, and may, therefore, in conformity with the disciplinary law forfeit their situations, the duty solemnly undertaken by their oath of service also applies to the representation by them of the policy of my Government during election times. The faithful performance of this duty I shall thankfully acknowledge, and I expect from all officials that, in view of their oath of allegiance, they will refrain from all agitation against my Government also during elections.—Berlin, January 4, 1882.—WILHELM. VON BISMARCK. To the Ministry of State."

1899-1901.—Canal projects. See GERMANY: 1900 (June); 1901 (January).

1908.—Suffrage reform.—Socialist successes.—Speech from the throne.—"It was expected, when the Diet elections approached in June, that the Prussian people would be awakened by a violent agitation in favor of more liberal election laws, but nothing of the kind happened. The Socialists, indeed, made this their chief issue, and they carried a half-dozen districts, thus securing for the first time a foothold in the Diet; and the Radicals, too, gave out manhood suffrage as their watchword, but pressed it so feebly as to awaken the suspicion that their demand was not seriously meant. Nevertheless, the King's speech from the throne in October surprised the country by announcing that a reform of the election laws was a fundamental necessity and would be undertaken during the present session. This announcement affected the country-squire element like tapping on a hornet's nest. The Conservative party immediately gave it to be plainly understood that it would brook no tampering with the election laws, the stronghold of its power."—W. C. Dreher, *Year in Germany* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Jan., 1909).

1908 (February).—Law enforcing acquisition of Polish estates. See GERMANY: 1900-1909.

1914.—Relation to German empire. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: j, 3.

1914.—East Prussia invaded by Russians.—Lost territory recaptured by Germans. See

WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 1; c, 2.

1918.—Control in Baltic provinces. See BALTIC PROVINCES: 1905-1914.

1918.—Defiance of popular demands for suffrage reform. See GERMANY: 1918: Prussian reform repudiated.

1918-1920.—Spartacist movements. See SPARTACIST MANIFESTO; GERMANY: 1918 (November); 1918-1919 (December-January); 1919 (January); 1920 (January).

1919.—Given right of self-determination. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III. Section IX.

1919.—Survival of Prussian aristocracy.—"There remains the most powerful of these aristocracies, the most redoubtable for the peace of the world, but also the most modern—the Prussian aristocracy. This has succeeded in making itself, if not loved, at least respected, by the workers whom it employs, because it does not limit itself, like almost all the others, to consuming its revenues in castle life or to trusting to land agents the management of its estates. The Prussian Junker is not an idler; he directs in person the management of his land, and very often conducts an industrial enterprise as well, such as a distillery or brewery. The peasants on his domain are not tenants; they are agricultural laborers, working under the proprietor's direction. The revolution which has overthrown the Hohenzollern has not yet touched the Prussian nobility. It seems difficult to understand that this nobility should be able to survive alone in Europe amid the universal collapse of landed aristocracies. And yet is it not strange that the 'Socialist' Government of the new 'Reich-Republik,' which has announced its intention of socializing coal and potash, should not yet have proposed any measure for the expropriation of the Junkers or the assignment of their vast lands to the laboring class."—C. Seignobos, *Aristocracy's downfall* (*New Europe*, July 14, 1919).

1919-1920.—Election of constituent assembly.—Adoption of a constitution.—"When Prussia led the other German states into imperial union, she herself was operating under her constitution of January 31, 1850. Under this instrument she continued to operate. Not a single change of importance was made prior to the opening of the war. Especially was the reactionary three-class system of voting preserved in the face of frequently voiced criticism and denunciation. . . . In November, 1918, the imperial government collapsed. The revolution in the Empire was accompanied by more or less distinct revolutions in each of the several states. Because of her position in the Empire the revolution in Prussia was practically identical with the revolution in the Empire. The flight of the German Emperor was also flight of the Prussian King. There was established in Berlin not only a provisional government of the Empire, but also a provisional government of Prussia. For several months these governments weathered the storms of revolution. In January, 1919, the Prussian provisional government called for the election of a constituent assembly. The election of delegates was held on January 26, 1919, under the system of proportional representation provided by the Decree of November 30, 1918, which regulated elections to membership in the constituent assembly of the Reich. The Prussian constituent assembly came together on March 5. On March 20 the assembly enacted a law setting up a provisional government. Complete power was reserved to the assembly itself, but for the exercise of executive power

ministers were provided, each minister being directly responsible to the assembly. . . . A definite draft of the constitution was not presented to the assembly until February 25, 1920. [A commission was appointed to consider the draft.] . . . In October the commission made its report and in November the assembly adopted the constitution by a vote of 280 to 60."—H. L. McBain and L. Rogers, *New constitutions of Europe*, pp. 214-217.—See also GERMANY: 1919 (January-June).

1920.—Junker counter-revolution. See GERMANY: 1920 (March-April).

See also ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: Prussian.

PRUSSIA, Constitution of: Principal provisions and text.—"To the student of comparative constitutional law the new Prussian constitution of November 30, 1920, is of scarcely less interest than that of the reconstituted German Empire itself. In sharp contrast to American state constitutions, the instrument is of moderate length, about four thousand words, and is limited to the bare outlines of a frame-work of government. All doctrinaire elements are lacking. There is even no bill of rights. One is particularly impressed by its business-like character. It contains eighty-eight sections, grouped into eleven articles, as follows: the State; the Public Powers; the Diet; the Council of State; the Ministry; Legislation; Finances; Autonomous (local) Administration; Religious Communities; Public Functionaries; and Regulations regarding the Transition. The principle of popular sovereignty is fundamental and determining throughout. The constitution is asserted to have emanated from the people, and they are declared to be the depository of the public powers. The popular will is revealed directly through the suffrage by means of the initiative, the referendum and elections, and indirectly through the organs of government established by the constitution. . . . The Diet is the supreme legislative authority. . . . One of the most interesting and novel features of the constitution is that which provides for a dissolution of the Diet. . . . When the Diet is not in session, the rights of popular representation are safe-guarded against possible encroachment by the Ministry by a permanent committee which possesses the same rights as those of a committee of investigation. The fourteen provinces into which Prussia is now divided are represented as such in the Council of State. . . . The Council of State's relation to the Diet is not that of coördinate legislative chamber. Its position is comparable to that of the British House of Lords. . . . The Ministry is the supreme executive authority. There is no president of the republic of Prussia. The prime minister, in consequence, is the highest official in the state, and performs many of the functions of a permanent chief executive as well as those of a responsible minister. It is interesting to observe that, though Prussia is only a member state in the Empire, the constitution makes the Ministry the representative of the state in foreign affairs. . . . It submits proposals of law to the Diet which must, however, have first been submitted to the Council of State for its advice. . . . The Ministry also submits an annual budget to the Diet. The failure of the Diet to vote the budget does not bring the wheels of government to a stand, as the Ministry is authorized to make expenditures necessary to continue services and undertakings legally established and to issue bonds to the extent of one-third of the budget of the preceding year to supply the necessary funds. . . . The Ministry is collectively and individually responsible to the Diet, which can

enforce its control through votes of lack of confidence. . . . In case the veto of lack of confidence is directed against the prime minister, he may appeal to the people through a dissolution of the Diet. . . . On analysis it will be seen that the Prussian constitution provides for a government of a parliamentary type, but with certain important departures from the British and French models. There is evidence that the framers were influenced to a considerable extent by the government of Switzerland, and have modified the principles of the pure ministerial or parliamentary type of government in the direction of the Swiss system. There is also more than a suggestion of 'checks and balances.' Fundamentally it is intended to be a thorough-going democracy."—W. J. Shepard, *Foreign government and politics* (*American Political Science Review*, Nov., 1922).

The following is the text of the constitution of the Free State of Prussia:

The Prussian people by its Constituent Assembly gives itself the following constitution, which is hereby promulgated:

Section I. The State

Article 1. (1) Prussia is a republic and a member of the German Reich. (2) The consent of Prussia, required by the constitution of the Reich for territorial alterations, shall be given by law. (3) The Prussian colors are black and white. (4) The language used in public business and negotiations shall be German.

Section II. The Powers of the State

Art. 2. The sovereignty of the state resides in the whole people.

Art. 3. In accordance with the provisions of this constitution and of the constitution of the Reich, the people shall express their will directly through popular suffrage (popular initiative, popular referendum, and popular election) and indirectly through the agencies established by the constitution.

Art. 4. (1) All German citizens, men and women, over twenty years of age, who are domiciled in Prussia, are qualified to vote. (2) The right to vote shall be universal and equal and shall be exercised secretly and directly. Election day must be a Sunday or a public holiday. (3) Detailed regulations shall be prescribed by law.

Art. 5. The following persons shall be denied the right to vote: (a) Those who are under interdiction or who have been placed under temporary guardianship or are under tutelage by reason of mental incapacity; (b) those who do not possess civil rights.

Art. 6. (1) Popular initiative may be used for: (a) constitutional amendments; (b) enactment, amendment, or repeal of laws; (c) dissolution of the Landtag. (2) Initiative proposals must be addressed to the Ministry of State and shall immediately be submitted by the latter to the Landtag with a statement of the Ministry's views. A complete draft of law must be the basis of an initiative proposal in cases (a) and (b). The initiative proposal shall be valid only if it is supported in case (b) by one-twentieth and in cases (a) and (c) by one-fifth of the qualified voters. (3) An initiative proposal shall not be admissible concerning questions of finance, tax laws, and salary regulations. (4) A popular referendum shall be held

upon an initiative proposal and in such other cases as are provided for in the constitution; it shall be valid only if a majority of the qualified voters participate therein. (5) A popular referendum shall not be held if the Landtag has adopted the initiative proposal. (6) Proposals for amendment of the constitution, or for a dissolution of the Landtag require for acceptance the consent of a majority of all qualified voters. In other cases a simple majority of the valid votes polled shall determine. The vote may be only by 'yes' or 'no.' (7) The procedure of popular initiative and popular referendum shall be regulated by law.

Art. 7. The Ministry of State shall be the supreme executive and directing authority of the state.

Art. 8. (1) The judicial power shall be exercised by independent courts, subject only to law. (2) Judgments shall be rendered and executed in the name of the people.

Section III. The Landtag

Art. 9. (1) The Landtag shall consist of deputies of the Prussian people. The deputies shall be representatives of the entire people and shall be elected by them according to the principles of proportional representation. (2) Qualified voters who are twenty-five years of age are eligible for election.

Art. 10. The deputies shall vote according to their independent convictions, with consideration only for the public welfare; they shall not be bound by orders or instructions.

Art. 11 (1) Officials, employees, and workers of the state and of public corporations shall not be required to obtain leave to sit as deputies. (2) If they seek election to the Landtag, leave necessary to carry on their campaign shall be granted to them. (3) Payments of their salaries or wages shall be continued. (4) The above mentioned provisions shall not affect the rights conferred upon religious associations by Article 137 of the constitution of the Reich. . . .

Art. 14. (1) A dissolution of the Landtag may take place upon its own motion or by the action of a committee consisting of the Minister President and of the Presidents of the Landtag and of the Staatsrat, or by popular referendum. A popular referendum [on a question of dissolution] may also be had by resolution of the Staatsrat. (2) The dissolution of the Landtag upon its own motion shall require the consent of a majority of all the legal members.

Art. 15. A new election must be held within sixty days after a dissolution of the Landtag.

Art. 16. In case of a dissolution of the Landtag the legislative term of the new Landtag shall begin on the day of the new election; in all other cases it shall begin with the expiration of the legislative term of the old Landtag.

Art. 17. (1) The Landtag shall meet at the seat of the Ministry of State. (2) After each new election the Landtag shall assemble for its first session thirty days after the beginning of its legislative term, unless the Ministry of State convokes it at an earlier date. (3) Thereafter the Landtag shall meet on the second Tuesday in November of each year. The President of the Landtag must call an earlier meeting, if the Ministry of State or not less than one-fifth of the members of the Landtag demand it. (4) The Landtag shall elect its own President, its Vice-Presidents, and its other officers. . . .

Art. 20. The President shall administer all the business affairs of the Landtag within the limits laid down by the state budget law and with the powers of a minister of state. It shall be his duty to supervise the work of all officials and employees of the Landtag, to engage and dismiss all paid employees, and also, in conjunction with the other officers of the Landtag, to appoint and dismiss the civil service officials of the Landtag. He shall represent the state in all legal business and legal actions involved in his administration. He shall exercise powers of discipline and police within the Landtag building.

Art. 21. (1) There shall be quorum of the Landtag when a majority of the legal membership are present. . . .

Art. 24. The Landtag and each member of its committees may demand the presence of every minister. The ministers and their deputies shall have access to the sittings of the Landtag and of its committees. They may speak in the Landtag at any time regardless of the order of the day. They are subject to the rulings of the presiding officer.

Art. 25. (1) The Landtag shall have the right to, and upon the proposal of one-fifth of its members must, set up committees of investigation. These committees shall in public sitting inquire into such evidence as they or the petitioners consider necessary. The public may be excluded by a two-thirds majority vote. The rules of procedure shall regulate their business and determine the number of their members. (2) The courts and administrative authorities are required to submit evidence requested by these committees; upon their demand the records of the authorities shall be laid before them. (3) The provisions of the criminal code shall apply, as far as may be, to the inquiries of committees and of the authorities assisting them; nevertheless, the secrecy of the postal, telegraph and telephone services shall remain unaffected.

Art. 26. The Landtag shall appoint a standing committee for the protection of the rights of the representatives' body over against the Ministry of State, for the period between sessions, and between the expiration of a legislative term or a dissolution of the Landtag and the convening of a new Landtag. This committee shall have the powers of a committee of investigation. Its composition shall be regulated by the rules of procedure.

Art. 27. The Landtag may transmit memorials, addressed to it, to the Ministry of State and may demand from the Ministry information concerning petitions and remonstrances that are filed with it.

Art. 28. (1) Members of the Landtag shall have the right of free transportation on all German railways included within the former Prussian-Hessian railroad system, as well as the right to compensation. In addition to this the President [of the Landtag] shall receive an allowance for official expenses during his term of office. (2) Refusal of compensation shall not be permitted. (3) Detailed regulations shall be prescribed by law.

Art. 29. (1) The Landtag shall have legislative authority within the limits prescribed by the constitution; it shall approve the budget of revenues and expenditures; it shall determine the principles according to which state affairs shall be administered, and shall supervise their execution. State treaties (Staatsverträge) require the consent of the Landtag if such treaties relate to matters within the scope of its legislative power. (2) The Landtag shall determine its own rules of procedure within the limits of this constitution. . . .

Section IV. The Staatsrat

Art. 31. A Staatsrat shall be established to represent the provinces in the legislation and administration of the state.

Art. 32. (1) The Staatsrat shall be composed of representatives of the provinces. The following are recognized as provinces: East Prussia, Brandenburg, City of Berlin, Pomerania, the Posen-West-Prussian Mark, Lower Silesia, Upper Silesia, Saxony, Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Westphalia, the Rhine Province, and Hessen-Nassau. (2) For each 500,000 inhabitants a province shall be entitled to one representative, but each province shall have at least three representatives in the Staatsrat. A fraction of more than 250,000 inhabitants shall be counted as equal of 500,000 inhabitants. (3) In addition, the Hohenzollern Territories shall have one representative. (4) The number of representatives from the provinces shall be redetermined by the Ministry of State after each general census and after any alterations of the territory of the provinces.

Art. 33. (1) The members of the Staatsrat and their deputies shall be elected by the provincial diets (in Berlin by the municipal council, in the Hohenzollern Territories and in the Posen-West-Prussian Mark by the communal diets). In the Hohenzollern Territories election shall be by majority vote; in all other cases according to the principles of proportional representation. All qualified voters over twenty-five years of age who have been domiciled in the province for one year shall be eligible for election. (2) No person may be a member of the Landtag and the Staatsrat at the same time. Deputies to the Landtag must resign therefrom upon acceptance of election to the Staatsrat. Members of the Staatsrat must resign therefrom upon acceptance of election to the Landtag. (3) Members of the Staatsrat shall exercise the functions of their office until their successors have qualified. (4) A new election of members of the Staatsrat shall take place immediately after a new election of any provincial diet (municipal council, commune diet).

Art. 34. The members of the Staatsrat shall vote according to their independent convictions, with consideration only for the public welfare; they shall not be bound by orders or instructions. . . .

Art. 37. The Staatsrat shall elect its presiding officer and its secretaries and their deputies, and shall regulate its order of business by rules of procedure.

Art. 38. (1) The Staatsrat shall be convened for the first time by the Ministry of State. Thereafter it shall convene upon the call of its presiding officer as often as its business requires. The presiding officer shall convene the Staatsrat if one-fifth of its members or all the representatives of one province or the Ministry of State demand it. (2) The provisions of Article 24 shall apply. (3) The Staatsrat may submit bills to the Landtag through the Ministry of State. . . .

Art. 40. . . . (4) The Ministry of State must consult the Staatsrat or a competent committee thereof, before issuing decrees for the execution of laws of the Reich and the state or before issuing general administrative ordinances. . . .

Art. 42. (1) Laws enacted by the Landtag shall be subject to veto by the Staatsrat. (2) The veto must be communicated to the Ministry of State within two weeks after the final vote in the Landtag and within two additional weeks must be supported by reasons. (3) In case of veto the law

must be presented to the Landtag for reconsideration. If the Landtag reaffirms its original resolution by a two-thirds majority vote, this resolution shall be final. If, however, in the reconsideration of the Landtag only a simple majority vote is obtained for the original resolution, the resolution shall be invalid, unless it be approved by a popular referendum initiated by the Landtag. (4) The approval of the Staatsrat is necessary if the Landtag desires to vote expenditures which are in excess of the amounts proposed or approved by the Ministry of State. If the Staatsrat refused consent, the resolution of the Landtag shall be valid only in so far as it agrees with the proposal or approval of the Ministry of State. A popular referendum shall not be applicable in such circumstances. . . .

Section V. The Ministry of State

Art. 44. The Ministry of State shall consist of the Minister President and the Ministers of state.

Art. 45. The Landtag shall elect the Minister President without debate. The Minister President shall appoint the other ministers of state.

Art. 46. The Minister President shall determine the general principles of governmental policy and shall be responsible for them to the Landtag. Within these principles each minister of state shall independently carry on the branch of administration entrusted to him, and shall himself be responsible to the Landtag.

Art. 47. (1) The Minister President shall be chairman of the Ministry of State and shall conduct its business. (2) The Ministry of State shall determine the jurisdiction of each minister of state in so far as this has not been regulated by legislative enactment. Such determinations shall be immediately submitted to the Landtag and must be altered or repealed at the request of the Landtag. (3) Differences of opinion in respect to matters pertaining to the scope of the authority of the several ministers of state must be submitted to the Ministry of State for consideration and decision. . . .

Art. 49. The Ministry of State shall represent the state in external affairs.

Art. 50. The Ministry of State shall pass on bills which shall be presented to the Landtag. . . .

Art. 54. (1) The Ministry of State shall exercise the pardoning power in the name of the people. (2) In the case of a minister who has been condemned for malfeasance in office this power may be exercised only at the instance of the Landtag. . . .

Art. 55. If the maintenance of public safety or the meeting of an unusual emergency urgently requires it, the Ministry of State may, when the Landtag is not in session, in conjunction with the standing committee provided for in Article 26, issue ordinances not in conflict with this constitution, which shall have the force of laws. Such ordinances must be submitted to the Landtag for approval at its next session. If approval is refused, the ordinance must be immediately declared void by publication in the Law Gazette.

Art. 56. The ministers of state upon their induction into office, shall take an oath to perform their duties impartially and for the public welfare, and in accordance with the constitution and the laws.

Art. 57. (1) The Ministry of State as such and each individual minister of state must possess, in order to retain office, the confidence of the people, which is expressed through the Landtag. The

Landtag may withdraw its confidence in the Ministry of State or in an individual state minister by express resolution. Such resolution shall not be valid if a popular referendum to dissolve the Landtag is legally invoked. (2) A petition which initiates such a resolution must be signed by at least thirty deputies. (3) Such petition shall be voted upon no earlier than the second day after its consideration. It must be acted upon within fourteen days after its introduction. (4) A recorded vote must be taken on a question of lack of confidence. (5) A resolution of lack of confidence shall be valid only if approval is given by at least one-half of the total membership of the Landtag at the time. (6) If the resolution is passed, the ministers affected thereby must resign, but the Minister President must resign only if he does not avail himself of his privilege of requesting a dissolution of the Landtag or if such request is denied by the committee. . . .

Art. 58. (1) The Landtag shall have the right to bring an action before the State Supreme Court (Staatsgerichtshof) against any minister for having willfully violated the constitution or the laws. The bill to initiate such an action must be signed by at least one hundred members of the Landtag and shall require the consent of such a majority as has been designated for changes in the constitution. (2) The composition of the State Supreme Court, its procedure, and the decisions to be rendered by it shall be regulated by law.

Art. 59. (1) Any state minister may resign his office at any time. (2) In the event of a resignation of the entire Ministry of State, the resigning ministers shall carry on current business until it is taken over by the new ministers.

Section VI. Legislation

Art. 60. The Ministry of State shall publish in the Prussian Law Gazette laws constitutionally enacted and state treaties approved by the Landtag.

Art. 61. (1) A law shall be binding when it has been constitutionally enacted and has been published by the Ministry of State in the form prescribed. The publication shall indicate whether the law was enacted by the Landtag or by a popular referendum. Article 13 of the constitution of the Reich shall not be affected hereby. (2) If the law does not otherwise specify it shall go into effect on the fourteenth day after its publication in the Law Gazette. (3) The laws must be published within a month.

Art. 62. Bills which are rejected by the Landtag shall not be introduced again during the session, unless a valid popular initiative so demands.

Section VII. Finance

Art. 63. (1) The Landtag shall vote the necessary current funds to meet the needs of the state. (2) All revenues and appropriations of the state must for each fiscal year be estimated and incorporated in the budget. The budget must be adopted by law before the beginning of the fiscal year. . . .

Art. 64. If before the end of a fiscal year the budget for the following year has not been determined by law, the Ministry of State shall be empowered until a budget goes into effect: (a) To make all expenditures which are necessary in order: (i) To maintain legally existing institutions and to execute legally adopted measures. (ii) To fulfill the lawful obligations of the state. (iii) To continue building operations, contracts, and other un-

dertakings for which appropriations have already been granted in the budget of a previous year, as well as to continue under the same conditions subsidies for building operations, contracts and other undertakings. (b) To issue, for periods of three months, treasury notes to the amount of one-fourth of the total of the previous budget, in so far as revenues derived by special laws from taxes, duties, and other sources do not cover the expenditures under clause (a).

Art. 65. Funds may be procured upon credit only for extraordinary needs and as a rule only for expenditures for productive works. Such a procurement as well as the assumption of any liability by the state may be undertaken only by authority of a law. . . .

Art. 67. (1) Expenditures in excess of amounts granted by, or not included in, the budget must be approved by the Landtag within the next fiscal year. (2) Expenditures in excess of amounts granted by, or not included in, the budget require the approval of the Minister of Finance. Such consent shall be given only in case of an unforeseen and unavoidable emergency. . . .

Section VIII. Local Autonomy

Art. 70. Municipalities and groups of municipalities have the right of local autonomy in their affairs under the supervision of the state as may be determined by law.

Art. 71. (1) The state shall be divided into provinces. (2) The division of the provinces into circles, cities, rural municipalities and other groups of municipalities as well as the constitution, rights, and duties thereof shall be regulated by law. . . .

Section XI. Transitional and Final Provisions

Art. 82. (1) The powers which according to previous laws, ordinances, and treaties were vested in the King are hereby transferred to the Ministry of State.—H. L. McBain and L. Rogers, *New constitutions of Europe*, pp. 217-231.

PRUSSIAN INDUSTRIAL CODE (1845). See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1845-1876.

PRUSSIAN LANGUAGE, Old.—“The Old Prussian, a member of the Lithuanic family of languages, was spoken here as late as the 16th century, remains of which, in the shape of a catechism, are extant. This is the language of the ancient Æstyti, or ‘Men of the East,’ which Tacitus says was akin to the British, an error arising from the similarity of name, since a Slavonian . . . would call the two languages by names so like as ‘Prytskaia’ and ‘Brytskaia,’ and a German . . . by names so like as ‘Prytisc’ and ‘Brytisc.’ The Guttones, too, of Pliny, whose locality is fixed from the fact of their having been collectors of the amber of East Prussia and Courland, were of the same stock.”—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe*, ch. 8.—See also PHILOLOGY: 21.

PRUTH, Treaty of (1711). See SWEDEN: 1707-1718.

PRYTANES, PRYTANEUM.—The Council of Four Hundred, said to have been instituted at Athens by Solon, “was divided into sections, which, under the venerable name of prytanes, succeeded each other throughout the year as the representatives of the whole body. Each section during its term assembled daily in their session house, the prytaneum, to consult on the state of affairs, to receive intelligence, information, and suggestions,

and instantly to take such measures as the public interest rendered it necessary to adopt without delay. . . . According to the theory of Solon's constitution, the assembly of the people was little more than the organ of the council, as it could only act upon the propositions laid before it by the latter."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 11.—"Clisthenes . . . enlarged the number of the senate, 50 being now elected by lot from each tribe, so as to make in all 500. Each of these companies of 50 acted as presidents of both the senate and the assemblies for a tenth part of the year, under the name of Prytanis; and each of these tenth parts, of 35 or 36 days, so as to complete a lunar year, was called a Prytany."—G. F. Schömann, *Dissertation on the assemblies of the Athenians*, p. 14.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 594.

PRYTANIS.—A title frequently recurring among the Greeks was that of Prytanis, which signified prince, or supreme ruler. "Even Hiero, the king or tyrant of Syracuse, is addressed by Pindar as Prytanis. At Corinth, after the abolition of the monarchy, a Prytanis, taken from the ancient house of the Bacchiadae, was annually appointed as supreme magistrate. [See CORINTH: B. C. 745-725.] . . . The same title was borne by the supreme magistrate in the Corinthian colony of Corcyra. . . . In Rhodes we find in the time of Polybius a Prytany lasting for six months."—G. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state*, pt. 2, ch. 5.—See also GREECE: B. C. 4th century.

PRZASNYSZ, town in Poland, fifty miles north of Warsaw. The Germans were defeated near here by the Russians during the campaign of 1914-1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 6; h, 1.

PRZEMYSL (Peremysl), fortress city in Poland, on the San. It came into prominence during the World War, when it was besieged and captured by the Russians on March 22, 1915. They were, however, forced to evacuate it in June of the same year. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 1; d, 2; d, 4; d, 5; 1915: III. Eastern front: c; d; f, 2; f, 3; f, 4.

PSALTER OF CASHEL, **PSALTER OF TARA**, early records of Irish history. See TARA.

PSALTERY. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Stringed instruments.

PSAMMETICHUS, or **Psmethek**, name of three rulers of the twenty-sixth or Saitic dynasty of Egypt. Under the last of them the independence of Egypt was destroyed by the Persian conquest in 525 B. C.—See also EGYPT: B. C. 670-525; B. C. 525-332.

PSELLUS, Michael Constantine (b. 1018), Greek scholar and statesman. Prime minister of the Byzantine empire, 1071-1078. See GREEK LITERATURE: Middle or Byzantine period.

PSEMETHEK. See PSAMMETICHUS.

PSEPHISM, decree in ancient Athens.

PSKOV, town in Russia, 160 miles southwest of Petrograd. It was founded in 965. Here, on March 15, 1917, Nicholas II, tsar of Russia, abdicated. In 1918 the Germans captured the town from the Bolsheviks.

1919.—Peace meeting of Baltic states. See BALTIC STATES: Esthonia: 1919-1920.

1921.—Included in republic of Esthonia. See BALTIC STATES: Esthonia: Territory.

PTA, Egyptian god. See MYTHOLOGY: Egyptian.

PTOLEMAIC CANON. See CHRONOLOGY: Babylonian reform under Nabonassar.

PTOLEMAIC THEORY. See ASTRONOMY: 130-1609.

PTOLEMAIS, Roman name for modern Acre, Syria. See ACRE.

PTOLEMY I (Soter) (d. 283 B. C.), king of Egypt, 306-285 B. C. Son of Lagus and founder of the Macedonian dynasty. See EGYPT: B. C. 323-30; MACEDONIA: B. C. 323-16, to B. C. 297-280; RHODES: B. C. 304; LIBRARIES: Ancient: Alexandria.

Ptolemy II (Philadelphus) (309-246 B. C.), king of Egypt, 285-246 B. C. See ALEXANDRIA: B. C. 282-246; EGYPT: B. C. 323-30; SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 281-224; BIBLE, ENGLISH: Sources; EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 3rd-A. D. 3rd centuries.

Ptolemy III (Euergetes I) (d. 221 B. C.), king of Egypt, 246-221 B. C. See EGYPT: B. C. 323-30.

Ptolemy IV (Philopator), king of Egypt, c. 221-204 B. C.

Ptolemy V (Epiphanes), king of Egypt, c. 204-181 B. C.

Ptolemy VI (Philometor), king of Egypt, c. 181-146 B. C.

Ptolemy VII (Euergetes II), king of Egypt, c. 181-146 B. C.

Ptolemy VIII (Soter II), king of Egypt, c. 116-108 B. C., c. 88-80 B. C.

Ptolemy IX (Alexander I), king of Egypt, c. 101-89 B. C.

Ptolemy X, or **XII** (Alexander II), king of Egypt, c. 80 B. C. See EGYPT: B. C. 80-48.

Ptolemy XI, or **XIII** (Auletes), king of Egypt, c. 80-51 B. C. See EGYPT: B. C. 80-48.

Ptolemy XII, or **XIV** (Philopator), king of Egypt, c. 51-47 B. C. See EGYPT: B. C. 48-30.

Ptolemy XIII, or **XV** (Philopator), king of Egypt, c. 47-44 B. C. See EGYPT: B. C. 48-30.

Ptolemy XIV, or **XVI** (Philopator Philometor Caesar), king of Egypt, c. 44-30 B. C. See EGYPT: B. C. 48-30.

PTOLEMY (Claudius Ptolemaeus) (fl. first half of 2nd century A. D.), Egyptian astronomer, mathematician and geographer. See ASTRONOMY: 130-1609; CHRONOLOGY: Babylonian reform, etc.; EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 3rd-A. D. 3rd centuries; SCIENCE: Ancient: Greek.

PTOLEMY APION (d. 96 B. C.), king of Cyrene, 116-96 B. C. See CYRENAICA: B. C. 97.

PTOLEMY CERAUNOS (d. 279 B. C.), king of Macedonia, 281-279 B. C. Son of Ptolemy I of Egypt. See MACEDONIA: B. C. 297-279; GAUL: B. C. 280-279.

PTOLEMY'S CANON, important chronological list of Chaldean, Persian, Macedonian and Egyptian kings, compiled or continued by Claudius Ptolemaeus, an Alexandrian mathematician and astronomer in the reign of the second Antoninus. —Based on W. Hales, *New analysis of chronology*, v. 1, bk. 1.

PU CHUN, Prince. See CHUN.

PUANS, tribe of North American Indians. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

PUBLIC DEFENDER: Purpose.—"The law recognizes the necessity for counsel, that right being a constitutional guarantee to the accused. The suggestion for a public defender, means the substitution of a sworn public counsel, possessing integrity, ability, experience and power, for the incompetent, uncompensated, or indifferent lawyer who is often assigned to a helpless and impecunious prisoner. . . . The public defender should be an elected officer. . . . His duty should be to protect the innocent—not to acquit the guilty. He should see that the guilty is fairly punished—not over-punished. His office should be represented in every phase of the proceedings wherein the district attorney appears, commencing at the preliminary hearing before the magistrate. The public defender idea is neither revolutionary, novel,

nor impracticable. It is amply justified by historical precedent, and by the procedure in foreign countries."—M. C. Goldman, *Public defender*, pp. 5-6, 9.

In foreign countries.—"There was such an official in Spain in the 15th century. 'In the cortez of Madrigal (1496) and still more in the celebrated one of Toledo (1480) many excellent provisions were made for the equitable administration of justice, as well as regulating the tribunals. The judges were to ascertain every week, either by personal inspection or report, the condition of the prisons, the number of the prisoners, and the nature of the offenses for which they were confined. They were required to bring them to a speedy trial and afford every facility for their defense. An attorney was provided at *public expense*, under the title of *advocate for the poor*, whose duty it was to defend the suits of such as are unable to maintain them at their own costs. . . . Severe penalties were enacted against venality in the judges, a gross evil under the preceding reigns, as well as against such counsel as took exorbitant fees, or even maintained actions that were manifestly unjust.'—([W. H.] Prescott's *History of [the reign of] Ferdinand and Isabella*, vol. 1, p. 194.)—The Spanish law now provides for the employment of counsel to represent indigents in both civil and criminal cases ('Las leyes de enjuiciamiento civil y penal'). In every district, a lawyer is registered who takes charge of the cases of indigents in turn. The criminal code of Hungary provides specifically for the public defender in certain cases, viz: 'An attorney duly listed or the professor of a law university may be selected as defenders. (Sec. 55.) Without the public defender there cannot be had a final hearing or trial if the accused has no separate attorney. (Sec. 412.) The presence of the public defender is always obligatory except when the defendant has a separate defender.' (Sec. 414.) In the *Argentine Republic*, the defense of accused persons unable to employ counsel is entrusted to the 'Defensores de Pobres y Ausents' (defenders of poor and absents). These counsel are lawyers appointed by the Supreme Court of Argentina, for life, at a monthly salary. There are also public defenders for infants and insane persons. In *France*, there exists an organization called 'L'Assistance Judiciaire,' through which persons without sufficient means are entitled to avail themselves of the protection of the courts. The bar in that country is unified into an order, assignments to the defense of indigent prisoners are made by the executive head of the order, from the bar in general, and accepted as obligatory. This insures to the defendant dignified and competent counsel. In *Belgium*, in accordance with the law of July 30, 1889, covering judicial assistance to the poor, an indigent person has the right to choose a lawyer, who gives his services gratuitously. He is called a 'Pro Deo' lawyer. A petition for such free procedure must be sent to the judge, who has the right to dismiss the petition or allow the 'Pro Deo' lawyer's appointment, according to what his investigation as to the prisoner's circumstances develops. The procedure has this advantage, that the prisoner, by selecting his own attorney, cannot complain that he was dependent upon counsel who is unsatisfactory to him for any reason. The Constitution of *Mexico* provides for the free public defense of its citizens, through the 'Defensores de Oficio,' the number of whom is stipulated in the 'Ley Organica de Ministerio Publico.' The

constitution of each one of the Mexican states provides also, within the jurisdiction of the state, for the 'Defensores de Oficio,' whose number is specified in the 'Codigo de Procedimientos Penales' in some jurisdictions, and in the 'Ley Organica,' in others. The same general principle is followed, although the various states have different forms and laws. The *Norwegian* act of May 22, 1902, concerning 'procedure in criminal cases,' prescribes that a lawyer must be assigned by the court for the defense of any person who is being tried for crime, the expense thereof to be borne by the state. This method of compensation insures a more adequate defense than a system of free counsel. In *England*, counsel assigned to the defense of an accused person is paid by the government. Under the criminal system in *Denmark*, the court appoints, in each case, a prosecutor and a defender for the accused person. Both of these are selected from a staff of public attorneys in the particular city or district, who have been appointed beforehand by the king to handle public cases. The *German* criminal law marks an important advance over the criminal systems of other countries, in that it recognizes the right of an innocent person unjustly punished, to be *compensated by the state*. The two laws bearing upon this subject are worthy of note, viz.: 'Those defendants who have been acquitted upon a re-trial, may demand damages or compensation from the state if their punishment pronounced at the first trial has been put in operation, in whole or in part. Innocent persons who have been detained in custody before trial and who have been acquitted in criminal cases, may demand damages from the state, if the trial has established their innocence.' According to the 'Wetboek von Strafvordering' (Code for administering Penal Law) of The Netherlands, any person accused of crime may have counsel assigned to him, and that the privilege is not restricted to indigent persons. This counsel is chosen by the president of the court among the lawyers in his district."—M. C. Goldman, *Public defender*, pp. 9-14.

Adoption in the United States.—"In March, 1912, the first public official designated as a 'Public Defender' was established in the United States. Miss Kate Barnard, then Commissioner of Charities and Corrections in the state of Oklahoma, designated Dr. John H. Stolper as 'General Attorney for the Commissioner of Charities and Corrections and as Public Defender of the state of Oklahoma.' [See OKLAHOMA: 1915.] . . . During the year 1913, the people of Los Angeles County adopted a charter (subsequently ratified by the State Legislature) providing for the appointment of a public defender. It provides among other things: 'Upon request by the defendant or upon order of the court, the public defender shall defend, without expense to them, all persons who are charged in the Superior Court with the commission of any contempt, misdemeanor, felony, or other offense.' On January 6, 1914, Hon. Walton J. Wood became the first public defender in the United States of the type generally advocated, and he has served in such office with great distinction and ability. His conduct of the office has amply justified the necessity and reasons for its existence. In June, 1915, a separate public defender was appointed for the police courts of Los Angeles. A voluntary public defender was appointed for Houston, Texas, in June, 1914. In May, 1914, a voluntary public defender was appointed at Portland, Oregon, through the co-

operation of one of the judges and the bar associations. During March, 1915, Mr. David Robinson was appointed the first official public defender for Portland, pursuant to a resolution of the City Council, which created the office. In November, 1914, a voluntary public defender was appointed at Evansville, Ind., by the Mayor. In September, 1914, a voluntary public defender was established at the city of Temple, Texas. Mr. Richard S. Horton, of Omaha, became public defender for Douglas County (Omaha), Nebraska, pursuant to an act of the State Legislature, in July, 1915. On December 1, 1915, Mr. Rollo H. McBride, was appointed public defender of Pittsburg, Pa., by the Mayor of that city. In February, 1915, the Municipal Council of the city of Columbus, Ohio, appointed Mr. Cecil J. Randall as public defender of the city of Columbus. . . . During the year 1915, there were 12 public defender bills introduced in various state legislatures."—M. C. Goldman, *Public defender*, pp. 81-84.

ALSO IN: R. Ferrari, *Analysis of New York and county bar report on the public defender* (*Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology*, May, 1915, v. 6, no. 1.—W. J. Wood, *Journal of American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology*, Nov., 1916, v. 7, no. 4.—T. J. McManus, *Objections to the public defender* (*Arbitrator*, Mar., 1920, v. 2, no. 10).

PUBLIC DEPOSITORY LAW (1907). See INDIANA: 1905-1907.

PUBLIC HEALTH: Definition.—"Public health is a term which includes all knowledge and all measures tending to (a) foster health or (b) to prevent disease. . . . Public health may be divided into hygiene and sanitation. Hygiene deals with the individual and his physical perfection. The causes and sources of those diseases which come from the outside, from the surroundings of the individual are dealt with under the term sanitation."—H. W. Hill, *New public health*, p. 1.—"Hygiene was one of the branches least cultivated in the middle ages. Even in the capitals of European states no laws existed for keeping the streets and houses clean, the free circulation of air, the soundness of the food used by the people, and the practice of cleanly personal habits. This was an almost universal opinion, received as an article of faith, that there was no better way of enlarging the dominion of the soul, than by mortifying the body. The rules of most of the religious orders had no other object than to obtain sanctification by the mortification of the body. . . . The seventeenth century marks the date of the establishment of hygiene, public and private, on a rational systematic, and scientific basis. Previous to that time there were lazarettos for lepers, and to some extent, isolation for syphilitics. In England the Royal medical society gave a strong impulse to public hygiene, by its reports and correspondence with physicians in all countries, who furnished observations on everything pertaining to public health. Thereafter individuals, municipalities, and governments forwarded the work. In the latter part of the eighteenth century Lady Montague imported from Constantinople the practice of inoculation. . . . Perhaps the first great impulse among English speaking peoples especially in matters pertaining to 'state medicine', or sanitation can be traced to Dr. William Farr and to the establishment through his efforts of the British registrar-general's office in 1832. Within the last thirty-five years knowledge gained by the study of bacteria, especially as regards the cause and na-

ture of infectious diseases, has furnished a wealth of facts for the foundation of a science lasting and secure."—A. G. Drury, *History of hygiene*, p. 10.—"Even forty years ago much of the teaching was based upon views antedating the scientific era, and it was not till Pasteur's triumph in vaccinating against anthrax in 1881, Koch's discovery of the germ of tuberculosis in 1882, and Löffler's discovery of the germ of diphtheria in 1884, with Pasteur's crucial experiment with rabies in 1885, that public health took its place among the exact sciences."—P. H. Bryce, *Story of public health in Canada*, p. 66.—"What has already been done is shown by the following statistics: from an annual death rate in England and Wales from 1862 to 1871 inclusive, of 22 per 1000, it fell in 1881 to 18 per 1000 and in 1899 it was 17 per 1000. The death rate of the seven principal infectious diseases from 4+ in 1862-71, per 1000, to 2+.40 in 1885. In this country a like improvement has been made. In New York the death rate has been reduced from 25+.32 in 1889, to 18+.41 in 1899; in Philadelphia from 19+.14 to 18+.78; in Boston from 23 to 20 per 1000."—A. G. Drury, *History of hygiene*, p. 11.—"The rate 14.1 . . . is a convenient one to remember, representing, as it does, the average death-rate of a group constituting three-fifths of the population of the United States at the present time: it is the most nearly representative national death-rate that we have. It strikes an average among all kinds of communities and between extremes of healthfulness and unhealthfulness."—J. S. MacNutt, *Manual for health officers*, p. 71.—See STATISTICS: Vital statistics.—"The world wide movement for the conservation of human life has expressed itself in many ways—in medical research; in societies for preventing tuberculosis, infant mortality, social diseases, alcoholism and vice; in the growth of sanatoria, dispensaries, hospitals and other institutions; in an immense output of hygienic literature, not only technical books and journals, but also popular articles in the magazines and daily newspapers; in the constant agitation for purer foods, milk supply, meat supply and water supply; in the movement to limit the labor of women and children, and to improve factory sanitation; in the establishment of social insurance in Germany, England, Denmark and other countries; in the improvement of departments of health; in the spread of gymnastics, physical training and school hygiene; in the revival of the Olympic games and the effort to revive the old Greek ideals of physical perfection and beauty, and last and most important, in the sudden development of the science of eugenics."—I. Fisher, *Public health movement* (*Survey*, Dec. 21, 1912).

Australia.—School inspection. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1901-1918.

Canada.—Department of health.—"It is true that for many years the progress of public health in Canada seemed slow, but it maintained a pace at least equal to that in neighboring states. With her remarkable expansion from 1900 onward, when Canada in ten years increased 34% in her population public health had many new demands laid upon it, while with the increased provincial revenues various new duties were undertaken. One of the most notable grew out of the Ontario Sanatorium Act of 1900 providing for provincial aid and supervision of county sanatoria. Different provinces have erected provincial sanatoria whose work was notably increased owing to the militia department subsidizing them for the care

of tuberculous soldiers during the war. There can be no doubt that the remarkable results of modern preventive medicine in the various war areas, necessitating huge expenditures for health purposes as a routine war measure, have served greatly to advance public health work as an ordinary function of government. Thus, in the province of Ontario the first annual grant in 1882 was only \$4,000 and provided for a part-time health officer. This has grown to an expenditure of \$550,000 annually and the staff numbers 50 officers. Those who had long been in the active work of public health in Canada had, as seen in a resolution adopted at Quebec in 1867, worked and waited patiently, hoping for the union of federal and provincial forces in the campaign against disease. Old theories regarding the limited jurisdiction of the federal government under the British North America Act, which for fifty years had been made to do service by the opportunist politician, were seen to be readily disproved when the essential need for united effort after the war was made apparent. Hence, during the session of parliament of 1919 a bill for establishing a federal department of health was passed providing that a physician become the deputy minister of health. A number of existing services had been placed under the department of health and new branches dealing with the various phases of public health are being developed. The parliamentary grant for the fiscal year 1920-1921 was \$750,000."—P. H. Bryce, *Story of public health in Canada (American Public Health Association)*, pp. 64-66. —"The act [of 1910] aims at placing health as a foundation of government, thereby assuring to the people that the vital problems of health which concern a nation and upon which depends its very existence, continuity, and efficiency are those which will hereafter receive serious and constant attention. It provides for the establishment of a department of health, for a minister of health, a deputy minister, and an advisory council. The duties and powers of the minister extend to and include all matters and questions relating to the promotion or preservation of the health of the people of Canada over which the parliament of Canada has jurisdiction. 'Whereas it is expedient for the preservation of the health and the promotion of the social welfare of the people of Canada, that a Department of Health be established in the Dominion: Therefore His Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows: 1. This Act may be cited as *The Department of Health Act*. . . . 3. *Deputy Minister*: (1) The Governor in Council may appoint an officer, who shall be called "the Deputy Minister of Health," who shall be the deputy head of the Department and who shall hold office during pleasure. . . . 7. *Provincial or municipal boards not affected*: Nothing in this Act or in any regulation made thereunder shall authorize the Minister or any officer of the Department to exercise any jurisdiction or control over any Provincial or Municipal Board of Health or other health authority operating under the laws of any province. 8. *Annual report*: The Minister shall annually lay before Parliament, within fifteen days after the meeting thereof, a report and statement of the transactions and affairs of the Department during the year then next preceding.—Assented to June 6, 1910."—United States Public Health Service, *A department of health for Canada (Public Health Reports, Aug. 29, 1919, pp. 1973-1976)*.

ALSO IN: *Annual Report of Hygiene and Statistics Department, Montreal, Canada, 1920-1922.*

Caucasus.—Lack of sanitation. See CAUCASUS: Lack of sanitation.

Central America.—Superior board of health in Honduras.—Bureau of public health in Salvador.—"An Executive decree of May 4th, 1920, provides for the organization of a Superior Board of Health [in Honduras]. . . . Another Executive decree provides for a public health police under the orders of the superior board of health. This police is composed of a director, 27 agents, and an office force."—*Bulletin of the Pan American Union, Aug., 1920, p. 219.*—"In Salvador a pernicious kind of malaria is the dominating disease, and shows itself in different phases and manifestations. The council of health has recommended several measures to minimize its effects, but the result achieved does not altogether correspond to the efforts of the authorities, because, besides the heavy expenses of the sanitation works in many parts of the country, the majority of the people are opposed to all hygienic measures, and through poverty are condemned to live in small dwellings, which are badly ventilated and damp, and consequently unhealthy."—P. F. Martin, *Salvador of the twentieth century, p. 269.*—"The President of the Republic has issued a decree containing rules and regulations governing the bureau of public health. The principal object of the bureau, whose officials consist of a director general, chiefs of sections, and other employees, is to transact the business connected with the public health in the manner prescribed by law and in accordance with the most approved and up-to-date methods."—*Bulletin of The Pan-American Union, Mar., 1921, p. 314.*

China.—High death rate.—Promotion of public hygiene.—"China is generally considered the real home of influenza, so that close acquaintance has conferred some degree of immunity on its people. A former epidemic originating in China was known in Russia as 'Chinese influenza,' passing into Europe it was known as 'Russian influenza,' from Europe it spread to America and was known as 'European influenza,' finally it reached Japan, where it was called 'American influenza,' having circled the globe and reached its original home, China, whose many millions constitute the fountain head of epidemic disease. As communications are increased it becomes ever more necessary for the safety of the whole world to develop modern public health administration throughout China. A table giving the death rates in Shanghai during 24 years, 1895 to 1918 inclusive, reveals the curiously interesting fact that in 1908 there was a definite reversal of the relation between the death rate of the Chinese and that of the foreign resident population. Up to 1908 the death rate among the Chinese population was continuously higher than that among the foreign resident population, excepting the year 1906 when the rate was the same for both classes; while for 11 years, from and including 1908 up to and including 1918, excepting the year 1912, the death rate among the Chinese population was continuously lower than that among the foreign resident population. The population is given in the report as 21,000 foreign and 650,000 Chinese. The death rates for the year 1918 were: Foreign, 16.5 per 1,000; Chinese, 12.8 per 1,000 of population. The density of population is given as 122 persons per acre."—United States Public Health Service, *Public Health Reports, Sept. 12, 1919, pp. 2071-2072.*—"The era in modern preventive medicine may be

said to have commenced in 1911 when the Chinese government and people noticed the great superiority of accurate scientific methods as compared with crude haphazard methods for the suppression of the pneumonic plague in Manchuria. . . . In November, 1913, a presidential mandate was issued authorizing the dissection of dead bodies in China. This together with the imperial sanction of cremation of cadavers from the plague in 1917, has undoubtedly paved the way for further medical progress in China. On September 30, 1915, an important mandate was issued recognizing Western medicine as the proper standard of medical practice in China. Anyone practicing in the country will henceforth be required to produce a certificate from the police. . . . As a result of the second visitation of the pneumonic plague in Shansi, China, 1918, the central government devoted the balance of the one million loan (obtained for the suppression of the epidemic) to the establishment of the Institute for infectious diseases. . . . Over forty experts, mostly graduates of Japan, are connected with the institute. During last summer when cholera threatened Peking and the vicinity, the institute distributed vaccine made in its laboratories for use among the troops. The institute is connected with the ministry of the interior and comes directly under the department of sanitation. . . . It is generally acknowledged that until the poorer classes practice hygiene as well as the educated classes, infectious and other communicative diseases will not be stamped out. Knowledge of simple laws of health is therefore essential among high, and low. With a view to carrying out such work, the joint council of public health education was formed in 1916, consisting of representation from the Y. M. C. A., national medical association and medical missionary association. . . . [The] method of work consists in preparing travelling exhibits of automatic models, plans, lantern slides, moving pictures and other methods by which the attention of the audience may be arrested and retained. Besides the above hundreds of thousands of pamphlets and booklets have been issued and sold at cost price. Among the titles of these books may be found: 'How to live,' 'First aid in the home,' 'Sanitation of a Chinese city,' 'Tuberculosis,' 'Infant hygiene,' 'Plague,' 'Smallpox,' 'Venereal disease,' 'Care of teeth,' 'Care of eyes,' 'Cholera,' 'Sexual hygiene for young men,' etc. These books have had an enormous sale, showing that the public are interested in promoting hygiene."—*China Year Book*, 1923, p. 913.

Denmark.—Government health service.—Organization, administration, laws.—"The administration of the public health service, the enforcement of the specific regulations having legal power for the whole Kingdom, and the supervision that the laws are followed is the duty of the ordinary civil administrative authorities, but these are assisted by medical officers (embedslæger) who are State officials, and by unsalaried boards (committees) appointed by the communal councils. The establishment of special superior supervising councils (salaried by the State) and the appointment of special inspectors has been made necessary by certain of the laws, such as the laws on the protection of workmen, compulsory accident insurance, State-subsidized medical aid societies, the regulation of factory work and inspection of the same, and by the law on aid to the unemployed. To enforce the medical and sanitary by-laws and to see that they are obeyed is the duty of the local sanitary committees appointed by the communal

councils. In boroughs the local chief of police (State official) is ex officio chairman of the board of health and the medical officer a member of the same. The supreme authority in the public health service is the ministry of justice, which is at the head not only of the department of justice but also of the police service. With the exception of the ministry of war, this is the only one having at its disposal special experts on medical and sanitary matters. . . . Ranking immediately under the ministry of justice is the State board of health (sundhedsstyrelse), which superintends all matters concerning sanitation and the care of patients, supervises the public medical officers and the medical practitioners, dental surgeons, apothecaries, midwives, and subordinate medical and pharmaceutical assistants in the performance of their professional duties, and all hospitals and sanatoria, all institutions under the poor laws, insane asylums, prisons, schools, nurse children, factories, workshops, etc., as to their sanitary conditions. . . . Cases of the rarer and more serious diseases—cholera, plague, smallpox, dysentery, and exanthematous typhus—are at once submitted to compulsory public treatment; that is to say, the patient is at once treated at public expense, and he, as well as his surroundings, must submit to the isolation and disinfection which the committee prescribes and carries out. During compulsory public treatment everyone is compelled to notify the 'epidemic doctor' (Epidemilægen) of any suspicious case of illness arising in his household, and the private medical practitioners are obliged to immediately notify the district medical officer of each case of the diseases mentioned above, giving the name and address of the patient. The patients can be treated in their homes, which must then be isolated, but most frequently they are admitted to the isolation buildings. . . . The working of this law, first enacted in 1888, later on revised, and in 1900 considerably extended, has been very beneficial. The more endemic diseases have decreased yearly in frequency, and smallpox occurs only now and then, not even every year; typhoid fever has become a very rare disease. . . . The fight against the infectious venereal diseases is conducted in conformity with a special act of 1906. The principal regulation of this law is that every case of infectious venereal disease is, on the application of the patient, entitled to free treatment at public expense, regardless of whether the patient is rich, or poor or whether the case can be treated as an out-patient or must be admitted to a hospital; and, on the other hand, every patient seeking the aid of a medical man, whether he accepts free treatment at public expense or has himself treated privately, is enjoined to continue the treatment under direction of a medical practitioner or at a hospital until he can be declared cured. . . . In case the patient refuses to enter the hospital, the matter is decided by the governor of the county (amtmand) or the minister of justice, and the assistance of the police can be resorted to."—A. Johansen, *Joint session of sections 6 and 7, Sept. 24, 1912*, pp. 497-499, 502, 503. (*Transactions of the Fifteenth International Congress on Hygiene and Demography*, 1912, v. 1, pp. 485-486.).

France.—Bureaus of public health.—High standards of sanitation.—"The French regard the foundation of the Royal Society of Medicine in 1776 as the first step taken in France towards the establishment of a public sanitary service. Although this association of medical men could not be regarded as a consultative authority, indepen-

dent of the public authorities, it nevertheless exercised a very great influence on all sanitary questions on which the government requested their co-operation. . . . Thus *Conseils d'Hygiène Publique* were established in Paris in 1802, in Lyons 1802, Marseilles 1825, Lille and Nantes 1828, Troyes 1830, Rouen and Bordeaux 1831. These councils accomplished all that was then possible. It is only in recent times that the provisions of the old laws have been profitably used, by the creation in many towns, as Nancy, Rheims, Lille, Havre, Pau, etc., of Bureaux d'Hygiène analogous to those in Brussels. In 1822 the *Conseil Supérieur de Santé* was created under the control of the Minister of the Interior; but this council does not appear to have displayed much activity. The Revolution of 1848 gave France its present sanitary organization by the decree of the 10th August, 1848, signed by Cavaignac, and countersigned by Thouret. This decree suppressed the *Conseil Supérieur de Santé*, and replaced it by the *Comité Consultatif d'Hygiène Publique de France* under the Minister of Commerce. The supreme control of public health was transferred on 1st January, 1889, to the Minister of the Interior. On the 18th December, 1848, the establishment for each department and district of a *Conseil d'Hygiène Publique et de Salubrité* was decreed."—A. Palmberg (tr. from French edition and section on England, ed. by A. Newsholme), *Treatise on public health and its applications in different European countries*, pp. 263-264.—In the first quarter of the twentieth century, "France was almost certainly the only country in Europe in which the highest standards of general sanitation and healthy living prevailed; [a condition due to] a higher standard of housing, the comparative absence of slums, and the splendid open spaces which characterize many of the cities of France."—W. A. Brend, *Health and the state*, pp. 215-216.

Germany.—Sanitation.—Social law of 1911.—Effect of World War.—"The struggle against diseases which unnaturally end the life of man prematurely has been conducted in Germany with greatest tenacity and with good results. In the years from 1871 to 1880, for every one thousand population the death rate was 27.1; at the close of the century, it was only about 20; in the year 1913, only 15; therefore continued increase in the average longevity [was] clearly shown. To bring about this result, the constant sanitary development of the whole country [was] necessary. . . . Particularly in the years 1886 to 1900 the improvement of the conditions of living in Germany may be traced to decrease in mortality among those in the age of greatest productiveness. The law on sickness insurance prevents hardship resulting from sickness. Every patient is assured of a physician, treatment in a hospital, and the most necessary means for his subsistence as well as for the subsistence of the family. . . . A prophylactic was developed, in which the national insurance institutions, which are the legal holders of invalid insurance and sick benefits, took a part. This occurred after the composite social law of 1911, which prevented such an appropriation of beneficial funds, had been replaced by the establishment of the new national insurance regulation. Also city communities and country districts, as well as many beneficial organizations, placed themselves at the service of this modern prophylactic endeavor. . . . In the last twenty years before the war the population of Germany . . . increased from 100 to 132 per cent. . . . [But] German national health [was greatly] impaired by the war. . . . [A marked in-

crease of tuberculosis appeared.] . . . The shortage of soap and laundry [gave] decided increase to venereal disease. . . . Mortality among children from two to ten years . . . increased extraordinarily. . . . In many families . . . three or four children [were] unable to walk [due to rickets]."—A. Schlossman, *Social and industrial conditions in the Germany of today* (tr. by Karl Schloz in *Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Nov., 1920).

Great Britain.—Public health acts.—Board of health.—Ministry of health.—"English towns of the Industrial Revolution brought with them the great modern problem of the public health, and at first nothing was done to meet that problem. A series of epidemics, culminating in the outbreak of cholera which began in 1831, forced the problem into prominence, and tardy action at last produced a board of health in 1848."—A. S. Turberville and F. A. Howe, *Great Britain in the latest age*, p. 92.—The Public Health Act of 1848 made less generous provision for the needs of the time than the reception of the reports would lead one to anticipate. A General Board of Health was established, but the opposition forced the Government to limit its existence to five years, a device which gave factious opposition an unfortunately strong point of vantage in attacking the Board. Local Boards of Health might be set up in towns of more than three thousand inhabitants, in places showing an annual mortality in excess of twenty-three deaths per thousand. The General Board was given power to require the locality to acquire the sanitary powers provided in the act for Local Boards. . . . The medical fraternity furnished in these years a mass of technical knowledge concerning the prevalence of disease, and the causes of endemic and epidemic diseases. They began to form a body of statistical knowledge and to develop a technique in the collection and interpretation of statistics that was fundamental in health administration. . . . The known deficiencies of the local authorities in carrying out sanitary reforms resulted in the appointment of a Royal Commission in 1868 to investigate conditions and to recommend new legislation. The report emphasized the utter inadequacy of laws that merely created opportunities for the acquisition of powers by local authorities, and the ineffective administration of powers acquired was likewise pointed out."—A. P. Usher, *Introduction to industrial history of England*, pp. 398, 400-401.—"In 1871, there came into existence the Local Government Board, soon one of the most important of government departments. Its separate identity dates from then, though it was really an amalgamation of three different bodies—the Board of Public Health, the Poor Law Commissioners Board, and the Local Government department of the Home Office. The central department co-ordinated the work of local government by issuing orders and directions, and by sending inspectors to view asylums, workhouses, etc. . . . The Local Government Board has now [1920] been swallowed up in the Ministry of Health."—A. S. Turberville and F. A. Howe, *Great Britain in the latest age*, p. 255.—"The laws relating to public health were revised and codified by the Statute of 1875; so all the external appearance of final achievement was given to the legislation of the period. The details of correlation between central and local authorities had been worked out, and the development of grants from the revenues of the Central Government in aid of local rates had removed the chief complaint of

local interests. They could no longer plead in extenuation of their conduct an inability to provide financially for the schemes of improvement imposed upon them by the central health authorities. These were, indeed, substantial accomplishments, but it is none the less important to recognize that opportunities were lost of creating an administrative jurisdiction that would have been better able to accomplish the primary ends of social improvements in these directions. . . . One cannot feel that the legislation of the years 1871-75 was in any adequate sense a fulfillment of the preparatory work of reform that had been accomplished with distinction under the direction of Chadwick in the forties and under the leadership of the most public-spirited members of the medical fraternity in the years following the retirement of Chadwick from office. The progress in combating preventable disease has been slower than might have been anticipated. The shortcomings of the work of 1871 were peculiarly unfortunate because the departmental organization became sufficiently fixed at that time to render further reform especially difficult."—A. P. Usher, *Introduction to the industrial history of England*, pp. 402-403.—Although it was not until 1919 that a ministry of health was created (see CHARITIES: Great Britain: 1909-1919), the Education Act of 1902, the Children Act of 1908 (see CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1903-1920) and the Fisher Act of 1918 contained many provisions which did much to advance the cause of public health. "More than ever before, the state by the Act of 1918 [Fisher Act] makes itself responsible for the physical well-being of the children and associates this closely with education. . . . In the continuation schools, physical training is to form a definite part of the programme and local authorities are authorised to provide gymnasia, playing fields, swimming baths, and similar facilities and even to arrange holiday camps. In elementary schools, local education authorities are accustomed to care for the health of the children in their charge, especially in respect to physical cleanliness, dental troubles, and defective vision, and for this purpose they employ staffs of school medical officers, qualified practitioners, who inspect, report, and give treatment regularly and systematically. This duty is imposed by the Acts of 1902-3 and is extended by the Act of 1918 to apply to all provided schools, continuation schools and secondary schools as well as elementary. Infant care becomes part of the educational scheme under the last Act, and local education authorities may provide nursery schools for children between two and five years of age (or six years if the local authority raises the age for beginning school attendance to six) where attention will be given to their health, nourishment, and physical welfare."—A. S. Turberville and F. A. Howe, *Great Britain in the latest age*, pp. 286-287.—"The recent approval [1919] of the Ministry of Health Act by the King brings into effect an act that establishes a new office under the British Government, the incumbent being entitled 'Minister of Health.' Dr. Christopher Addison, who has been active in promoting the movement for such a law, has been appointed as the first minister, and by an order in council the act came into operation on July 1 of the current year. In its original effect the act takes over for the new ministry the powers and duties of the Local Government Board and of the insurance commissioners of England and Wales. It also transfers to the ministry all the powers of the Board of Education with respect to

attending to the health of expectant and nursing mothers and of children who have not reached the age of five years and are not in attendance in schools recognized by the board of education; also the subject of midwives under acts of 1902 and 1918, and powers exercised by the Secretary of State with regard to infant life protection under Part I of the Children Act, 1908. Further transfers are authorized of the powers of the board of education with respect to the medical inspection and treatment of children and young persons, powers of the Minister of Pensions with regard to the health of disabled officers and men after they have left the service, powers of the Secretary of State with regard to persons insane or mentally deficient, and other powers that seem to relate to the health of the people, either directly or indirectly. It will be noted that this last group of powers is merely authorized and not accomplished, while in the first group the transfer is actually made. In order to limit the functions of the Ministry of Health strictly to the duties properly incumbent upon it, any powers and duties transferred under this blanket provision which are not strictly in line with the purposes of the ministry may be taken away from it and placed elsewhere. The effect of the order is to clarify the whole situation with regard to provisions for health for women, children both in and out of school, pensioners from the Army and Navy, and persons mentally deficient. Thus far the act is only a consolidation of existing powers. An added feature is the authority given the King by an order in council to establish 'consultative councils,' whose duty shall be to give advice and assistance in connection with matters affecting the health of the people; these councils are to include persons of both sexes who have had practical experience in the matters to be considered. The act contains provisions for its operation in Scotland and Ireland as well as in England and Wales. A provisional order issued for the purpose of enlarging upon the plan for consultative councils directs that they shall consist of any number of persons not exceeding 20 as the ministry may determine, who shall be appointed for terms of three years, with an annual appointment of one-third of the membership, no member to serve continuously for more than six years. This draft order indicates the purposes of not only giving these councils consultative powers but of authorizing them to make suggestions on their own initiative."—*Ministry of Health Act of Great Britain (Monthly Labor Review, Aug., 1919)*.—It is fully appreciated that bad housing means diminished personal cleanliness and physique: increases the sickness rates, particularly the risks of infectious and contagious diseases, and lowers the general expectation of life. As well as the Housing Department, a large section of the Ministry is devoted to dealing with such subjects as infectious diseases, tuberculosis and venereal diseases. "The infant death rate for England and Wales for the year of 1920, namely 80 per 1000 births (the lowest hitherto recorded), was slightly exceeded in 1921, when the rate was 83 per 1000 births. The lowest rate previous to 1920 was 89 in the year 1919, and the rates of these three years affords a striking comparison with the average rate of about 150 at the beginning of the century. . . . Important developments have taken place . . . in connection with the welfare of the blind by reason of the application of the blind persons' act, 1920, [according to which] 'blind persons who had attained the age of 50 were

entitled to receive such pensions as they would have been entitled to receive under the old age pensions acts if they had attained the age of 70. On the first of March, 1922, 9,107 blind persons in England and Wales between the ages of 50 and 70 were in receipt of old age pensions."—*Third Annual Report of the Ministry of Health, 1921-1922*, p. 17.

Japan.—Efforts to check disease in Formosa. See FORMOSA: 1874-1910.

Panama.—Sanitary measures. See PANAMA CANAL: 1904-1905.

Philippines.—Sanitation. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1600; 1921.

United States: Origin of public health service.—"The origin of the Public Health Service dates back to the end of the eighteenth century when, in 1796, steps were taken for providing medical and surgical relief to merchant seamen. At first this was financed by a per capita tax collected from the seamen, the funds being handled by the collectors of customs in the various ports. Subsequently this was changed into a tonnage tax, collected through the same channels. This explains why the marine hospital work (the precedent of the present United States Public Health Service), came to be lodged in the Treasury Department, for the collections of customs was naturally a branch of the Treasury Department's work. . . . The government . . . established 'marine hospitals' at various important points. . . . For a short period, 1878-1883, a terrible epidemic of yellow fever in the Mississippi valley caused the establishment of a National Board of Health (U. S. Statutes at Large, Vol. 20, page 484, Mar. 3rd, 1879). This attempt to turn Federal health authority over to another group apparently failed to meet the condition. And so we find several years later the idea of a National Board of Health, distinct from the Marine Hospital Service, abandoned, and the work again entrusted to the Marine Hospital Service. More and more, therefore, this Service began to undertake Federal public health activities, a fact which was recognized by Congress, when in 1902 (U. S. Statutes at Large, Vol. 32, page 712, Act of July 1st, 1902), it changed the name of the service to the United States Public Health Service and Marine Hospital Service, and later by an act approved August 14th, 1912, the name was changed to its present designation, the United States Public Health Service, and the power to 'study and investigate the diseases of man and conditions influencing the propagation and spread thereof, including sanitation and sewage and the pollution, either directly or indirectly of the navigable streams and lakes of the United States.' . . . Under the Constitution and existing statutes, the Federal Public Health Service is restrained from assuming duties that properly devolve upon State and municipal authorities. But their relations are so intimate that Congress made provision not only for coöperation, but for conferences on public health matters. By Act of Congress, July 1st, 1902 (U. S. Statutes at Large, Vol. 32, page 712), provision was made for an annual conference with all or a part of the State health organizations, and upon application of not less than five State health authorities, a special conference must be called. The deliberations pertain particularly to administrative matters. In effect, there is thus provided an advisory council on administrative matters, which in its development will insure coöperation and be an arbiter on vexed sanitary questions, and in which each State

is entitled to representation."—A. Doyle, *Development of federal public health functions in United States (Public Health Nurse, Sept., 1920)*.—"The United States has at the present time no unified national bureau or department of health analogous to the Comité Consultatif d'Hygiène de France, the Imperial Gesundheitsamt of Germany or the Local Government Board of England. The activities carried on by the Federal government for the furtherance of hygiene and sanitation are distributed among several separate and distinct bureaus. In the treasury department the *Public Health Service* has charge of the administration of the national maritime quarantine and of the national laws pertaining to medical inspection of immigrants; conducts investigations, in the various states, on infectious diseases, maintaining in this connection a hygienic laboratory [see BIOLOGY: Application]; and regulates the purity and potency of vaccines, antitoxins and serums manufactured for sale in interstate traffic. Each year it calls into conference representatives of the state boards of health for discussion of scientific and administrative questions and the promotion of coöperation. It publishes weekly *Public Health Reports* for circulation among health authorities and others, setting forth statistical and other data relating to national quarantine, communicable disease and mortality throughout the country, and other related subjects."—J. S. MacNutt, *Manual for health officers*, p. 54.—In the Department of Agriculture, the *Bureau of Chemistry* investigates the adulteration of foods, drugs and liquors, and the administration of the Federal Pure Food Act; the *Bureau of Animal Industry* contains the dairy division, which carries on sanitary and economic investigations of the milk industry, and the *meat inspection division*, which inspects slaughter-houses, and meat entering into interstate traffic. (See AGRICULTURE, DEPARTMENT OF, UNITED STATES.) In the Department of Commerce, the *Bureau of the Census* includes the *division of vital statistics*, which collects, analyzes and publishes statistics of population, births and deaths, for the country as a whole and for its various cities and towns. In the Department of Labor the *Children's Bureau*, instituted in 1912, conducts investigations and disseminates information dealing with the protection of child life, particularly as regards prevention of infant mortality.

Numerous unofficial organizations promote public health in various ways. "The American public health association is the oldest and the leading organization of the country devoted to the advancement of public hygiene. It was founded in 1872, and draws its members from the United States, Canada, Mexico, and Cuba. Its aims are: 'the development and advancement of public hygiene; the correlation of principles and practice; and the promotion of public hygiene as a distinct profession.' The association holds an annual meeting. . . . Important work, especially in the collection of data and the formulation of standards, is performed by the committees of the association. All persons engaged in official or technical work in public health lines or interested in public health work are eligible for membership. The official organ of the association is the *American Journal of Public Health*, published monthly. The Journal is a running library on public health work and sanitary engineering, and its volumes for completed years are indispensable works of reference to the health officer. . . . The *National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis*, . . . acts

as a central bureau of exchange for information regarding tuberculosis, conducts investigations, manages the sale of Red Cross Seals for the tuberculosis campaign, [and] publishes books and pamphlets."—J. S. MacNutt, *Manual for health officers*, p. 60.—Other leading national unofficial organizations for the promotion of the public health are the American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, the National Housing Association, and the American Medical Association.

ALSO IN: Anderson, *Organization, powers and duties of the United States Public Health Service today* (*American Journal of Public Health*, 1913, v. 3, no. 9, p. 845).—B. S. Warren, *Unified health service*.—Kerr and Moll, *Organization, powers and duties of health authorities: Analysis of the laws and regulations relating thereto in force in the United States* (*United States Public Health Service, Bulletin no. 54*, 1912).—*Reports of the Committee of the American Public Health Association on the Study and Prevention of Communicable Diseases* (*American Journal of Public Health*).—C. V. Chapin, *Sources and modes of infection*, p. 132.—M. J. Rosenau, *Preventing medicine and hygiene*, p. 317.

United States: National health council.—"A conference of a number of the leading national voluntary health agencies was held in Washington on December 10, 1920, at which meeting a constitution and by-laws were adopted. . . . The Council was the outgrowth of many efforts in past years to co-ordinate national voluntary health organizations, initiated by the American Public Health Association, the American Medical Association, and other agencies. These measures culminated in a special health co-ordination study carried out during the summer of 1920, under the direction of Dr. Charles J. Hartfield, Dr. Watson Rankin and Dr. Livingston Farrand, with the financial aid of the American Red Cross. This investigation was conducted by Dr. D. B. Armstrong. At a preliminary conference in Washington, at the call of Dr. Farrand, on October 18, 1920, the need for such a co-ordinating body was fully discussed, and a temporary organization perfected. The conference on December 10th approved of the following list of activities, as indicating the legitimate field in which the Council might function: 1. A special information bureau. 2. A legislative bureau. 3. The co-ordination of health activities. 4. Periodic joint conferences. 5. A statistical bureau. 6. The development of educational health material."—*National Health Council* (*Public Health Nurse*, Mar., 1921, p. 138).—"The National Health Council, organized on December 10, 1920, is composed at present [May, 1921] of ten member organizations, divided into two groups,—direct participating members, and conference or advisory members. . . . A national headquarters office has been established at . . . Washington, D. C., in addition to the cooperative office in New York. . . . The membership of the Council at present . . . is as follows: Direct Participating Members, American Public Health Association, American Red Cross, American Social Hygiene Association, Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities of North America, Council on Health and Public Instruction of the American Medical Association, National Child Health Council, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, National Organization for Public Health Nursing [see RED CROSS: American National Red Cross:

1922], National Tuberculosis Association, Conference or Advisory Member, United States Public Health Service."—*Pamphlet issued by National Committee for Mental Hygiene*, pp. 3-4.—Affiliated with the National Health Council, through the Child Health Council, are the American Child Hygiene Association, the Child Health Organization of America, and the National Child Labor Committee. "The present status of education for a public-health career is in a formative and experimental stage. . . . There is only one school separately endowed, namely, the School of Hygiene and Public Health at Johns Hopkins, which is now in the third year of its existence. Through the generosity of the Rockefeller Foundation [see ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION], another school of public health . . . is now [1922] being organized at Harvard University. . . . The Harvard School of Public Health is an outgrowth, in fact a direct continuation, of the School of Public Health of Harvard University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which was organized in 1913. . . . The University of Pennsylvania announced courses leading to a degree or certificate in public health in 1906, but the first of these awards was not made until 1912. Prior to this time (June 22, 1910), the Harvard Medical School offered the degree of doctor of public health and the first student was graduated with this degree in June, 1911. The School of Public Health of Harvard University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology was opened in September, 1913, and the first class was graduated in June, 1914. Long before any medical school offered courses or degrees in public health, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology trained men and women for careers in sanitation in its department of Biology and Public Health, under the pioneer efforts of Prof. William T. Sedgwick."—W. J. Rosenau, *Present status of education for a public-health career* (*United States Public Health Service, Bulletin no. 126*, 1922, pp. 8-9, 17-18).—"Only recently has physical education been considered as an aspect of public health. . . . But following the memorable date of 1914, and in particular since the revelations of the selective service act of 1917, physical education has been viewed in the light of national needs. As typical of the newer point of view comes the report of the commission for the study of secondary education in which health and physical education are ranked first in a statement of 'cardinal principles.' The presence of the topic on a program for public-health specialists indicates a new emphasis in public health on physical education."—J. F. Williams, *Physical education* (*United States Public Health Service, Bulletin no. 126*, 1922, p. 38).

United States: Public health service during the Civil War. See SANITARY COMMISSION AND CHRISTIAN COMMISSION.

United States: Health administration during the Spanish-American War. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-August: Cuba).

United States: Efforts to control malaria, yellow fever, and typhoid. See FLORIDA: 1888-1905; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Insect transmission of disease.

ALSO IN: R. C. Williams, *Health almanac for 1920* (*Public Health Service, Bulletin no. 68*).—*Report of the Delegation from the United States of America to the Sixth International Sanitary Conference at Montevideo, 1920*.—C. W. Eliot, *Present and future social hygiene in America* (*International Journal of Public Health*, Jan., 1921).

Yucatan.—Welfare work among women. See YUCATAN: 1911-1918.

League of Nations.—"In the field of health work the League accomplished a good deal. The Council of the League . . . [was] instrumental in bringing together the League of Red Cross Societies and the International Committee of the Red Cross in a Joint Council [see RED CROSS: 1919-1920] in order to prevent overlapping and confusion and the more effectively to conduct their work of succouring the underfed and disease-stricken populations in Central and Eastern Europe. . . . The Council . . . in May 1920 set up the temporary Epidemic Commission, a small committee attached to the Health Section of the League Secretariat, for the purpose of coöperating with the health authorities of Russia and the new states of East Europe in their campaign against epidemics. . . . As the epidemic situation . . . became worse again in the winter of 1921-22, owing to the effect of the Russian famine on the health of the population, and the consequent pressure on Russia's neighbours, the Polish Government, with the approval of the League Council and in reliance on the support of the League Health Organisation and Secretariat, summoned an All-European Sanitary Conference in Warsaw, March 20th-28th, 1922. This conference was attended by, in addition to the European members of the League, Germany, Hungary (at that time not yet a member of the League), Soviet Russia, Soviet Ukraine and Turkey. . . . In December 1921 the Health Organisation [which had been organized in September] held a conference in London on the standardisation of sera and serological tests, as the starting-point of a general inquiry undertaken conjointly with the Office International. . . . Results of the work on anti-pneumococcus, anti-meningococcus and anti-dysentery sera, as well as the sero-diagnosis of syphilis, were examined and a . . . programme of research work adopted at a second general conference held at the Pasteur Institute in Paris from November 20th to 26th. . . . At the second conference there were not only more countries represented—Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Japan, Poland, Roumania, Russia, Switzerland and the U.S.A.—but the delegations were more numerous and contained bigger men representing more weighty institutions. French, British and German medical science was particularly strongly represented. . . . [By an agreement concluded August, 1922, the Rockefeller Foundation] endows two special branches of the League's work—epidemiological intelligence and the interchange of sanitary staff—to the extent of \$30,000 a year for five years for the former and \$60,000 a year for three years for the latter. . . . On November 3rd the Health Committee, in view of the increase of sleeping-sickness and tuberculosis in Africa since the war, appointed a small expert committee from the three countries—Belgium, France, Great Britain—having colonial interests in tropical Africa. . . . On November 3rd the Health Committee, at the suggestion of its Japanese member and with the approval of the governments concerned, sent a small mission of two members on a six-months' tour of investigation of the chief ports in the Far East, for the purpose of studying the different methods in force for sanitary, anti-epidemic and quarantine regulation, with particular attention to the necessity for preventing the spread of diseases by seaborne traffic."—R. Williams, *League of Nations to-day*, pp. 87-89, 90, 91-92, 95.

See also HOUSING; MEDICAL SCIENCE; PLAGUE.

Also IN: E. Chadwick, *Health of nations*.—G. Newman, *Health of the state*.

PUBLIC INFORMATION, Committee on, United States. See COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC INFORMATION.

PUBLIC LAND, Rome. See AGER PUBLICUS.

PUBLIC LANDS: Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1904-1912.

United States. See U.S.A.: 1865-1872; 1865-1885; 1866-1877; 1908 (April-November); AGRICULTURE: Modern: United States: 1776-1833; CONSERVATION OF NATIONAL RESOURCES: United States: 1847-1901; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Land grant colleges.

PUBLIC PEACE. See LANDFRIEDE.

PUBLIC ROADS, Office of. See AGRICULTURE, DEPARTMENT OF, UNITED STATES.

PUBLIC SAFETY, Committee of. See FRANCE: 1793 (June-October); 1794 (June-July): French victory at Fleurus.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS ACT (1866). See NEW SOUTH WALES: 1855-1893.

PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION. See NEW YORK: 1921.

PUBLIC USE. See EMINENT DOMAIN: Meaning of "Public Use."

PUBLIC UTILITIES: Municipal ownership of. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: European municipal ownership, particularly British; German municipal ownership; Spread of municipal ownership in the United States.

Regulation of. See DUE PROCESS OF LAW: Regulation of public utilities.

PUBLIC WEAL, League of the. See FRANCE: 1453-1461; 1461-1468.

PUBLICIANI, farmers of the taxes, among the Romans. See VECTIGAL.

PUBLICIANI. See ALBIGENSES; PAULICIANS.

PUBLICUM, Roman term for general revenue. See VECTIGAL.

PUBLILIAN LAW OF VOLERO (471 B.C.).

See ROME: Republic: B.C. 472-471.

PUBLILIAN LAWS (339 B.C.). See ROME: Republic: B.C. 340.

PUCCIANTI, Giuseppe (1831-), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1860-1914.

PUCCHINI, Giacomo (1858-), Italian operatic composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1842-1921: Modern Italian school.

PUCHNER, Anton von (1779-1851), Austrian general. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

PUEBLA, city of northern Mexico, capital of a state of the same name, sixty-three miles south-east of Mexico City. The population was 96,121 in 1921.

1847.—Captured by Americans. See MEXICO: 1847 (March-September).

1857.—Revolt suppressed. See MEXICO: 1848-1861.

1862.—Taken by the French. See MEXICO: 1861-1867.

PUEBLO.—The Spanish word pueblo, meaning town, village, or the inhabitants thereof, has acquired a special signification as applied; first, to the sedentary or village Indians of New Mexico and Arizona, and then to the singular villages of communal houses which they inhabit.—Based on D. G. Brinton, *American race*, p. 113.—"The purely civic colonies of California were called pueblos to distinguish them from missions or presidios. The term pueblo, in its most extended meaning, may embrace towns of every description, from a hamlet to a city. . . . However, in its spe-

cial significance, a pueblo means a corporate town."—F. W. Blackmar, *Spanish institutions of the Southwest*, ch. 8.—See also PUEBLOS.

PUEBLO LOOM.—See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes.

PUEBLOS.—"The non-nomadic semi-civilized town and agricultural peoples of New Mexico and Arizona . . . I call the Pueblos, or Townspeople, from pueblo, town, population, people, a name given by the Spaniards to such inhabitants of this region as were found, when first discovered, permanently located in comparatively well-built towns. Strictly speaking, the term Pueblos applies only to the villagers settled along the banks of the Rio Grande del Norte and its tributaries between latitudes 34° 45' and 36° 30', and although the name is employed as a general appellation for this division, it will be used, for the most part, only in its narrower sense. In this division, besides the before mentioned Pueblos proper, are embraced the Moquis, or villagers of eastern Arizona, and the non-nomadic agricultural nations of the lower Gila river,—the Pimas, Maricopas, Papagos, and cognate tribes. The country of the Townspeople, if we may credit Lieutenant Simpson, is one of 'almost universal barrenness,' yet interspersed with fertile spots; that of the agricultural nations, though dry, is more generally productive. The fame of this so-called civilization reached Mexico at an early day . . . in exaggerated rumors of great cities to the north, which prompted the expeditions of Marco de Niza in 1539, of Coronado in 1540, and of Espejo in 1586 [1583]. These adventurers visited the north in quest of the fabulous kingdoms of Quivira, Tontontecac, Marata and others, in which great riches were said to exist. The name of Quivira was afterwards applied by them to one or more of the pueblo cities. The name Cibola, from 'Cibolo,' Mexican bull, 'bos bison,' or wild ox of New Mexico, where the Spaniards first encountered buffalo, was given to seven of the towns which were afterwards known as the Seven Cities of Cibola. But most of the villages known at the present day were mentioned in the reports of the early expeditions by their present names. . . . The towns of the Pueblos are essentially unique, and are the dominant feature of these aboriginals. Some of them are situated in valleys, others on mesas; sometimes they are planted on elevations almost inaccessible, reached only by artificial grades, or by steps cut in the solid rock. Some of the towns are of an elliptical shape, while others are square, a town being frequently but a block of buildings. Thus a Pueblo consists of one or more squares, each enclosed by three or four buildings of from 300 to 400 feet in length, and about 150 feet in width at the base, and from two to seven stories of from eight to nine feet each in height. . . . The stories are built in a series of gradations or retreating surfaces, decreasing in size as they rise, thus forming a succession of terraces. In some of the towns these terraces are on both sides of the building; in others they face only towards the outside; while again in others they are on the inside. These terraces are about six feet wide, and extend around the three or four sides of the square, forming a walk for the occupants of the story resting upon it, and a roof for the story beneath; so with the stories above. As there is no inner communication with one another, the only means of mounting to them is by ladders which stand at convenient distances along the several rows of terraces, and they may be drawn up at pleasure, thus cutting off all unwelcome intrusion. The outside walls of one or more of the lower stories are entirely solid, having no openings

of any kind, with the exception of, in some towns, a few loopholes. . . . To enter the rooms on the ground floor from the outside, one must mount the ladder to the first balcony or terrace, then descend through a trap door in the floor by another ladder on the inside. . . . The several stories of these huge structures are divided into multitudinous compartments of greater or less size, which are apportioned to the several families of the tribe."—H. H. Bancroft, *Native races of the Pacific states*, v. 1, ch. 5.—"There can be no doubt that Cibola is to be looked for in New Mexico. . . . We cannot . . . refuse to adopt the views of General Simpson and of Mr. W. W. H. Davis, and to look at the Pueblo of Zuñi as occupying, if not the actual site, at least one of the sites within the tribal area of the Seven Cities of Cibola. Nor can we refuse to identify Tusayan with the Moqui district, and Acuco with Acoma."—A. F. Bandelier, *Historical introduction to studies among the sedentary Indians of New Mexico* (Papers of the Archaeological Institute of America: American series, v. 1).

1605-1672.—Attitude toward the Spanish settlers in New Mexico. See NEW MEXICO: 1605-1729.

1680.—Massacre of Spaniards. See NEW MEXICO: 1679-1800.

1920.—Troubles with Americans in New Mexico. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1920: Troubles in New Mexico.

See also AMERICA: Prehistoric; APACHE GROUP; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southwest area; KERESAN FAMILY; PIMAN FAMILY.

ALSO IN: J. H. Simpson, *March of Coronado*.—L. H. Morgan, *Houses and house-life of the American aborigines* (Contributions to North American Ethnology, v. 4, ch. 6).—F. H. Cushing, *My adventures in Zuñi* (Century Magazine, v. 3-4).—Idem, *Fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology*, 1882-1883, pp. 473-480.—F. W. Blackmar, *Spanish institutions of the Southwest*, ch. 10.

PUELCHIAN INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area.

PUERTO CAVELLO, port in Venezuela, on the Caribbean sea. The Spanish forces capitulated here, 1823, in the South American colonies' war for independence. See COLOMBIA: 1819-1830.

PUERTO DE BAÑOS, Battle of. See SPAIN: 1809 (August-November).

PUFENDORF, Samuel (1632-1694), German jurist and historian. See HISTORY: 24.

PUGACHEV, Emelyan Ivanovich (c. 1741-1775), Cossack soldier. Pretender to the Russian throne and leader of a rebellion, 1773-1775. See RUSSIA: 1767-1775.

PUGACHEVSHCHINA, name given to Pugachev's rebellion. See RUSSIA: 1767-1775.

PUGET SOUND AGRICULTURAL COMPANY: Organized in 1838. See OREGON: 1749-1859.

PUGET SOUND TREATY. See U.S.A.: 1920 (July).

PUJUNAN FAMILY.—"The following tribes were placed in this group by Latham: Pujuni, Secumne, Tsamak of Hale, and the Cushna of Schoolcraft. The name adopted for the family is the name of a tribe given by Hale. This was one of the two races into which, upon the information of Captain Sutter, as derived by Mr. Dana, all the Sacramento tribes were believed to be divided. 'These races resembled one another in every respect but language.' . . . The tribes of this family have been carefully studied by Powers, to whom we are indebted for most all we know of their distribution.

They occupied the eastern bank of the Sacramento in California, beginning some 80 or 100 miles from its mouth, and extended northward to within a short distance of Pit River."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology*, pp. 90-100.

PULASKI, Casimir, Count (1748-1770), Polish soldier. Commander-in-chief of the Polish forces in their struggle against Russia; exiled in 1772; came to America and fought under Washington in the American Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1777 (January-December).

PULASKI, Fort, commanding the sea approach to Savannah, Georgia.

1861.—Seized by Secessionists. See U.S.A.: 1860-1861 (December-February).

1862 (February-April).—Siege and capture by Union forces. See U.S.A.: 1862 (February-April: Georgia-Florida).

PULCHERIA, Saint (c. 399-453), Roman empress (Eastern), 414-446, 450-453. Co-ruler with Theodosius until 440. See BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 423-455; ROME: Empire: 400-518.

PULCI, Luigi (c. 1431-c. 1487), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1505.

PULIGNANO, medieval Neapolitan city. See VENICE: 1508-1509.

PULILIA. See PARILIA.

PULITZER, Joseph (1847-1911), American journalist and philanthropist. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

PULLANI.—The descendants of the first Crusaders who remained in the East and married Asiatic women are represented as having been a very despicable half-breed race. They were called the Pullani. Professor Palmer suggests a derivation of the name from "fulani," anybody. Mr. Keightley, on the contrary, states that before the crusading colonists overcame their prejudice against Oriental wives, women were brought to them from Apulia, in Italy. Whence the name Pullani.—Based on W. Besant and E. H. Palmer, *Jerusalem*, ch. 7.

PULLMAN DECISION, rendered by the Supreme Court of Illinois, early in 1899, depriving the Pullman Car Company of the legal right to own and conduct the affairs of the town of Pullman, Illinois. The town was later incorporated with Chicago.

PULLMAN STRIKE (1894). See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1880-1900; U.S.A.: 1894: Strike at Pullman.

PULPITO PASS, Battle at. See MEXICO: 1920 (April-May).

PULTNEY ESTATE. See NEW YORK: 1786-1799.

PULTOVA. See POLTAVA.

PULTUSK, town of Poland, about thirty-five miles north of Warsaw.

1703.—Battle between Swedes and Saxons. See SWEDEN: 1701-1707.

1806.—Battle between French and Russians. See GERMANY: 1806-1807.

1915.—Battle between Germans and Russians. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: h, 1.

PUMACAGUA, Mateo Garcia (1738-1815), Peruvian Indian general. Leader of a revolt against the Spaniards, 1814-1815. See PERU: 1500-1816.

PUMBADITHA, School of, medieval organization, influential in the preservation of Jewish unity. See JEWS: 7th century.

PUN, Land of, ancient Egyptian name for southwestern Arabia. See ARABIA: Ancient succession and fusion of races.

PUNA. See POONA.

PUNCAS, Poncas, or Ponkas, North American Indian tribe. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; PAWNEE FAMILY; SIOUAN FAMILY.

PUNCH, district of the native state of Kashmir, India. See KASHMIR.

PUNIC.—The adjective Punicus, derived from the name of the Phœnicians, was used by the Romans in a sense which commonly signified "Carthaginian,"—the Carthaginians being of Phœnician origin. Hence "Punic Wars," "Punic faith," etc., the phrase "Punic faith" being an imputation of faithlessness and treachery.

PUNIC WARS: First (264-241 B.C.).—When Pyrrhus quitted Italy he is said to have exclaimed, "How fair a battle-field are we leaving to the Romans and Carthaginians." He may easily have had sagacity to foresee the deadly struggle which Rome and Carthage would soon be engaged in, and he might as easily have predicted, too, that the beginning of it would be in Sicily. Rome had just settled her supremacy in the whole Italian peninsula; she was sure to covet next the rich island that lies so near to it. In fact, there was bred quickly in the Roman mind such an eagerness to cross the narrow strait that it waited only for the slenderest excuse. A poor pretext was found in the year 264 B.C. and it was so despicably poor that the proud Roman senators turned over to the popular assembly of the Comitia the responsibility of accepting it. There came to Rome from Messene, in Sicily—or Messina, as the Romans called the city—an appeal. It did not come from the citizens of Messene, but from a band of freebooters who had got possession of the town. These were mercenaries from Campania (lately made Roman territory by the Samnite conquest) who had been in the pay of Agathocles of Syracuse. Disbanded on that tyrant's death, they had treacherously seized Messene, slain most of the male inhabitants, taken to themselves the women, and settled down to a career of piracy and robbery, assuming the name of Mamertini,—children of Mamers, or Mars. Of course, all Sicily, both Greek and Carthaginian, was roused against them by the outrages they committed. Being hard pressed, the Mamertines invoked, as Italians, the protection of Rome; although one party among them appears to have preferred an arrangement of terms with the Carthaginians. The Roman senate, being ashamed to extend a friendly hand to the Mamertine cutthroats, but not having virtue enough to decline an opportunity for fresh conquests, referred the question to the people at large. The popular vote sent an army into Sicily, and Messene, then besieged by Hiero of Syracuse on one side and by a Carthaginian army on the other, was relieved of both. The Romans thereon proceeded, in two aggressive campaigns, against Syracusans and Carthaginians alike, until Hiero bought peace with them, at a heavy cost, and became their half-subject ally for the remainder of his life. The war with the Carthaginians was but just commenced. Its first stunning blow was struck at Agrigentum, the splendid city of Phalaris, which the Carthaginians had destroyed, 405 B.C., which Timoleon had rebuilt, and which one of the Hannibals ("son of Gisco") now seized upon for his stronghold. In a great battle fought under the walls of Agrigentum, 262 B.C., Hannibal lost the city and all but a small remnant of his army. But the successes of the Romans on land were worth little to them while the Carthaginians commanded the sea. Hence they resolved to create a fleet, and are said to have built a hundred ships of the quinquereme order and twenty triremes



HANNIBAL CROSSING THE RHINE

(After painting by Henri Motte)

within sixty days, while rowers for them were trained by an imitative exercise on land. The first squadron of this improvised navy was trapped at Lipara and lost; the remainder was successful in its first encounter with the enemy. But where naval warfare depended on good seamanship the Romans were no match for the Carthaginians. They contrived therefore a machine for their ships, called the *corvus*, or raven, by which, running straight on the opposing vessel, they were able to grasp it by the throat, so to speak, and force fighting at close quarters. That accomplished, they were tolerably sure of victory. With their *corvus* they half annihilated the Carthaginian fleet in a great sea-fight at Myla, in 260, and got so much mastery of the sea that they were able to attack their Punic foes even in the island of Sardinia, but without much result. In 257 B.C. another naval battle of doubtful issue was fought at Tyn-daris, and the following year, in the great battle of Ecnomus, the naval power of the Carthaginians, for the time being, was utterly crushed. Then followed the invasion of Carthaginian territory by Regulus, his complete successes at first, his insolent proposal of hard terms, and the tremendous defeat which overwhelmed him at Adis a little later, when he, himself, was taken prisoner. The miserable remnant of the Roman army which held its ground at Clypea on the African coast was rescued the next year, 255 B.C., by a new fleet, but only to be destroyed on the voyage homeward, with 260 ships, in a great storm on the south coast of Sicily. Then Carthaginians reappeared in Sicily and the war in that unhappy island was resumed. In 254 the Romans took the strong fortified city of Panormus. In 253, having built and equipped another fleet, they were robbed of it again by a storm at sea, and the Carthaginians gained ground and strength in Sicily. In 251 the Roman consul, Cæcilius Metellus, drove them back from the wall of Panormus and inflicted on them so discouraging a defeat, that they sent Regulus, their prisoner, on parole, with an embassy, to solicit peace at Rome. How Regulus advised his countrymen against peace, and how he returned to Carthage to meet a cruel death—the traditional story is familiar to all readers, but modern criticism throws doubt upon it. In 250 B.C. the Romans undertook the siege of Lilybæum, which, with the neighbouring port of Drepana, were the only strongholds left to the Carthaginians. The siege then commenced was one of the most protracted in history, for when the First Punic War ended, nine years later, Lilybæum was still resisting, and the Romans only acquired it with all the rest of Sicily, under the terms of the treaty of peace. Meantime the Carthaginians won a bloody naval victory at Drepana (249 B.C.) over the Roman fleet, and the latter, in the same year, had a third fleet destroyed on the coast by relentless storms. In the year 247 that Carthaginian command in Sicily was given to the great Hamilcar, surnamed Barca, who was the father of a yet greater man, the Hannibal who afterwards brought Rome very near to destruction. Hamilcar Barca, having only a few mutinous mercenary soldiers at his command, and almost unsupported by the authorities at Carthage, established himself, first, on the rocky height of Mount Ercte, or Hercte, near Panormus, and afterwards on Mount Eryx, and harassed the Romans for six years. The end came at last as the consequence of a decisive naval victory near the Ægæan isles, which the Romans achieved, with a newly built fleet, in March, 241 B.C. The Carthaginians, discouraged, proposed peace, and purchased it by evacuating Sicily and

paying a heavy war indemnity. Thus Rome acquired Sicily, but the wealth and civilization of the great island had been ruined beyond recovery.—R. B. Smith, *Carthage and the Carthaginians*, ch. 4-7.—See also *ROME: Republic*: B.C. 264-241.

ALSO IN: W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 3.—Polybius, *Histories*, bk. 1.—A. J. Church, *Story of Carthage*, pt. 4, ch. 1-3.

Second (218-201 B.C.).—Between the First Punic War and the Second there was an interval of twenty-three years. Carthage, meantime, had been brought very near to destruction by the Revolt of the Mercenaries (see *CARTHAGE*: B.C. 241-238) and had been saved by the capable energy of Hamilcar Barca. Then the selfish faction which hated Hamilcar had regained power in the Punic capital, and the Barcine patriot could do no more than obtain command of an army which he led, on his own responsibility, into Spain, 237 B.C. The Carthaginians had inherited from the Phœnicians a considerable commerce with Spain, but do not seem to have organized a control of the country until Hamilcar took the task in hand. Partly by pacific influences and partly by force, he established a rule, rather personal than Carthaginian, which extended over nearly all southern Spain. With the wealth that he drew from its gold and silver mines he maintained his army and bought or bribed at Carthage the independence he needed for the carrying out of his plans. He had aimed from the first, no doubt, at organizing resources with which to make war on Rome. Hamilcar was killed in battle, 228 B.C., and his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, who succeeded him, lived only seven years more. Then Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, in his twenty-sixth year, was chosen to the command in Spain. He waited two years, for the settling of his authority and for making all preparations complete, and then he threw down a challenge to the Romans for the war which he had sworn to his father that he would make the one purpose of his life. The provocation of war was the taking of the city of Saguntum, a Greek colony on the Spanish coast, which the Romans had formed an alliance with. It was taken by Hannibal after a siege of eight months and after most of the inhabitants had destroyed themselves with their wealth. When Rome declared war it was with the expectation, no doubt, that Spain and Africa would be the battle grounds. But Hannibal did not wait for her attack. He led his Spanish army straight to Italy, in the early summer of 218 B.C., skirting the Pyrenees and crossing the Alps. The story of his passage of the Alps is familiar to every reader. [See *ALPS*: As barriers.] The difficulties he encountered were so terrible and the losses sustained so great that Hannibal descended into Italy with only 20,000 foot and 6,000 horse, out of 50,000 of the one and 9,000 of the other which he had led through Gaul. He received some reinforcement and coöperation from the Cisalpine Gauls, but their strength had been broken by recent wars with Rome and they were not efficient allies. In the first encounter of the Romans with the dread invader, on the Ticinus, they were beaten, but not seriously. In the next, on the Trebia, where Scipio, the consul, made a determined stand, they sustained an overwhelming defeat. This ended the campaign of 218 B.C. Hannibal wintered in Cisalpine Gaul and passed the Apennines the following spring into Etruria, stealing a march on the Roman army, under the popular consul Flaminius, which was watching to intercept him. The latter pursued and was caught in ambush at Lake Trasimene, where Flaminius and 15,000 of his men were slain, while most of the survivors of

the fatal field were taken prisoners and made slaves. Rome then seemed open to the Carthaginian, but he knew, without doubt, that his force was not strong enough for the besieging of the city, and he made no attempt. What he aimed at was the isolating of Rome and the arraying of Italy against her, in a great and powerfully handled combination of the jealousies and animosities which he knew to exist. He led his troops northward again, after the victory of Lake Trasimene, across the mountains to the Adriatic coast, and rested them during the summer. When cooler weather came he moved southward along the coast into Apulia. The Romans meantime had chosen a dictator, Q. Fabius Maximus, a cautious man, whose plan of campaign was to watch and harass and wear out the enemy, without risking a battle. It was a policy which earned for him the name of "The Cunctator," or Lingerer. The Roman people were discontented with it, and next year 216 B.C. they elected for one of the consuls a certain Varro, who had been one of the mouth-pieces of their discontent. In opposition to his colleague, Æmilius Paullus, Varro soon forced a battle with Hannibal at Cannæ, in Apulia, and brought upon his countrymen the most awful disaster in war that they ever knew. Nearly 50,000 Roman citizens were left dead on the field, including eighty senators, and half the young nobility of the state. From the spoils of the field Hannibal was said to have sent three bushels of golden rings to Carthage, stripped from the fingers of Roman knights. Rome reeled under the blow, and yet haughtily refused to ransom the 20,000 prisoners in Hannibal's hands, while she met the discomfited Varro with proud thanks, because "he had not despaired of the Republic." Capua now opened its gates to Hannibal and became the headquarters of his operations. The people of southern Italy declared generally in his favor; but he had reached and passed, nevertheless, the crowning point of his success. He received no effective help from Carthage; nor from his brother in Spain, who was defeated by the elder Scipios, that same year (216 B.C.) at Ibera, just as he had prepared to lead a fresh army into Italy. On the other hand, the energies of the Romans had risen with every disaster. Their Latin subjects continued faithful to them; but they lost at this time an important ally in Sicily, by the death of the aged Hiero of Syracuse, and the Carthaginians succeeded in raising most of the island against them. The war in Sicily now became for a time more important than that in Italy, and the consul Marcellus, the most vigorous of the Roman generals, was sent to conduct it. His chief object was the taking of Syracuse and the great city sustained another of the many dreadful sieges which it was her fate to endure. The siege was prolonged for two years, and chiefly by the science and the military inventions of the famous mathematician, Archimedes. When the Romans entered Syracuse at last, 212 B.C., it was to pillage and slay without restraint, and Archimedes was one of the thousands cut down by their swords. Meantime, in Italy, Tarentum had been betrayed to Hannibal, but the Romans still held the citadel of the town. They had gained so much strength in the field that they were now able to lay siege to Capua and Hannibal was powerless to relieve it. He attempted a diversion by marching on Rome, but the threat proved idle and Capua was left to its fate. The city surrendered soon after (211 B.C.) and the merciless conquerors only spared it for a new population. For three or four years after this the war in Italy was one of minor successes and reverses on both sides, but Hannibal

lost steadily in prestige and strength. In Spain, Hannibal's brother, Hasdrubal, had opportunely beaten and slain (212 B.C.) both the elder Scipios; but another and greater Scipio, P. Cornelius, son of Publius, had taken the field and was sweeping the Carthaginians from the peninsula. Yet, despite Scipio's capture of New Carthage and his victories, at Bæcula, and elsewhere, Hasdrubal contrived, in some unexplained way, in the year 208 B.C., to cross the Pyrenees into Gaul and to recruit reinforcements there for a movement on Italy. The next spring he passed the Alps and brought his army safely into Cisalpine Gaul; but his dispatches to Hannibal fell into the hands of the Romans and revealed his plans. The swift energy of one of the consuls, C. Claudius Nero, brought about a marvellous concentration of Roman forces to meet him, and he and his army perished together in an awful battle fought on the banks of the Metaurus, in Umbria. The last hopes of Hannibal perished with them; but he held his ground in the extreme south of Italy and no Roman general dared try to dislodge him. When Scipio returned next year (206 B.C.) and reported the complete conquest of Spain, he was chosen consul with the understanding that he would carry the war into Africa, though the senate stood half opposed. He did so in the early months of the year 204 crossing from Sicily with a comparatively small armament and laying siege to Utica. That year he accomplished nothing, but during the next winter he struck a terrible blow, surprising and burning the camps of the Carthaginians and their Numidian allies and slaughtering 40,000 of their number. This success was soon followed by another, on the Great Plains, which lie seventy or eighty miles to the southwest of Carthage. The Numidian king, Syphax, was now driven from his throne and the kingdom delivered over to an outlawed prince, Massinissa, who became, thenceforth, the most useful and unscrupulous of allies to the Romans. Now pushed to despair, the Carthaginians summoned Hannibal to their rescue. He abandoned Italy at the call and returned to see his own land for the first time since as a boy he left it with his father. But even his genius could not save Carthage with the means at his command. The long war was ended in October of the year 202 B.C. by the battle which is called the battle of Zama, though it was fought at some distance west of that place. The Carthaginian army was routed utterly, and Hannibal himself persuaded his countrymen to accept a peace which stripped them of their ships and their trade, their possessions in Spain and all the islands, and their power over the Numidian states, besides wringing from them a war indemnity of many millions. On those hard terms, Carthage was suffered to exist a few years longer.—Based on R. B. Smith, *Carthage and the Carthaginians*.—See also **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 218-202.

ALSO IN: T. Arnold, *History of Rome*, ch. 43-47.—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, ch. 31-34.—T. A. Dodge, *Hannibal*, ch. 11-39.—R. B. Smith, *Rome and Carthage*.

Third (B.C. 149-146). See **CARTHAGE**: B. C. 146; **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 149-146.

PUNJAB, Punjaub, or Panjab.—"Everything has a meaning in India, and the Panjab is only another name for the Five Rivers which make the historic Indus. They rise far back among the western Himalayas, bring down their waters from glaciers twenty-five miles in length, and peaks 26,000 feet high, and hurl their mighty torrent into one great current, which is thrown at last into the Arabian Sea. It is a fertile region,

not less so than the Valley of the Ganges. This Panjab is the open door, the only one by which the European of earlier days was able to descend upon the plains of India for conquest and a new home. . . . In the Panjab every foot of the land is a romance. No one knows how many armies have shivered in the winds of the hills of Afghanistan, and then pounced down through the Khaibar Pass into India, and overspread the country, until the people could rise and destroy the stranger within the gates. Whenever a European invader of Asia has reached well into the continent, his dream has always been India. That country has ever been, and still is, the pearl of all the Orient. Its perfect sky in winter, its plenteous rains in summer, its immense rivers, its boundless stores of wealth, and its enduring industries, which know no change, have made it the dream of every great conqueror."—J. F. Hurst, *Indika*, ch. 75.—"In form, the country is a great triangle, its base resting on the Himalayan chain and Cashmere, and its apex directed due south-west. . . . The five streams which confer its name, counting them from north to south, are the Upper Indus, the Jhelum, the Chenab, the Ravee and the Sutlej, the Indus and Sutlej constituting respectively the western and eastern boundary. . . . The four divisions enclosed by the five convergent streams are called doabs—lands of two waters. . . . Besides the territory thus delineated, the Punjab of the Sikhs included Cashmere, the Jummoo territory to Spiti and Tibet, the trans-Indus frontier and the Hazara highlands in the west; and to the east the Jullundhur Doab with Kangra and Noorpoor. These last, with the frontier, are better known as the cis- and trans-Sutlej states."—E. Arnold, *Marquis of Dalhousie's administration of British India*, v. 1, ch. 2.—See also INDIA: Map.—The Sikhs established their supremacy in the Punjab in the eighteenth century, and became a formidable power, under the famous Runjet Singh, in the early part of the nineteenth century. (See SIKHS.) The English conquest of the Sikhs and annexation of the Punjab to British India took place in 1849.—See also INDIA: 1845-1849.

B. C. 327.—Conquest by Alexander the Great. See INDIA: B. C. 327-312.

1854.—Occupied by the British. See AFGHANISTAN: 1842-1869.

1905.—Earthquake. See INDIA: 1905.

1907.—Nationalist uprising. See INDIA: 1905-1910.

1919.—Revolt against the British. See INDIA: 1919.

1921.—Government. See INDIA: 1921.

PUNT, Land of.—"Under the name of Punt, the old inhabitants of Kemi [ancient Egypt] meant a distant land, washed by the great ocean, full of valleys and hills, abounding in ebony and other rich woods, in incense, balsam, precious metals, and costly stones; rich also in beasts, as cameloopards, hunting leopards, panthers, dog-headed apes, and long-tailed monkeys. . . . Such was the Ophir of the Egyptians, without doubt the present coast of the Somaui land in sight of Arabia, but separated from it by the sea. According to an old obscure tradition, the land of Punt was the original seat of the gods. From Punt the holy ones had travelled to the Nile valley, at their head Amon, Horus, Hathor."—H. Brugsch Bey, *History of Egypt under the Pharaohs*, ch. 8.—See also COMMERCE: Ancient: B. C. 2500.

PUPIN, Michael Idvorsky (1858-), American physicist and inventor, born in Hungary. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony, Telephone: 1900.

PURCELL, Henry (1658-1695), English musician and composer. Organist at Westminster Abbey, 1680; at Chapel Royal, 1681. See MUSIC: Modern: 1660-1694; 1750-1870.

PURCHASE OF COMMISSIONS, practice allowing rich men to buy commissions and promotion in the army. It was abolished in England in 1871. See ENGLAND: 1871.

PURCHASING WRITS. See COMMON LAW: 1066-1215.

PURE FOOD LEGISLATION. See PUBLIC HEALTH: Definition; United States; Origin of public health service; AGRICULTURE, DEPARTMENT OF, UNITED STATES.

PURITANS: In distinction from Independents, or Separatists.—"When, in 1603, James I. became king of England, he found his Protestant subjects divided into three classes,—Conformists, or High Ritualists; Nonconformists, or Broad-Church Puritans; and Separatists, popularly called Brownists [and subsequently called Independents. (See INDEPENDENTS, OR SEPARATISTS: Their origin and opinions.)] The Conformists and the Puritans both adhered to the Church of England, and were struggling for its control. . . . The Puritans objected to some of the ceremonies of the Church, such as the ring in marriage, the sign of the cross in baptism, the promises of god-parents, the showy vestments, bowing in the creed, receiving evil-livers to the communion, repetitions, and to kneeling at communion as if still adoring the Host, instead of assuming an ordinary attitude as did the apostles at the Last Supper. The majority of the lower clergy and of the middle classes are said to have favored Puritanism. . . . Dr. Neal says that the Puritan body took form in 1564, and dissolved in 1644. During that term of eighty years the Puritans were ever 'in and out of the Church of England'; as Dr. Prince says in his *Annals* (1736), those who left the Episcopal Church 'lost the name of Puritans and received that of the Separatists.' . . . The Separatists, unlike the Puritans, had no connection with the National Church, and the more rigid of them even denied that Church to be scriptural, or its ministrations to be valid. . . . The Pilgrim Fathers, the founders of our Plymouth, the pioneer colony of New England, were not Puritans. They never were called by that name, either by themselves or their contemporaries. They were Separatists, slightly called Brownists, and in time became known as Independents or Congregationalists. As Separatists they were oppressed and maligned by the Puritans. They did not restrict voting or office-holding to their church-members. They heartily welcomed to their little State all men of other sects, or of no sects, who adhered to the essentials of Christianity and were ready to conform to the local laws and customs. . . . Though their faith was positive and strong, they laid down no formal creed."—J. A. Goodwin, *Pilgrim republic*, ch. 2, 1.—"The reader of this history must have remarked that 'Puritan' and 'Separatist' were by no means convertible terms; that, in point of fact, they very often indicated hostile parties, pitted against each other in bitter controversies. And the inquiry may have arisen—How is this? Were not the Separatists all Puritans? . . . The term 'Puritan' was originally applied to all in the church of England who desired further reformation—a great conformity of church government and worship to primitive and apostolic usages. But after awhile the term became restricted in its application to those who retained their respect for the church of England, and their connection with it, notwithstanding its acknowledged corruptions; in distinction from those who had

been brought to abandon both their respect for that church and their connection with it, under the conviction that it was hopelessly corrupt, and could never be reformed. The Separatists, then, were indeed all Puritans, and of the most thorough and uncompromising kind. They were the very essence—the oil of Puritanism. But the Puritans were by no means all Separatists; though they agreed with them in doctrinal faith, being all thoroughly Calvinistic in their faith.”—G. Punchard, *History of Congregationalism*, v. 3, appendix, note F.—See also CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 1534-1563; ENGLAND: 1558-1588.

ALSO IN: G. E. Ellis, *Puritan age and rule in the Colony of Massachusetts Bay*, ch. 3.—D. Campbell, *Puritan in Holland, England and America*, v. 2, ch. 16.

1604.—Hampton Court conference with James I. See ENGLAND: 1604.

1617-1620.—Proposal to emigrate to New England. See INDEPENDENTS, OR SEPARATISTS: 1612-1620.

1620-1660.—Close relations between English and American Puritans.—Social and political character of Puritan ideals.—“In order to get a realistic view of them [the Puritans] we must think of them as belonging to the history of England in one of the most stirring periods, and not merely to the prenatal history of the United States. They were seventeenth-century Englishmen and not faint foreshadowings of eighteenth-century Americans. . . . The early New-Englander was first of all an Englishman. He had come to the New World impelled by ideas which he held in common with thousands of his countrymen. He was enthusiastically devoted to a great revolutionary cause which, beginning with a few obscure people, gathered strength until at last it swept away the long-established order. In the early part of the struggle New England was on the fighting-line. It was the Puritan revolution which culminated in the establishment of the English Commonwealth with which these men were related. Here they found the realization of their ideals. . . . The fundamental interest [of the Puritans] was not in the individual man, but in a new social order. He did not make our distinction between church and state. Religion was to him a public matter. That every state should have a religion was something on which all parties in that day were agreed. But the Puritan contention was that the religion of the state should not be formal, but real. The nation should be held to the same strict rules of conscience which bound the private man. There was no excuse for public unrighteousness. Milton was setting forth a political creed when he wrote, ‘A Commonwealth ought to be a huge Christian parsonage, one mighty growth and stature of an honest man, as compact of virtue as of body.’ [See CHRISTIANITY: 17th-20th centuries.] When the passengers of the *Mayflower* formed themselves into a body politic ‘for the glory of God and the advancement of the Christian religion,’ they were clearly expressing their purpose. Civil government was not an end in itself: it was a means for advancing true religion. An early New England minister asks the question, ‘What is our errand in the wilderness?’ His answer is that it is not religion as a private interest. Personal religion could be practised anywhere. New England’s design in the vast undertaking is to set up the Kingdom of Christ in whole communities. This Kingdom must be set up in a public and openly prevailing manner. It is in the commonwealth that it must be established. . . . It was a purpose which was at once political and religious. . . .

Years before, while still in England, they had, ‘as the Lords free people, joyned themselves (by a covenant of the Lord) into a church estate, in the fellowship of the gospell, to walke in all his wayes made known unto them or to be made known unto them, according to their best endeavors, whatsoever it would cost them, the Lord assisting them.’ But their church had been a voluntary organization without power to determine community life. They wanted to do what Calvin had done in Geneva, and Knox in Scotland, to give full political expression to their religious convictions. It was because he had suspected they were at heart revolutionists of a dangerous type that King James had driven them out of England. While he was still only king in Scotland he had learned that Calvinism was something more than a system of theology; it involved a theory that was hostile to the divine right of kings to rule. . . . In Germany the Reformation had first excited the hopes of the people and then disappointed them. The peasants’ revolt, with its threat of a great social revolution, had frightened Luther. Henceforth he put his trust in princes and supported their claims to authority. But in France the Reformation took a different turn. A young Frenchman, John Calvin, issued a book on ‘The Institutes of the Christian Religion’ which had an effect on the revolutionary forces of the seventeenth century like that which the works of Rousseau had on the revolution of the eighteenth century. Both men began with the statement of abstract ideas, but these abstractions were taken up by thousands of their contemporaries and applied to the political problems of the day. It is interesting that both these men found their home in the free city of Geneva. Calvin’s entrance into Geneva was dramatic, and his career a stormy one. With all the self-confidence of youth he ‘took over’ the government of the city. The doctrine of the direct sovereignty of God was applied to municipal affairs. Geneva was ruled in the name of the Invisible King. The Scotch Calvinist Andrew Melville confronted the absolutism of King James with a doctrine which was equally uncompromising: ‘There are two kings in Scotland, King James and Jesus Christ whose subject King James is.’ . . . It was in 1604, in the famous conference at Hampton Court, that James in pithy sentences declared that he was prepared to fight Puritans, Presbyterians, and Separatists to the death. They might differ among themselves, but they were all one to him. They all agreed in undermining the royal authority. [See ENGLAND: 1604.] . . . We have as our inheritance, which we share with our British brethren, the whole Puritan movement on both sides of the Atlantic. . . . The man of the Pilgrim company best beloved and longest remembered was the pastor, John Robinson, who crossed the sea only in spirit. Hampden and Pym and Eliot and Baxter and Milton and Cromwell have left a deeper impress upon America than all the Mathers.”—S. M. Crothers, *Pilgrims and their contemporaries* (*Century Magazine*, May, 1920).

1629.—Incorporation of the governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1623-1629; Dorchester company.

1629-1630.—Exodus to Massachusetts bay. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1623-1629; 1629-1630; 1630.

1630-1641.—Attempt to found a settlement at Old Providence. See OLD PROVIDENCE.

1631-1636.—Offenses of Roger Williams. See RHODE ISLAND: 1631-1636.

1631-1636.—Theocracy of Massachusetts bay. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1631-1636.

1638-1640.—At the beginning of English Civil War. See ENGLAND: 1638-1640.

1642-1646.—Puritan revolt in England. See ENGLAND: 1642 (October-December), to 1646 (March).

1643-1675.—Settlements in Maryland. See MARYLAND: 1643-1649; 1650-1675.

1649-1660.—Experiment in republicanism in England. See ENGLAND: 1649 (February), to 1660.

1671-1686.—End of Puritan commonwealth. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1671-1686.

1686-1689.—Controversy with Andros in New England. See U.S.A.: 1685-1689.

1688-1776.—Spirit of independence in New England. See U.S.A.: 1620-1776.

1730-1775.—In American colonies.—End of immigration from England.—Devotion to education in New England.—Intellectual predominance of the clergy.—“Immigration practically ceased about 1730, not to be resumed on a large scale until the age of steamships a century later. . . . New England was inhabited by pure English stock, and retained for many generations its Puritan character. The early immigrants had come in congregations and settled in compact groups, making little self-governing towns clustered about the church, the school, and the village green. Learning was more carefully nurtured and widely diffused in New England than anywhere else in the colonies. Before 1650 public-school instruction had been made compulsory in all New England except Rhode Island. . . . Until the rise of a class of brilliant young lawyers like Otis and the Adamses, on the eve of the Revolutionary War, the clergy were the undisputed leaders of society. Education was entirely controlled by a public opinion largely inspired from the pulpits of the Puritan divines. With the virtues of soberness, industry, scrupulous conscientiousness, and a high standard of private and public morality, Puritanism also unfortunately developed narrowness, self-righteousness, and unwholesome cultivation of the austere and joyless sides of life. The first play that ventured to invite the applause of a New England audience, ‘The Orphan,’ enacted in a Boston coffeehouse in 1750, was prohibited as ‘tending to discourage industry and frugality and greatly to increase impiety.’ At the same time New York, Baltimore, and cities to the south were centers of gayety.”—D. S. Muzzey, *American history*, pp. 72-74.—See also BLUE LAWS.

ALSO IN: J. A. Doyle, *English colonies in America*, v. 2, pp. 85-120, v. 5, pp. 166-193.—H. L. Osgood, *American colonies in the seventeenth century*, v. 1, pp. 200-221.—J. D. Sawyer, *History of the Pilgrims and Puritans*.

PURUARAN, Battle of (1814). See MEXICO: 1810-1819.

PURUMANCANS, South American Indian tribe. See CHILE: 1450-1535; 1535-1724.

PURVEY, John (c. 1353-c. 1428), English scholar. Revised Wyclif's translation of the Bible. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 14th-16th centuries.

PURVEYANCE, Right of. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 30; ENGLAND: 1422-1455.

PUSHER, type of airplane. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1910-1920.

PUSHKIN, Alexander Sergeyevitch (1799-1837), Russian poet. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1814-1841.

PUTEOLI.—The maritime city of Puteoli, which occupied the site of the modern town of Pozzuoli, about seven miles from Naples, became under the empire the chief emporium of Roman commerce in Italy. The vicinity of Puteoli and its neighbor Baia was one of the favorite resorts of the Roman nobility for villa residence. It was at

Puteoli that St. Paul landed on his journey to Rome.—Based on T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 11.—See also BAIAE.

PUT-IN-BAY, Naval battle at (1813). See U.S.A.: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

PUTNA RIVER, Battle of (1916). See WORLD WAR: V. Balkan theater: c, 6, v.

PUTNAM, Herbert (1861-), American librarian. Became librarian of the Library of Congress, 1899. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Effects of the World War.

PUTNAM, Israel (1718-1790), American soldier. Served in the French and Indian War, 1755-1762; in Pontiac's War, 1764; in the American Revolution, 1775-1779. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April-May); (May-August); 1776 (August); (September-November).

PUTNIK, Radomir (1847-1917), Serbian general. Chief of staff and commander-in-chief of the Serbian armies, 1914-1915. See WORLD WAR: 1914: III. Balkans: a, 1; a, 2; a, 3; 1915: V. Balkans: a, 2.

PUTTER, Johann Stephen (1725-1807), German jurist and historian. See HISTORY: 25.

PUTTKAMER, Robert von (1828-1900), Prussian statesman. Minister of education and public worship, 1879-1881; minister of the interior and vice president of the ministry, 1881-1888; chief president of Pomerania, 1891-1899. See ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1879-1894.

PUTUMAYO RIVER, in Ecuador, rising near Pasto Colombia, and flowing southeast to join the Amazon at São Antonio. See LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.

1912-1913.—Troubles over rubber industry. See PERU: 1912-1913.

PUYERREDON, Honorio (1872-), Argentine statesman. Foreign minister of Argentina, 1916; delegate to the League of Nations conference at Geneva, 1920. See ARGENTINA: 1920-1921.

PU-YI. See HSUAN-TUNG.

PYDNA, town in ancient Macedonia, thirty miles southwest of Salonika. It was the scene of a battle between the Macedonians and the Romans, 168 B.C. See GREECE: B.C. 214-146; ROME: Republic: B.C. 197-146; B.C. 171-133.

PYLÆ CASPIÆ. See CASPIAN GATES.

PYLÆ CILICIÆ. See CILICIAN GATES.

PYLOS, or PILUS, ancient town of Messenia, Greece, on the Bay of Navarino, five miles west of modern Navarino. It was captured by the Athenians during the Peloponnesian War, 425 B.C. See GREECE: B.C. 425; ATHENS: B.C. 426-422.

PYM, John (1584-1643), English statesman. Member of Parliament, 1614-1643; conducted the impeachment of Strafford, 1640; escaped seizure by Charles I, 1642. See ENGLAND: 1642 (January); 1643 (August-September).

PYRAMIDS: Description.—Chief examples.—“The name ‘pyramid’—first invented by the ancients to denote the tombs of the Egyptian kings, and still used in geometry to this day—is of Greek origin. The Egyptians themselves denoted the pyramid—both in the sense of a sepulchre and of a figure in Solid Geometry—by the word ‘abumir,’ while, on the other hand, the word ‘Pir-am-us’ is equivalent to the ‘edge of the pyramid,’ namely the four edges extending from the apex of the pyramid to each corner of the quadrangular base.”—H. Brugsch Bey, *History of Egypt*, ch. 7.—“The royal tombs of the early dynasties were built in the form of pyramids, the greater part of which are above ground; they consist of the chamber in which funereal gifts were offered, the passage and the sarcophagus chamber. The actual pyra-

mid contained the passage and the sarcophagus chamber, but although the chamber, sometimes called temple or chapel, in which funereal gifts were offered, was a building separate from the pyramid, it nevertheless formed an integral part of the pyramid plan. On the western bank of the Nile, from Abu Roâsh on the north to Médûn on the south, is a slightly elevated tract of land, about twenty-five miles long, on the edge of the Libyan desert, on which stand the pyramids of Abu Roâsh, Gizeh, Zâwyet el-'Aryân, Abusir, Sakkarah, and Dahshûr. Other places in Egypt where pyramids are found are El-lahûn in the Fayyûm, and Kul-lah near Esneh. . . . Tomb-pyramids were built by kings and others until the XIIth dynasty. The ancient writers who have described and treated of the pyramids are given by Pliny (*Natural History* xxxvi. 12, 17). If we may believe some of the writers on them during the Middle Ages, their outsidess must have been covered with inscriptions; these were probably of a religious nature. . . . The pyramids of Gizeh were opened by the Persians during the fifth and fourth centuries before Christ; it is probable that they were also entered by the Romans. . . . Once opened, it must have been evident to every one what splendid quarries the pyramids formed, and very few hundred years after the conquest of Egypt by the Arabs, they were laid under contribution for stone to build mosques, etc., in Cairo. At the end of the twelfth century Melik el-Kâmil made a mad attempt to destroy the pyramid built by Mycerinus; but after months of toil he only succeeded in stripping off the covering from one of the sides. It is said that Muhammad 'Ali was advised to undertake the senseless task of destroying them all.—E. A. W. Budge, *Mummy*, pp. 328-331.—Among the more important pyramids are the following: (1) Step pyramid of Sakkarah, generally believed to have been built by the fourth king of the first dynasty. (2) Great pyramid, largest of the three at Gizeh built by Khufu or Cheops, second king of the fourth dynasty, 3733 B.C. (3) Second pyramid, at Gizeh, built by the third king of the fourth dynasty, 3666 B.C. (4) Third pyramid, at Gizeh, built by the fourth king of the fourth dynasty, 3633 B.C. (5) Pyramids of Abu Roash, six miles north of Gizeh, believed by some to be older. Very little remains of them except piles of stones. (6) Pyramids of Abusir, built in the fifth dynasty. Because of their poor construction only four of the original fourteen are standing.—See also ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Egypt; EGYPT: Monuments.

Central America. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in Mexico and Central America: Maya area.

PYRAMIDS, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1798 (May-August); 1798-1799 (August-August).

PYRENEES, Battles of the (1813). See SPAIN: 1812-1814.

PYRENEES, Company of the, French commercial company organized by Colbert, 1671. See FRANCE: 1661-1683.

PYRENEES, Treaty of the (1659). See FRANCE: 1650-1661; ITALY: 1635-1650.

PYRMONT, former small principality of central Germany now a part of Waldeck. See WAL-DECK.

PYRRHIC DANCE, spirited military dance, performed in armor, which gave much delight to the Spartans, and is said to have been taught to children only five years old. It was thought to have been invented by the Cretans.—Based on G. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state*, pt. 3.

PYRRHO OF ELIS (c. 360-270 B.C.), Greek sceptic philosopher. Founder of Pyrrhonism. See AGNOSTICISM.

PYRRHUS (c. 318-272 B.C.), king of Epirus, c. 286-272 B.C. Won the battle of Heraclea against the Romans, 280 B.C., but with such heavy loss that it was almost a defeat. Hence we have the term, "Pyrrhic victory." See MACEDONIA: B.C. 297-280; B.C. 277-244; ROME: Republic: B.C. 281-272; SPARTA: B.C. 272.

PYTHAGORAS (fl. 6th century B.C.), Greek philosopher and founder of a school of philosophers known as Pythagoreans. "He settled in Crotona and founded an association, the purpose of which is described as ethical, religious and political. His ideal was to develop, among his followers, the political virtues, to teach them to act for the good of the state, to subordinate themselves to the whole. In order to realize this end, he emphasized the need of moral training: the individual should learn to control himself, to subdue his passions, to harmonize his soul; he should have respect for authority, for the authority of his elders, his teachers, and the state. The Pythagorean brotherhood seems to have been a practical training-school for citizenship, in which the ideals of the master were put to test. . . . Pythagoras himself left no writings. . . . It is likely, however, that he is the originator of the number-theory which forms the central idea in the doctrine of the school that bears his name. . . . The Pythagoreans take note of the fact of form and relation in the world; they find measure, order, proportion, and uniform recurrence, which can be expressed in numbers. . . . [They discovered that there is a numerical relation between the length of the string and the pitch of the tone.] The Pythagorean school also gave its attention to the study of astronomy and furnished a number of astronomers."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy*, pp. 19-22.—See also MUSIC: Ancient: B.C. 540-A.D. 4th century; ASTRONOMY: Early history of; NEOPLATONISM.

PYTHIAN GAMES, one of the four great Greek festivals, held at Delphi. See DELPHI.

PYTHO, Sanctuary of.—According to the Greek legend, a monstrous serpent, or dragon, Pytho, or Python, produced from the mud left by the deluge of Deucalion, lived in a great cavern of Mount Parnassus until slain by the god Apollo. The scene of the exploit became the principal seat of the worship of Apollo, the site of his most famous temple, the home of the oracle which he inspired. The temple and its seat were originally called Pytho; the cavern, from which arose mephitic and intoxicating vapors was called the Pythium; the priestess who inhaled those vapors and uttered the oracles which they were supposed to inspire, was the Pythia; Apollo, himself, was often called Pythius. Subsequently, town, temple and oracle were more commonly known by the name of Delphi. See DELPHI.

Q

QALANDARIYAH, order of Dervishes. See **DERVISHES**.

Q-BOATS, decoys used by the British against German submarines in the World War. Apparently harmless merchantmen, they would suddenly drop their screens and let fly a broadside at the submarine.

QUADI, ancient Germanic people. See **MARCOMANNI**; **EUROPE**: Map showing barbaric migrations.

Campaigns of Marcus Aurelius. See **SARMATIAN AND MARCOMANNIAN WARS OF MARCUS AURELIUS**.

357-359.—War of Constantius. See **LIMITANTES**.

374-375.—War of Valentinian.—A treacherous outrage of peculiar blackness, committed by a worthless Roman officer on the frontier, in 374, provoked the Quadi to invade the province of Pannonia. They overran it with little opposition, and their success encouraged inroads by the neighboring Sarmatian tribes. In the following year, the Emperor Valentinian led a retaliatory expedition into the country of the Quadi and revenged himself upon it with unmerciful severity. At the approach of winter he returned across the Danube, but only to wait another spring, when his purpose was to complete the annihilation of the offending Quadi. The latter, thereupon, sent ambassadors to humbly pray for peace. The choleric emperor received them, but their presence excited him to such rage that a blood-vessel was ruptured in his body and he died.—Based on E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 25.

Probable modern representatives. See **BOHEMIA**: Its people, etc.

QUADRILATERAL, famous military position in northern Italy, formed by the group of strong fortresses at Peschiera, Verona, Mantua, and Legnano. "The Quadrilateral . . . fulfils all the requirements of a good defensive position, which are to cover rearward territory, to offer absolute shelter to a defending army whenever required, and to permit of ready offensive: first, by the parallel course of the Mincio and Adige; secondly, by the fortresses on these rivers; thirdly, by passages offered at fortified points which insure the command of the rivers."—C. Adams, *Great campaigns in Europe from 1706 to 1870*, p. 232.

QUADRIVIUM, advanced curriculum of medieval schools consisting of arithmetic, astronomy, geometry and music. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**: Nature of medieval universities; **MUSIC**: Folk music and nationalism.

QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE: 1718. See **FRANCE**: 1717-1719; **ITALY**: 1715-1735; **SPAIN**: 1713-1725.

1815. See **AIX-LA-CHAPELLE**: Congresses: 3; **FRANCE**: 1815 (July-November).

1834. See **SPAIN**: 1833-1846.

QUAESTIO, Roman jury. See **COURTS**: Roman.

QUAESTIO PERPETUA, Roman criminal court. See **CALPURNIAN LAW**.

QUÆSTOR, Imperial.—In the later Roman empire, "the Quaestor had the care of preparing the Imperial speeches, and was responsible for the language of the laws. . . . His office is not unlike that of the Chancellor of a mediaeval monarch."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3.

QUÆSTORS, Roman.—"Probably created as assistants to the consuls in the first year of the republic. At first two; in 421 B.C., four; in 241, eight; in 81, twenty; in 45, forty. Thrown open to plebeians in 421 B.C. Elected in the Comitia Tributa. The quæstor's office lasted as long as the consul's to whom he was attached."—R. F. Horton, *History of the Romans*, appendix A.—"We have seen how the care of the city's treasures had been intrusted to two city quæstors, soon after the abolition of the monarchy. In like manner, soon after the fall of the decemvirate, the expenditures connected with military affairs, which had hitherto been in the hands of the consuls, were put under the control of new patrician officers, the military quæstors, who were to accompany the army on its march."—A. Tighe, *Development of the Roman constitution*, ch. 6.—See also **ROME**: Republic: B.C. 445-400; B.C. 133; **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 10.

ALSO IN: W. Ihne, *Researches into the history of the Roman constitution*, pp. 75-84.

QUAI D'ORSAY, quay along the south bank of the Seine, Paris, on which are located the French department of foreign affairs, and the *corps législatif*. Popularly used, the name stands for the headquarters of French politics, as the British "Downing Street" or as the German "Wilhelmstrasse."

QUAKERS. See **FRIENDS**, **SOCIETY OF**; **SHAKERS**.

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS. See **CHEMISTRY**: Analytical.

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS. See **CHEMISTRY**: Analytical.

QUANTRELL, William C., American guerilla leader during the Civil War. Led a raid into Kansas and plundered towns along the Missouri river, 1862-1863; sacked and burned Lawrence, Kansas, 1863. See **U.S.A.**: 1863 (August: Missouri-Kansas).

QUANTUM MERUIT, in contract law, the promise, on the part of the employer, to pay the employee the amount earned up to the time of the breach. See **COMMON LAW**: 1609.

QUAPAWS, North American Indian tribe. See **SIOUAN FAMILY**; **OKLAHOMA**: 1824-1837; **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Southeastern area.

QUAPPAS, North American Indian tribe. See **SIOUAN FAMILY**.

QUARANTIA, body of judges created by the grand council of Venice, 1179. See **VENICE**: 1032-1310.

QUARTER DAYS.—The "quarter days," for rent-paying, in England, are Lady Day (March 25), Midsummer Day (June 24), Michaelmas (September 29) and Christmas. In Scotland they are: Candlemas (February 2), Whitsunday (May 15), Lammas Day (August 1), and Martinmas (November 11).

QUARTER SESSIONS, Courts of, minor courts of record, dealing with petty criminal and civil cases. Their origin is in English law, and the name comes from an English statute of 1388, which states that the "justices shall keep their sessions in every quarter of the year at the least." In the United States, these courts are found in many of the States, and their jurisdiction is defined by State legislation. Their work comprises minor criminal offenses.

QUARTERMASTER CORPS, United States Army. See **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: V. Moving men and material: a, 11.

QUATRE BRAS, strategic position on the Mekong, or Cambodia, river, in French Indo-China. In 1863 it came into the possession of France. See **INDO-CHINA**: B. C. 218-1886.

QUATRE BRAS (France), Battle of. See **FRANCE**: 1815 (June).

QUAY, Matthew Stanley (1833-1904), American political leader. Served in the Civil War; secretary of state for Pennsylvania, 1872-1878, 1879-1882; state recorder, 1878-1879; state treasurer, 1885-1887; United States senator, 1887-1899, 1901-1904. See **RIPPER BILL OR ACT**.

QUEANT, town eight miles northeast of Ba-paume, northeastern France. In the World War, the German Siegfried lines of trenches met the Drocourt-Quéant switch line here, forming a salient. In December, 1917, in the battle of Arras, the British nearly reached the town, but it was not captured until the final Allied offensive of 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: 1, 1.

QUEBEC, capital of the province of Quebec, Canada, at the confluence of the St. Lawrence and St. Charles rivers. The population in 1921 was 93,193.

1535.—Its Indian occupants.—Its name.—When Jacques Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence, in 1535, he found an Indian village called Stadacona occupying the site of the present city of Quebec. The name Quebec, afterwards given to the French settlement on the same ground, is said by some to be likewise of Indian origin, having reference to the narrowing of the river at that point. "Others give a Norman derivation for the word: it is said that Quebec was so-called after Caudebec, on the Seine." —E. Warburton, *Conquest of Canada*, v. 1, ch. 2. 1608.—Founding of the city by Champlain. See **CANADA**: 1608-1611.

1629-1632.—Capture by the English.—Brief occupation and restoration to France. See **CANADA**: 1628-1635.

1639.—Founding of the Ursuline convent. See **CANADA**: 1637-1657.

1690.—Unsuccessful attack by Sir William Phips and the Massachusetts colonists. See **CANADA**: 1689-1690.

1711.—Threatened by Admiral Walker. See **CANADA**: 1711-1713.

1759.—Wolfe's conquest. See **CANADA**: 1759 (July-September).

1759.—Attempted recovery by the French. See **CANADA**: 1759: Passing of New France.

1775-1776.—Unsuccessful siege by Americans.—Death of Montgomery. See **CANADA**: 1775-1776.

1779.—Foundation of Quebec library. See **LIBRARIES**: Modern: Canada.

1864.—Confederation convention. See **CANADA**: 1867: Federation, etc.

1908.—Tercentenary celebration. See **CANADA**: 1908 (July).

1916-1917.—Bonne Entente with Ottawa. See **CANADA**: 1912-1916.

1918.—Completion of great cantilever bridge across the St. Lawrence.

QUEBEC, Province of: Geographical description.—Area.—Population.—"The name Quebec, whose use by Europeans dates from Champlain's visit in 1608, was first given to the settlement known as Stadacona, then to a district, and finally to an entire Province. In extent Quebec, excluding the newly added territory of Ungava, is as large as the British Isles, France and Belgium united, 346,875 square miles; comprising Ungava, it is the

largest province in the Dominion of Canada. It lies on both banks of the River St. Lawrence, and its length is just one thousand miles from its eastern extremity on the edge of Labrador to Lake Abitibi on the west. [See **CANADA**: Map of Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland.] A century and a half has elapsed since the Conquest and the territory which in the course of its history has been known successively as New France, as Canada, as Lower Canada, and now as the Province of Quebec, has largely preserved the racial and religious character imparted to it by its founders. . . . [In 1921 the estimated population was 2,500,000 of which over two-thirds were of French origin.] If we consider religion we shall find the Roman Catholic Church claiming of this total no fewer than 1,705,000 adherents, or the bulk of the French and Irish population. In the Canadian Parliament the Province is represented by twenty-four members of the Senate and sixty-five of the House of Commons. . . . Since Confederation, in 1867, Quebec enjoys the right perpetually of sending sixty-five members to the Dominion House of Commons. At each census the number of the representatives of the other provinces is adjusted according to the augmentation or diminution of the Quebec population. . . . The Government consists of a Lieutenant-Governor appointed by the Governor-General for a term of five years, and of two Houses, the Legislative Council of twenty-four members appointed by the Crown for life, and the Legislative Assembly elected by the people for a term of five years. The system resembles that of the Dominion at Ottawa, and an Executive Council of the Ministry is responsible to the legislature. This Cabinet has nine members. . . . For the administration of justice, the Governor-General appointed the judges of the superior, district, and county courts, their salaries being fixed and paid by the Dominion Government. The judges of the Court of Quebec must, nevertheless, be selected from the bar of the Province. The administration of justice, regarding the constitution, maintenance, and organisation of provincial courts, both civil and criminal, is left to the Province, and there are also county courts of limited jurisdiction. . . . In Parliament and law, the use of the dual languages is permitted; in the Courts particularly, French is more generally employed." —B. Willson, *Quebec: The Laurentian province*, pp. 3-5.—The chief resources are agriculture, lumbering, the fur trade, fishing and manufactures, in which last pulp and paper loom large. Of minerals the most valuable for the province is probably asbestos. There are valuable cement, building stone, and clay quarries. See **U.S.A.**: Economic map.

1534-1535.—Explored by Cartier. See **AMERICA**: 1534-1535.

1635-1672.—From Champlain to Tracy.—Dual administration.—Great intendant.—"When the year 1665 began, the French colony on the shores of the St. Lawrence, founded by the valour and devotion of Champlain [see **CANADA**: 1608-1611], had been in existence for more than half a century. Yet it was still in a pitiable state of weakness and destitution. The care and maintenance of the settlement had devolved upon trading companies, whose narrow-minded mercantile selfishness had stifled its progress. . . . To the shackles of commercial greed, to forgetfulness on the part of the mother country, had been added the curse of Indian wars. During twenty-five years the daring and ferocious Iroquois had been the constant scourge of the handful of settlers, traders, and missionaries. Champlain's successors in the office of governor, Montmagny, Ailleboust, Lauzon, Argen-

son, Avaugour, had no military force adequate to the task of meeting and crushing these formidable foes. Year after year the wretched colony maintained its struggle for existence amidst deadly perils, receiving almost no help from France, and to all appearance doomed to destruction. To make things worse, internal strife exercised its disintegrating influence; there was contention among the leaders in New France over the vexed question of the liquor traffic. In the face of so many adverse circumstances—complete lack of means, cessation of immigration from the mother country, the perpetual menace of the bloody Iroquois incursions, a dying trade, and a stillborn agriculture—how could the colony be kept alive at all? Spiritual and civil authorities, the governor and the bishop, the Jesuits and the traders, all united in petitioning for assistance. . . . Fortunately a change was at hand. . . . Petitions and statements were addressed to the king by Mgr. de Laval, the head of ecclesiastical affairs in the colony, by the governor Avaugour, and by the Jesuit fathers; and Pierre Boucher, governor of the district of Three Rivers, was sent to France as a delegate to present them. Louis and his minister studied the conditions of the colony on the St. Lawrence and decided in 1663 to give it a new constitution. The charter of the One Hundred Associates was cancelled and the old Council of Quebec—formed in 1647—was reorganized under the name of the Sovereign Council. . . . To establish a new and improved system of administration was a good thing, but this alone would hardly avail if powerful help were not forthcoming to rescue New France from ruin, despondency, and actual extermination. The colony was dying for lack of soldiers, settlers, and labourers, as well as stores of food and munitions of war for defence and maintenance. Louis XIV made up his mind that help should be given. In 1664 three hundred labourers were conveyed to Quebec at the king's expense, and in the following year the colonists received the welcome information that the king was also about to send them a regiment of trained soldiers, a viceroy, a new governor, a new intendant, settlers and labourers, and all kinds of supplies. This royal pledge was adequately fulfilled. On June 19, 1665, the Marquis de Tracy, lieutenant-general of all the French dominions in America, arrived from the West Indies. . . . With him came four companies of soldiers. During the whole summer ships were disembarking their passengers and unloading their cargoes of ammunition and provisions at Quebec in quick succession. . . . At length, on September 12, the cup of public joy was filled to overflowing by the arrival of the ship *Saint Sebastien* with two high officials on board, David de Remy, Sieur de Courcelle, the governor appointed to succeed the governor Mézy, who had died earlier in the year, and Jean Talon, the intendant of justice, police, and finance. . . . The Marquis de Tracy was an able and clear-sighted commander, the Sieur de Courcelle a fearless, straightforward official. But the part of Jean Talon in the common task, though apparently less brilliant, was to be in many respects the most important, and his influence the most far-reaching in the destinies of the colony. . . . In 1665 Canada had only three settled districts: Quebec, Three Rivers, and Ville-Marie or Montreal. Quebec, the chief town, . . . contained barely seventy houses with about five hundred and fifty inhabitants. . . . In the neighbourhood of Quebec were a few settlements. According to the census of the following year there were 452 persons on the Island of Orleans, 533 at the Côte Beupré, 185 at Beauport, 140 at Sillery, and 112 at Charlesbourg and Notre-Dame-des-

Anges on the St. Charles river. Three Rivers was a small port with a population of 455, including that of the adjoining settlements. . . . Montreal or Ville-Marie was scarcely more important than Three Rivers. The population of the whole district numbered only 625. . . . Altogether the white population of Canada, including the settlers and labourers arriving during the summer of 1665, numbered only 3215. Yet the colony had been in existence for fifty-seven years! It was certainly time for a new effort on the part of the mother country to infuse life into her feeble offspring. This was a task calling for the earnest care and the most energetic activity of Tracy, Courcelle, and Talon. One of the first matters to receive their attention was the reorganization of the Canadian administration. . . . On September 23, 1665, a solemn sitting of the Sovereign Council was held, at which Tracy, Courcelle, Laval, and Talon were present, together with the Sieur Le Barrois, general agent of the West India Company, and the Sieurs de Villeray, de la Ferté, d'Auteuil, de Tilly, Damours. . . . The next proceeding of the rulers of New France was to prepare for a decisive blow against the daring Iroquois. . . . [and] during the summer and autumn of 1665 the Carignan soldiers were kept busy with the construction of . . . necessary defensive works. . . .

"One of the first problems with which the intendant had to deal in discharging the duties of his office was the dualism of administrative authority. . . . Colbert had founded a new trading company, known as the West India Company. This corporation had been granted wide privileges over all the French possessions in America, including feudal ownership and authority to administer justice and levy war: The company was thus invested with the right of appointing judicial officers, magistrates, and sovereign councils, and of naming, subject to the king's sanction, governors and other functionaries; it had full power to sell the land or make grants in feudal tenure, to receive all seigniorial dues, to build forts, raise troops, and equip war-ships. The company's charter had been granted in 1664, and of course Canada, as well as the other French colonies in the New World, was included in its jurisdiction. The situation of this colony was therefore very peculiar. In 1663 the king had cancelled the charter of the One Hundred Associates and had taken back the fief of Canada; but a year later he had granted it again to a new company. At the same time he showed clearly that he intended to keep the administration in his own hands. Thus Canada seemed to have two masters. . . . But in point of fact the king wielded the government, thus taking back with one hand what he had given with the other. By right the company controlled the administration of justice; it could, and actually did, establish courts. But, in fact, the king appointed the intendant supreme judge in civil cases, and made the Sovereign Council a tribunal of superior jurisdiction. By right, to the company belonged the power of granting land and seigneuries. In fact, the governor or the intendant, the king's officers, made the grants at their pleasure. This strange situation, which lasted ten years—until the West India Company's charter was revoked in 1674—is often confusing to the student of the period. . . . Another enterprise of the intendant was numbering the people. Under his personal supervision, during the winter of 1666-67, a general census of the colony was taken—the first Canadian census of which we have any record. [In 1666 Tracy led an expedition against the Mohawks and won a decided victory.] . . . Tracy had led a successful expedition against the Iroquois and

coerced them into a lasting peace. He had seen order and harmony restored in the government of the colony. His mission was over and he left Canada on August 28, 1667, Courcelle remaining as governor and Talon as intendant. From that moment the latter, though second in rank, became really the first official of New France, if we consider his work in its relation to the future welfare of the colony. . . . Under Talon's wise direction and encouragement, the settlement of the country progressed rapidly. Now that they could work in safety, the colonists set themselves to the task of clearing new farms. In his Relation of 1668 Father Le Mercier wrote: 'It is fine to see new settlements on each side of the St. Lawrence for a distance of eighty leagues. . . . The fear of aggression no longer prevents our farmers from encroaching on the forest and harvesting all kinds of grain, which the soil here grows as well as in France.' In the district of Montreal there was great activity. It was during this period that the lands of Longue-Pointe, of Pointe-aux-Trembles, and of Lachine were first cultivated. At the same time, along the river Richelieu, in the vicinity of Forts Chambly and Sorel, officers and soldiers of the Carignan-Salières regiment were beginning to settle. . . . Shipbuilding was another industry of his introduction. In 1666, always desirous of setting an example, he built a small craft of one hundred and twenty tons. . . . In building and causing ships to be built the intendant had in view the extension of the colony's trade. One of his schemes was to establish regular commercial intercourse between Canada, the West Indies, and France. . . . [For this purpose he] entered into partnership with a merchant and shipped to the West Indies salmon, eels, salt and dried cod, peas, staves, fish-oil, planks, and small masts much needed in the islands. The establishment of commercial relations between Canada and the West Indies was an event of no small moment. During the following years this trade proved important. . . . Colbert hesitated at first to encourage emigration, but he had yielded somewhat before Talon's urgent representations, and from 1665 to 1671 there was an uninterrupted influx of Canadian settlers. It is recorded in a document written by Talon himself that in 1665 the West India Company brought to Canada for the king's account 429 men and 100 young women, and 184 men and 92 women in 1667. During these seven years there were in all 1828 state-aided immigrants to Canada. The young women were carefully selected, and it was the king's wish that they should marry promptly, in order that the greatest possible number of new families should be founded. . . . The paternal policy of the minister and the intendant was favoured by the disbanding of the Carignan companies. In 1668 the regiment was recalled to France; four companies only were left in Canada to garrison the forts. The officers and soldiers of the companies withdrawn were entreated to remain as settlers, and about four hundred decided to make their home in Canada. . . . On the whole the situation in Canada at the end of 1668, three years after Talon's arrival, was most satisfactory. Peace and security were restored; hope had replaced despondency; colonization, agriculture, and trade were making progress; population was increasing yearly. In this short space of time New France had been saved from destruction and was now full of new vigour. Every one in the colony knew that the great intendant had been the soul of the revival, the leader in all this progress. It may therefore be easily imagined what was the state of popular feeling when the news came that Talon was to

leave Canada. He had twice asked for his recall. . . . Louis XIV gave him leave to return to France and appointed Claude de Bouteroue in his stead. . . . [On August 8, 1670, Talon returned to Quebec and remained until] under his powerful direction New France, through her missionaries, explorers, and traders, stamped her mark over three-quarters of the territory then known as North America. Her moral, political and commercial influence was felt beyond her boundaries—west, north, and south. She had hoisted the cross and the fleur-de-lis from the sunny banks of the Arkansas to the icy shores of Hudson Bay, and from the surges of the Atlantic to the remotest limits of the Great Lakes; . . . and her name inspired awe and respect in a hundred Indian tribes. . . . In 1672 a ship of over four hundred tons was launched, and preparations had been made for another of eight hundred tons. Seven years earlier only nineteen out of 2378 vessels in the French mercantile marine had exceeded four hundred tons. The infant shipyard at Quebec was doing well. Agriculture and industry were flourishing in New France. Hemp was being grown successfully, and a larger quantity of wool was made available by increasing flocks of sheep. The intendant insisted that women and girls should be taught to spin. He distributed looms to encourage the practice of weaving, and after a time the colony had home-made carpets and table-covers of drugget, and serges and buntings. The great number of cattle ensured an abundance of raw hides. Accordingly the intendant established a tannery, and this in turn led to the preparation of leather and the making of shoes. . . . New France at this time was prosperous and happy. 'Peace reigns within as well as without the colony,' wrote Talon at the end of the year 1671. There was work and activity on all sides. New settlements were opened, new families were founded, new industries were born. No wonder that Talon, when he reflected on what had been achieved in seven years, should have written: 'This portion of the French monarchy is going to become something great.' . . . Courcelle [the governor, with whom the intendant had frequently clashed], had asked for his own recall; his request was also granted and the Comte de Frontenac was named in his stead. No intendant was appointed to fill Talon's place. At the beginning of September 1672, while Talon had still two months to serve, Frontenac arrived in Quebec to take up his duties as the sole executive head of the colony."—T. Chapais, *Great intendant*, pp. 1-6, 10, 12-13, 15-17, 19-21, 23, 38, 48-50, 54, 58, 95-96, 120-121, 123, 126-127.

1672-1689.—Frontenac's first term.—Extension of colony.—Disputes of bishop, governor and intendant.—Destruction of Lachine.—"The Intendant, Talon, was still in office when Frontenac arrived in 1672; but as he left soon afterwards, Frontenac found himself in undisputed control of both civil and military affairs, saving the possible interference of the Court. The colony was so near bankruptcy that no one but a trained economist endowed with independent control, could have rescued it, or have reconciled the interests of the West India Company with the prosperity of the people and the welfare of the State. But if camp life had not made of Frontenac a statesman or financier, it did train him to become the saviour of Canada at a crisis in her history when absolute confidence in his own judgment and unshaken courage in carrying out his policy were needed to impress on the enemies of France in America, both savage and civilized, respect for her military strength, and to infuse into the disheartened

colonists a spirit of nationality and an ardor for territorial expansion. He conducted no important campaign against the English or the Iroquois during his first administration, yet by the force of his character, by his natural gift of oratory, supplemented by picturesque and significant gesture-language, he so impressed the Iroquois, during the great peace conference at Montreal in 1680, with awe and respect that they refrained from any overt act of barbarity till after his recall in 1682." —J. Douglas, *Old France in the New World*, p. 394.—Frontenac's ideas on the government of the colony were far in advance of the views of Louis XIV and Colbert. On his arrival in Quebec, the new governor attempted to create an assembly to represent the Three Estates. His "next step was to reorganize the municipal government of Quebec by permitting the inhabitants to choose two aldermen and a mayor. . . . The king wished to discourage all memory of the Three Estates, and Frontenac was told that no part of the Canadian people should be given a corporate or collective status. The reprimand, however, did not reach Canada till the summer of 1673, so that for some months Frontenac was permitted to view his work with satisfaction. . . . [As his next move he determined to build a fort at the entrance to Lake Ontario as a preliminary to extending the settlements. He therefore went up the river, with all the state and all the troops that he could muster. He had already sent La Salle to summon the Five Nations to a conference at the mouth of the Cataragui where the new fort was to be elected. There he met them on July 12, 1673, and held an assembly while at the same time he proceeded with the business of building the fort under their eyes, with an ease by which he hoped to create an impression upon them. Having overawed the Indians by his display of military force he returned to Quebec.] At the beginning of September 1675 Frontenac was confronted with an event which could have given him little pleasure. This was the arrival, by the same ship, of the bishop Laval, who had been absent from Canada four years, and Jacques Duchesneau, who after a long interval had been appointed to succeed Talon as intendant. Laval returned in triumph. He was now bishop of Quebec, directly dependent upon the Holy See and not upon the king of France. Partly through a clash of dignities and partly through a clash of ideas, there soon arose at Quebec a conflict which rendered personal friendship among the leaders impossible, and caused itself to be felt in every part of the administration. . . . The simplest form of stating the case is to say that Frontenac clashed with Laval over one set of interests and with Duchesneau over another; over ecclesiastical issues with the bishop and over civil interests with the intendant. In the Sovereign Council these three dignitaries sat together, and so close was the connection of Church with State that not a month could pass without bringing to light some fresh matter which concerned them all. [The disputes with Laval chiefly concerned the church.] . . . Frontenac was no theorist, and probably would have written a poor treatise on the relations of Church and State. At the same time, he knew that the king claimed certain rights over the Church, and he was the king's lieutenant. Herein lies the deeper cause of his troubles with the Jesuits and Laval. . . . Rightly or wrongly, the governor held that the bishop was subservient to the Jesuits, while Colbert's plain instructions required the governor to keep the Jesuits in check. [The first dispute was over a question of precedence and the honors to be accorded to the governor at church

services. Then came an argument over the organization of parishes, in which Frontenac, who declared that parish priests should live all the year round among their people, would seem to have been in the right, if it were not that the people were unwilling to supply sufficient means for their support.] . . . After some three years of controversy the king, as usual, stepped in to settle the matter. By an edict of May, 1679, he ordained that the priests should live in their parishes and have the free disposition of the tithes which had been established under an order of 1667. [The third source of enmity was the question of supplying brandy to the Indians, in which Laval, who took the negative side showed himself in advance of his time.] . . . As he saw it, the sale of brandy to the Indians was a sin, punishable by excommunication. . . . In the end the king . . . declared the regulation of the brandy trade to fall within the domain of the civil power. He warned Frontenac to avoid an open denial of the bishop's authority in this matter, but directed him to prevent the Church from interfering in a case belonging to the sphere of public order. . . . Between Frontenac and his other opponent, the intendant Duchesneau, the strife revolved about a different set of questions [those of civil affairs] without losing any of its bitterness. . . . But, as Laval and Duchesneau were both at war with Frontenac they naturally drew together. . . . All modern writers agree that Canada suffered grievously from these disputes, but a difference of opinion at once arises when an attempt is made to distribute the blame. . . . Everything which Duchesneau did gave Frontenac annoyance—the more so as the intendant came armed with very considerable powers. During the first three years of Frontenac's administration the governor, in the absence of an intendant, had lorded it over the colony with a larger freedom from restraint than was normal under the French colonial system. . . . [but] Duchesneau's instructions gave him a degree of authority which proved galling to the governor. Within three weeks from the date of Duchesneau's arrival the fight had begun (September 23, 1675). In its earliest phase it concerned the right to preside at meetings of the Sovereign Council. . . . Incredible as it may seem, this issue regarding the right to preside was not settled until the work of the Council had been disturbed by it for five years. . . . The whole episode shows how completely the French colonial system broke down in its attempt to act through two officials, each of whom was designed to be a check upon the other. . . . When we consider how Canada from end to end was affected by these disputes, we may well feel surprise that Colbert and the king should have suffered them to rage so long. By 1682 the state of things had become unbearable. Partisans of Frontenac and Duchesneau attacked each other in the streets. . . . One alternative was to dismiss Frontenac; another, to dismiss Duchesneau. Seignelay chose the third course and dismissed both. . . . [They were followed by De la Barre and Meulles who arrived in 1682, and were no more friendly than their predecessors in office. More than that De la Barre's weakness soon became evident to the Indians and Meulles' reports procured his recall. He was followed by the Marquis de Denonville, who has the distinction of living on better terms with the intendant and bishop than any other governor of New France. He was not however strong enough to stand against the combination of Indian inroads and the stand taken by Dongan, the governor of New York.] The domain of the Five Nations [moreover] was not the only part of America

where French and English clashed. . . . With Denonville's consent and approval, a band of Canadians left Montreal in the spring of 1686, fell upon three of the English posts—Fort Hayes, Fort Rupert, Fort Albany—and with some bloodshed dispossessed their garrisons. Well satisfied with this exploit, Denonville in 1687 turned his attention to the chastisement of the Iroquois. . . . [He began by an act of treachery toward friendly Indians and followed it up by building a fort at Niagara in defiance of an agreement made with Dongan, which he had to abandon next year (1688). He then attempted to make peace with the Indians, but convinced that they could not trust him] . . . the Iroquois prepared to deliver a hard blow. On August 5, 1689, they fell in overwhelming force upon the French settlement at Lachine. . . . Such were the events which, in seven years, had brought New France to the brink of ruin. But she was not to perish from the Iroquois. In October, 1689, Frontenac returned to take Denonville's place.”—C. W. Colby, *Fighting governor*, pp. 37, 51-52, 57-60, 62-65, 67, 70, 106, 111-112.

1698-1739.—Governorship of De Callières and of De Vaudreuil.—Indian warfare.—Industrial development.—“The last half century of the French domination on the St. Lawrence and the Lakes presents two very different aspects of the colonial life of New France. Administrative degeneration at headquarters was coupled with wonderful activity by the people in so exploring the recesses of the continent that they extended the claims of France to territory from the Atlantic almost to the Pacific. . . . [Frontenac, who died in 1698, was succeeded by] Louis Hector de Callières, an old Canadian, who before emigrating had been a captain in the Regiment of Navarre and shortly after coming to Canada had been appointed Governor of Montreal. It was while in that position that he had helped to save Quebec from Sir William Phips by hastening to Frontenac's assistance with a detachment of troops. As Governor he showed both vigor and statesmanship. He secured a cessation of hostilities among the Indian tribes and, after the peace of Ryswick, with the concurrence of Governor Bellamont, he checked them in their favorite pastime, that of border massacre. He used the Jesuits as political agents to win wavering Iroquois over to the French side, and virtually protected his country against any future attacks from those of the Iroquois who remained true to the British alliance. . . . His successor, the Marquis de Vaudreuil, left in some respects a less enviable record. He also was a soldier, who came to Canada in 1687 to command a detachment of the troops of the marine. He also helped to defeat Phips, and on de Callières' appointment as Governor General followed him as Governor of Montreal. For the part he took in bringing about the treaty with the Indians he received the *fief* of Vaudreuil, which remains in the possession of his family. He had therefore the advantage of colonial experience when he took the reins of office. But his popularity with the Indians and his thorough acquaintance with their habits of thought and action created such intimate sympathy with them that it blinded him to the consequence of using them as a weapon in his war with the English colonies. . . . Vaudreuil's long administration was responsible for almost uninterrupted border raids which embittered more and more the relations between the neighboring colonies. It was a policy fraught with danger, more especially when the disparity in

strength between the two groups of hostile colonists was taken into account. Still, it was a policy which a soldier who was threatened by an enemy of overwhelmingly greater strength and resources, may be forgiven for adopting. It had been repudiated by his predecessor, who, though a soldier, had, as a statesman, clearer insight into the future. Unfortunately, therefore, the eighteenth century opened dismally with these ignoble broils between New France and New England. The war of the Spanish succession was the excuse, but the exasperation growing out of Indian war tactics was the real exciting cause. . . . No method of warfare was as cheap as turning loose those savages, with their Abenaki and Micmac allies, on defenceless settlers along the New England border. The raiding parties were generally accompanied by Frenchmen. The provocation had been great, for though the Iroquois had not been commanded by Englishmen in their descents upon the St. Lawrence, the Five Nations had been allies of the English, and 1,500 Iroquois warriors had been enlisted in the land force which should have coöperated with Phips before Quebec. . . . But whatever the justification, the reprisals made by the French and their Indian allies upon the border villages of New England from Maine to Connecticut, intensified the hatred of the English Puritans against the French Papists, and led the *Bostonnais* to adopt as a duty, which was undoubtedly to their interest, the destruction of the French colonies of Acadia and Canada. . . . The Marquis de Vaudreuil ruled Canada from 1703 to 1725. Though not sagacious enough to foresee the fatal consequences of irritating his powerful neighbors, he nevertheless appreciated their inevitable territorial expansion, and to check their advances built Fort Niagara, reestablished Fort Michilimackinac, and strengthened the fortifications of both Quebec and Montreal. One of his most important domestic measures was his redivision of the Colony into parishes—strung along both banks of the river, much as they exist today. . . . During the Governorship of de Callières and de Vaudreuil the intendants were Bochart, François de Beauharnais, the Raudots, father and son, performing at the same time different functions of the same office, and Bégon. Bégon had waited two years for a successor. The next appointee to the office, M. Chazel, was wrecked and lost with all on board the Chameau; the second selection, M. Dupuy, relieved him in 1726. . . . [De Vaudreuil was replaced in 1725 and] between the new Governor and the Intendant there soon broke out acute hostilities. . . . These unseemly quarrels, which revived the animosities between Church and State, of Frontenac's administration, scandalized all pious citizens and encouraged the spirit of freedom, or of revolt, as some might consider it, which was beginning to replace the old temper of abject submission. The battle did not cease, even with the withdrawal of Dupuy, for his act in appointing in his place Père Dupuy was disallowed, and M. d'Aigremont was nominated. He, dying almost immediately, was succeeded by M. Hocquart, the only Intendant worthy of comparison with Talon. . . . Under Hocquart further industrial progress was made. Shipbuilding so advanced that in 1733 ten small vessels were built in Quebec; in the same year the first road for wheeled vehicles was opened between Quebec and Montreal; and in 1737 the first furnace was lighted at the St. Maurice iron mines. Turpentine and tar, as well as lumber, were exported; but the most lucrative trade was in the dried root of the ginseng. . . . Hocquart

took a great interest in education, and introduced the Christian Brothers as teachers of elementary schools. He deplored the preference of all classes of colonists for amusement and for active over intellectual pursuits. Still the colony seemed under a blight. Its population in 1739 amounted to only 42,701, of whom 4,603 lived in Quebec and its *banlieue*, and 4,210 in Montreal."—J. Douglas, *Old France in the New World*, pp. 529-534.

1763.—Creation of English province. See CANADA: 1763-1774; NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES: 1763.

1774.—Vast extension of province by Quebec Act. See CANADA: 1763-1774; ILLINOIS: 1765-1774.

1791.—Divided into Upper and Lower Canada. See ONTARIO: 1783-1841.

1820-1837.—Government policy. See CANADA: 1838-1843.

1866-1876.—Influence of the church in politics. —Election appeals.—"Until after the Union [with Upper Canada] there had been practically no dissension within the Church itself [in Quebec]. After the Union, and particularly after the winning of responsible government, controversy was frequent and vigorous. . . . The Rouge group in the House of Assembly in the fifties incurred the hostility of the clergy by their attitude on two question—the powers of religious communities and the control of the schools. . . . In the dozen years that followed, . . . the area of conflict widened, occupying the whole provincial stage, and the connection with the contemporaneous movements in Europe became still more marked than in the Union period. One factor in the situation was that the aggressively ultramontane wing of the Church in Quebec had grown more powerful. . . . In Quebec as in the other provinces there had been set up a provincial government to which were assigned education and the local matters in which the Church was chiefly concerned. No longer was it necessary to run the gauntlet of a vigilant and biased Clear Grit group from Upper Canada when matters ecclesiastical were brought before the House [for] . . . in Quebec the people were four-fifths Catholic. . . . [Moreover] the men of the new school, led by Bishop Bourget, gave hearty support to the ultramontane movement, and were encouraged by its success to assert a wider influence in state affairs and to take a stronger line against their moderate brethren within the Church itself."

—O. D. Skelton, *Life and letters of Sir Wilfrid Laurier*, v. 1, pp. 86, 93-94, 118-119, 125-126.—In 1871 a violent struggle broke out between the two political parties "with the issue of the *Catholic Programme*, . . . a manifesto prepared by a group of editors and lawyers, who, in their own words, 'belonged heart and soul to the ultramontane school.' . . . It sought to lay down a policy to govern all good Catholics in the coming elections. The doctrine of the separation of church and state, the document declared, was impious and absurd. On the contrary, the authorities of the state, and the electors who chose them, must act in perfect accord with the teachings of the Church, and endeavour to safeguard its interests by making such changes in the laws as the bishops might demand. To secure this end the Conservative party must be supported. When two Conservatives or two Liberals were running, the one who accepted the Programme was to be elected; where a Conservative and a Liberal were opposed, the former would be supported; if it happened that a Conservative who opposed the programme was running against a Liberal who accepted it, 'the situation would be more delicate'—and Catholics

should not vote at all. . . . The Liberal party was sorely pressed. In the emergency some of its moderate members determined to throw off the incubus of their anti-clerical traditions by reorganizing and renaming the party, . . . the *Parti National*. . . . The result of the following elections gave some ground for hope. . . . In 1873 a brief pastoral was issued by all the bishops condemning Catholic Liberalism in vague but sweeping terms. Two years later another joint pastoral, that of September 22, 1875, went into the whole question elaborately, . . . and the right of the clergy to intervene in politics was again upheld. . . . [The Liberals, on the other hand, insisted that] for a priest to threaten eternal punishment [i.e., use of undue influence, was] a ground for voiding an election. The matter was pressed to a decision in appeals against candidates returned in two federal by-elections, in Chambly and Charlevoix, and in one provincial election, in Bonaventure. . . . In defence it was urged that, in the first place, the civil courts had no authority over ecclesiastics, at least for acts done in their spiritual capacity, and, in the second place, that the Church had a right to defend its interest against attack, and that in using to this end all the powers at its disposal it was employing no undue influence. Judge Routhier, the author of the *Catholic Programme*, upheld these contentions in the first trial of the Charlevoix case, but the Supreme Court, in judgments delivered by Mr. Justice Taschereau, brother of the Archbishop, and by Mr. Justice Ritchie, denied the existence of any clerical immunity from civil jurisdiction, and found that the threats which had been made from the pulpit constituted undue influence of the clearest kind. Accordingly they voided the election."—O. D. Skelton, *Day of Sir Wilfred Laurier* (G. M. Wrong and H. H. Langton, ed., *Chronicles of Canada Series*, v. 30, pp. 44-46, 48).

1867.—Incorporated in Dominion of Canada. —See CANADA: 1867; CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1867.

1876-1888.—Jesuit estates and their disposal. —"After the Conquest of Canada it was decreed that the Jesuits then in the country should be permitted to remain and die there, but that they must not add to their numbers, and that their estates should be confiscated to the Crown. Lord Amherst, the British commander-in-chief, made an unsuccessful attempt to have these estates granted to himself; but in the Crown's possession they remained, and fell to the province of Quebec at Confederation. This settlement had never been accepted. The bishops contended that the Jesuits' estates should have been returned to the Church, and the Jesuits, who had come back to Canada in 1842, asserted their own rights to their ancient lands. Thus the thorny question as to what disposition should be made of these lands baffled the provincial authorities until 1888, when Honoré Mercier, himself a pupil of the Jesuits, and now a most aggressively faithful son of the Church, grappled with the problem, and passed an act embodying a compromise which had been found acceptable by all parties concerned. The sum of \$400,000 was to be paid in satisfaction for all claims, to be divided among the Jesuits, the Church authorities, and Laval University, in proportions to be determined by the Pope. At the same time \$60,000 was voted to Protestant schools to satisfy their demands. In Quebec the measure was accepted with little discussion. . . . In Ontario . . . D'Alton M'Carthy, Colonel O'Brien, and John Charlton . . . called on the Dominion Gov-

ernment to disallow the act. But Sir John Macdonald declined to intervene. A resolution in the House of Commons calling for disallowance was defeated by 188 to 13, the minority being chiefly Conservatives from Ontario."—O. D. Skelton, *Day of Sir Wilfred Laurier* (G. M. Wrong and H. H. Langton, ed., *Chronicles of Canada Series*, v. 30, pp. 114-116).

1878.—Dispute over provincial rights.—"In determining what powers should be assigned to the Dominion and what to the provinces, the Fathers of Confederation . . . made [the Dominion] residuary legatee of powers not specified. The central government, too, was given a right of veto over all provincial laws and empowered to appoint the lieutenant-governors of the provinces. . . . It was in Quebec that the first issue as to provincial rights arose. The Mackenzie Government in 1876 had appointed [a Liberal] Duc Letellier de St. Just, . . . lieutenant-governor. . . . The neglect of the [Conservative] premier, M. de Boucherville, to consult Letellier before introducing some railway legislation proved the last straw, and in March, 1878, Boucherville was dismissed and Henri Joly de Lotbinière was called upon to form a Cabinet. . . . Sir John Macdonald, then leader of the Opposition [in the Dominion House], moved a vote of censure upon Letellier, which was defeated on a party vote. A year later, after the change of government at Ottawa, a Quebec ministerialist again moved in the House of Commons the resolution of censure. . . . The constitutional issue was clear, and on this the Liberals rested their case. . . . The vote of censure carried, and Macdonald recommended to the governor-general, the Marquis of Lorne, that Letellier should be dismissed. Here again a nice question of responsibility arose. First the question had been whether the lieutenant-governor was to be guided by provincial ministers or by the federal government which appointed him. Now the problem was whether the governor-general should be guided by his advisers in Canada, or by the British Government which had appointed him. . . . The question was referred to the Colonial Office [and] the colonial secretary replied that the lieutenant-governor was undoubtedly responsible to the governor-general for any act, and that equally undoubtedly the governor-general must act upon the advice . . . of his responsible ministers. The governor-general suggested reconsideration, but the Macdonald Cabinet was obdurate and Letellier was dismissed. Fortunately the precedent thus set has not been followed. The principle is now established that a lieutenant-governor may be dismissed only when he cannot find provincial ministers willing and able to support him."—O. D. Skelton, *Day of Sir Wilfred Laurier* (G. M. Wrong and H. H. Langton, ed., *Chronicles of Canada Series*, v. 30, pp. 62-66).

1898.—Vote on prohibition question. See CANADA: 1898 (September).

20th century.—Education.—Dual language problem. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Canada.

1901-1902.—Census.—Parliamentary representation. See CANADA: 1901-1902.

1909.—Coöperative credit banks established. See RURAL CREDIT: Canada: Quebec.

1912.—Enlarged by receiving part of north-west territories. See CANADA: 1912.

1914-1918.—Attitude towards prohibition. See CANADA: 1914-1918: War time prohibition.

1921.—Electoral system. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

1921.—Liquor problem. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: Canada: 1921.

QUEBEC ACT (1774). See CANADA: 1763-1774; MICHIGAN: 1763-1777; U.S.A.: 1774 (March-April).

QUEBEC RESOLUTIONS. See CANADA: 1867.

QUEBRADA-SECA, Battle of (1862). See VENEZUELA: 1829-1886.

QUECHUAS. See QUICHES.

QUEEN, Origin of the word. See KING.

QUEEN ANNE'S BOUNTY.—The First Fruits and Tithes formerly collected in England by the Popes (see ANNATES) were swept into the royal treasury by Henry VIII, but given to the nation, in 1704, by Queen Anne, for the benefit of the poorer clergy, forming a fund called "Queen Anne's Bounty."

QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.—The wide-ranging conflict which is known in European history as the War of the Spanish Succession, appears in American history more commonly under the name of Queen Anne's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710; CANADA: 1711-1713; U.S.A.: 1690-1748.

QUEEN CHARLOTTE ISLANDS, group off the coast of British Columbia. See BRITISH COLUMBIA; MELANESIA.

QUEEN ELIZABETH, British battleship. It was engaged at the Dardanelles in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a: 1.

QUEEN MARY, British battle cruiser. It was sunk May 31, 1916, at the Battle of Jutland.

QUEEN MARY'S TECHNICAL SCHOOL FOR DISABLED INDIAN SOLDIERS, founded, 1917. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Re-education.

QUEEN MAUD'S MOUNTAINS, range in the Antarctic regions, discovered by Amundsen in 1912. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1911-1912.

QUEENS, Borough of, one of the divisions of Greater New York. See NEW YORK CITY: 1895-1897.

QUEEN'S RIGHTS, War of. See BELGIUM: 1667.

QUEENSBERRY PLOT. See SCOTLAND: 1703-1704.

QUEENSLAND: Geographic description.—"The State of Queensland, situated on the north-east coast of Australia, is the third largest on the continent. [See AUSTRALIA: map.] The coastline is upwards of 2,000 miles, and includes an area of 670,500 square miles. The northern portion is well within the tropics; but even here there are stretches of elevated table-land with a temperate climate, good rainfall, and productive soil. The products are mainly primary of many sorts, direct from the soil. The vast western areas are occupied with ever-increasing herds of cattle and horses and flocks of sheep. The extensive scrub and forests supply a great variety of useful and beautiful timbers in immense quantities. Coal is abundant and widely distributed. Minerals of all grades, precious metals, gold, silver, copper, tin, and exquisite gems of several kinds are freely obtained. On the coast sugar-growing is largely carried on, with cultivation of tropical and sub-tropical fruits, such as bananas, pine-apples, paw-paws, oranges, and lemons. Maize is freely grown in many districts, dairying is a large and growing industry, while considerable areas in the south are productive of wheat and kindred cereals. . . . The capital city, Brisbane, is almost at the extreme south, a few miles up the river. Unlike the other States, there are several large coastal towns which

do their own trade with the outer world, and are gateways to extensive hinterlands. From these ports independent systems of railway have reached out, and these are now being linked up, both along the coast, and towards the western border. A good system of free education has been established, with frequent High and Grammar Schools, and a recently constituted University."—J. Colwell, *Century in the Pacific*, pp. 363-364.

1824-1900.—As a separate colony.—"An uneasy feeling that transportation to New South Wales was loosing all its terrors for evil-doers, and was, in fact, coming to be looked upon as something to be desired, led to the sending to Australia of a Special Commissioner, John Thomas Bigge, . . . to examine and report upon the system of government, the whole question of transportation, and the treatment of convicts. Bigge spent two years in this enquiry, and presented reports which had an important influence on the development of Australia. . . . [Among other things] the formation of out-settlements as places of secondary punishment for convicts of the more troublesome type was recommended. This last recommendation led to the establishment of a penal settlement at Port Macquarie in Northern New South Wales, and a little later (1824) to the foundation of the first permanent settlement in what is now Queensland, the penal colony of Moreton Bay on the Brisbane River. . . . Originally New South Wales nominally included the whole of Eastern Australia."—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia*, pp. 101, 202.—"When the convict establishment was disbanded in 1840, settlement proceeded in much the same way as in the Port Phillip districts. Hitherto immigration into the colony had been mainly across the north-western plains of New South Wales, but so soon as the Moreton Bay district was thrown open to colonization direct immigration from Europe and from the coastal districts of New South Wales was established. Brisbane became the natural outlet for the produce of the hinterland, and agricultural industries were gradually established in the coast lands in the southern portion of the State."—A. J. Herbertson and O. J. R. Howarth, *Oxford survey of the British empire: Australasia*, p. 303.—"For some years after the separation of Victoria, [New South Wales] . . . still took in all the north-east and north of the continent. But with the spread of settlement in the country round Moreton Bay and far to the northward another movement for separation gathered strength. In 1859 the country north of 28° and south as far as Cape York, and westward to 141° east, with a population of nearly 30,000 and an area of over 500,000 square miles, was made an independent colony under the name of Queensland. . . . The new colony had vast areas of rich pasture-land, including some of the finest cattle country in Australia, and fertile and well-watered agricultural tracts. The American Civil War of 1863-1865 made cotton-growing boom in Queensland, and later sugar-growing, carried on with the aid of Kanaka labourers from the South Sea Islands, flourished in the coastal areas. The creation of Queensland left a great block of country between the 141st and 120th parallels of east latitude and extending from the north coast to the northern boundary of South Australia in 26° south, still nominally part of New South Wales, from which it was completely cut off. In 1862 Queensland secured a good slice of this, including much fine pastoral country, by persuading the British Government to move the colony's boundary

westward from 141° to 138° S. It was suggested that Queensland should take over the whole of the region, but it was not prepared to undertake the financial responsibility."—T. Dunbabin, *Making of Australasia*, p. 203.—During the rule of "Sir Arthur Kennedy, who succeeded to the government of Queensland in 1877, . . . a proposal to annex New Guinea to Queensland acquired shape. . . . Missionaries were settled at various points in New Guinea, and there was correspondence as to the necessity for establishing some authority to restrain outrages by Europeans 'on natives of islands beyond the Queensland limits.' Again the Colonial Office was urged to annex the eastern portion of New Guinea, and (Nov. 1878) moved by rumours that gold had been discovered there, and that lawful authority would be needed, Sir Arthur Gordon, the High Commissioner in the Pacific, arrived at the conclusion that annexation would be inevitable in order to avert 'a reign of lawless violence and anarchy.' . . . Again in 1882 the subject of annexation was revived, in consequence of rumours that the French and the Germans were about to intervene there, but the Earl of Derby announced that the government were 'not prepared at present to reopen' the question. In February, 1883, the Queensland Agent-General in London (by letter) urged immediate annexation, and Lord Derby (8th March) called for a report from Sir A. Kennedy 'before so grave a step could be considered.' Before his invitation was received a commercial telegram announced that the Queensland government had (4th April) taken formal possession of New Guinea for Her Majesty [see NEW GUINEA] and Sir John A. Kennedy telegraphed (16th April):—"To prevent foreign powers from taking possession of New Guinea, Queensland government, through Police Magistrate, Thursday Island, took formal possession in Her Majesty's name on 4th instant, pending your decision on my despatch this mail."—G. W. Rusden, *History of Australia*, v. 3, pp. 411-413.—The question of confederation roused comparatively small interest throughout the country, and no representative was sent to the federal convention held at Melbourne. The enabling bill, however, passed in 1899 without difficulty, and later in the year was submitted to a referendum and was accepted by a small majority.—See also AUSTRALIA: 1885-1892; 1900: Federation of Australian colonies.

1884.—Represented at colonial conference at Ottawa. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1894.

1900.—Constitution of Australia ratified. See AUSTRALIA, CONSTITUTION OF.

1909-1921.—Immigration problems. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Australia: 1909-1921.

1912.—Railroad development. See RAILROADS: 1908-1918.

See also AUSTRALIA; CHARITIES: Australasia.

QUEENSTOWN, or Cobh, Ireland, seaport of the city of Cork. Before the American Revolution Cove or Cork, as it was then known, was a small fishing village. In 1901 the population was 7,909. In 1849 the name was changed to Queenstown in honor of Queen Victoria, since it was her first landing place in Ireland. During the World War, Queenstown was the United States naval base for destroyers. The name was again changed to Cobh (Cove) in 1922.

QUEENSTOWN, South Africa, town of Cape province, in the upper valley of the Great Kei river. The population in 1904 was 9,616. It was

founded in 1853 and named after Queen Victoria. Up to 1868 the land was held by the burghers on a military tenure. Queenstown is the center of a wheat and sheep-raising district, and a busy commercial town.

QUEENSTOWN HEIGHTS, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1812 (September-November).

QUELCHES, South American Indian tribe. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

QUERANDIS, or Pehuelches (Puelts), South American Indian tribe. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

QUERETARO, capital of the state of the same name in Mexico, about 110 miles northwest of Mexico City. See MEXICO: 1848-1861; also Map.

QUERO, Italian town, about thirty miles northwest of Treviso. It was in the region of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: c, 5.

QUESADA, Gonzalo Ximénes de (c.1500-c.1579), Spanish adventurer. See COLOMBIA: 1536-1731; BOGOTÁ: Origin.

QUESNAY, François (1694-1774), French economist and physician. One of the founders of the Physiocrats; surgeon to Louis XV. See PHYSIOCRATS; ECONOMICS: 18th century: Physiocrats; FRANCE: 1789: Survey of France on the eve of Revolution: Literary forerunners.

QUESNOY, Siege of. See FRANCE: 1794 (March-July).

QUETELET, Lambert Adolphe Jacques (1796-1874), Belgian statistician and astronomer. See STATISTICS: Early records and census-taking.

QUETTA, locally known as Shal Kot, the capital of British Baluchistan, India, commanding the route between India and southern Afghanistan. (See INDIA: Map.) It is the southernmost point in the line of frontier posts and a system of strategic railways on the frontier of India. Sir Robert Sandeman, the founder of the Baluchistan province, entered the country in 1875. Two years later the cantonment of Quetta was occupied by British troops. In 1883 it was ceded by the Khan to the British on an annual quit-rent of 25,000 rupees. In 1905 when the new staff college for India was established, it was decided to locate it at Quetta, which was the headquarters of the 4th division of the Indian army. The new college was opened on June 1, 1907.

QUEZON, Manuel L., president of the Philippine senate. Leader of the opposition to Governor-General Leonard Wood. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1921-1923.

QUIBERON BAY, arm of the Bay of Biscay, east of Quiberon, France.

1759.—Naval battle. See ENGLAND: 1759 (August-November).

1795.—Defeat of French Royalists. See FRANCE: 1794-1796.

QUICHES AND CAKCHIQUELS.—"Of the ancient races of America, those which approached the nearest to a civilized condition spoke related dialects of a tongue, which from its principal members had been called the Maya-Quiche linguistic stock. Even to-day, it is estimated that half a million persons use these dialects. They are scattered over Yucatan, Guatemala, and the adjacent territory, and one branch formerly occupied the hot lowlands on the Gulf of Mexico, north of Vera Cruz. The so-called 'metropolitan' dialects are those spoken relatively near the city of Guatemala, and include the Cakchiquel, the Quiche, the Pokonchi and the Tzutuhill. They are quite closely allied, and are mutually intelligible, resembling each other about as much as did in ancient Greece the Attic, Ionic and Doric dialects. . . .

The civilization of these people was such that they used various mnemonic signs, approaching our alphabet, to record and recall their mythology and history. Fragments, more or less complete, of these traditions have been preserved. The most notable of them is the national legend of the Quiches of Guatemala, the so-called Popol Vuh. It was written at an unknown date in the Quiche dialect, by a native who was familiar with the ancient records."—D. G. Brinton, *Essays of an Americanist*, p. 104.—See also MAYAS; CENTRAL AMERICA: Aborigines; GUATEMALA: Aborigines, etc.

ALSO IN: G. Brinton, *Annals of the Cakchiquels*.—H. H. Bancroft, *Native races of the Pacific states*, ch. 11.

QUICHUAS, or Quechuas, South American Indian tribe. See GUCK, or COCO, GROUP; GALAPAGOS ISLANDS; PERU: Paternal despotism of the Incas.

QUIDS.—John Randolph of Virginia "had been one of the Republican leaders while the party was in opposition [during the second administration of Washington and the administration of John Adams, as presidents of the United States], but his irritable spirit disqualified him for heading an Administration party. He could attack, but could not defend. He had taken offense at the President's [Jefferson's] refusal to make him Minister to England, and immediately took sides with the Federalists [1805] followed by a number of his friends, though not sufficient to give the Federalists a majority. . . . The Randolph faction, popularly called 'Quids,' gave fresh life to the Federalists in Congress, and made them an active and useful opposition party."—A. Johnston, *History of American politics*, ch. 6, sect. 3.—See also U.S.A. 1808: Sixth presidential election.

QUIETISM. See MYSTICISM.

QUIEVRAIN, town in northern France, about forty miles east of Arras. It was occupied by the Germans during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule in France and Belgium: b, 1.

QUIJOS, South American Indian tribe. See ANDESIANS.

QUIMBY, Harriet, British aviatrix. See AVIATION: Important flights since 1900: 1912.

QUINARIUS, Roman coin. See AS.

QUINCY, Josiah (1772-1864), American statesman, lawyer and author. See U.S.A.: 1807.

QUINCY, Josiah (1859-1919), mayor of Boston, 1895-1899. See BOSTON: 1895-1899.

QUINCY RAILWAY. See RAILROADS: 1826-1850.

QUINDECIMVIRS.—The quindecimvirs, at Rome, had the custody of the Sibylline books.—Based on C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 31.

QUINET, Edgar (1803-1875), French historian. See HISTORY: 30.

QUINETTE, Nicholas Marie (1762-1821), French political leader. See FRANCE: 1792 (September-November).

QUINNIPIACK, early settlement in Connecticut. See CONNECTICUT: 1638.

QUINTANA, Manuel (1838-1906), president of Argentina, 1904-1906. See ARGENTINA: 1904, to 1906.

QUINTANA ROO, part of the peninsula of Yucatan. See YUCATAN: 1911-1918.

QUINTILIAN (Marcus Fabius Quintilianus) (c.35-c.95 A.D.), Roman orator and rhetorician. See LATIN LITERATURE: A.D. 14-117; EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 6th-A.D. 5th centuries.

QUIPU, WAMPUM.—"The Peruvians adopted a . . . unique system of records, that by means of the quipu. This was a base cord, the thickness of the finger, of any required length, to which were attached numerous small strings of different colors, lengths, and textures, variously knotted and twisted one with another. Each of these peculiarities represented a certain number, a quality, quantity, or other idea, but what, not the most fluent quipu reader could tell unless he was acquainted with the general topic treated of. Therefore, whenever news was sent in this manner a person accompanied the bearer to serve as verbal commentator, and to prevent confusion the quipus relating to the various departments of knowledge were placed in separate storehouses, one for war, another for taxes, a third for history, and so forth. On what principle of mnemotechnics the ideas were connected with the knots and colors we are totally in the dark; it has even been doubted whether they had any application beyond the art of numeration. Each combination had, however, a fixed ideographic value in a certain branch of knowledge, and thus the quipu differed essentially from the Catholic rosary, the Jewish phylactery, or the knotted strings of the natives of North America and Siberia, to all of which it has at times been compared. The wampum used by the tribes of the North Atlantic coast was, in many respects, analogous to the quipu. In early times it was composed chiefly of bits of woods of equal size, but different colors. These were hung on strings which were woven into belts and bands, the hues, shapes, sizes, and combinations of the strings hinting their general significance. Thus the lighter shades were invariable harbingers of peaceful or pleasant tidings, while the darker portended war and danger. The substitution of beads or shells in place of wood, and the custom of embroidering figures in the belts were, probably, introduced by European influence."—D. G. Brinton, *Myths of the New World*, ch. 1.—See also **WAMPUM**; **PERU**: 1200-1527.

QUIRE. See **BOOKS**: Evolution.

QUIRINAL.—"The Palatine city was not the only one that in ancient times existed within the circle afterwards enclosed by the Servian walls; opposite to it, in its immediate vicinity, there lay a second city on the Quirinal. . . . Even the name has not been lost by which the men of the Quirinal distinguished themselves from their Palatine neighbors. As the Palatine city took the name of 'the Seven Mounts,' its citizens called themselves the 'mount-men' ('montani'), and the term 'mount,' while applied to the other heights belonging to the city, was above all associated with the Palatine; so the Quirinal height—although not lower,

but on the contrary somewhat higher, than the former—as well as the adjacent Viminal, never in the strict use of the language received any other name than 'hill' ('collis'). . . . Thus the site of the Roman commonwealth was still at this period occupied by the Mount-Romans of the Palatine and the Hill-Romans of the Quirinal as two separate communities confronting each other and doubtless in many respects at feud. . . . That the community of the Seven Mounts early attained a great preponderance over that of the Quirinal may with certainty be inferred."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 1, ch. 4.—The name is now applied to the palace of the King of Italy.—See also **PALATINE HILL**; **SEVEN HILLS OF ROME**.

QUIRITES.—In early Rome the warrior-citizens, the full burgesses, were so-called. "The king, when he addressed them, called them 'lance-men' (quirites). . . . We need not . . . regard the name Quirites as having been originally reserved for the burgesses on the Quirinal. . . . It is indisputably certain that the name Quirites denoted from the first, as well as subsequently, simply the full burgess."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 1, ch. 4-5.—The term quirites, in fact, signified the citizens of Rome as a body. Whether it originally meant "men of the spear," as derived from a Sabine word, is a question in some dispute.—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, bk. 1, ch. 5.

QUIROS, Pedro Fernandez de (c. 1560-c. 1614), Spanish navigator. See **AUSTRALIA**: 1601-1800.

QUITO, ancient kingdom of the Quito Indians in South America. It was conquered by the Incas in the 15th century, and later by the Spaniards.

See **ECUADOR**: Aboriginal kingdom of Quito.

QUITO, former presidency of South America, incorporated into the republic of Colombia by Bolivar in 1821. In 1830 it became a part of the republic of Ecuador. See **COLOMBIA**: 1819-1830.

QUITO, capital of the republic of Ecuador, about 165 miles north of Guayaquil. The population in 1921 was 80,702. Quito is one of the oldest cities in South America. See **LATIN AMERICA**: Map of South America.

QUIVIRA, La Gran, remains of the Piro pueblo of Tabirá, in the southwestern part of the United States. See **PUEBLOS**; **AMERICA**: 1540-1541.

QUORATEAN FAMILY.—"The tribes occupy both banks of the lower Klamath from a range of hills a little above Happy Camp to the junction of the Trinity, and the Salmon River from its mouth to its sources. On the north, Quoratean tribes extended to the Athapascan territory near the Oregon line."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology*, p. 101.

R

R-34, British dirigible balloon. See **AVIATION**: Important flights since 1900: 1919.

R-36, British commercial dirigible balloon. See **AVIATION**: Development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Air service after World War.

RA, Egyptian god. See **MYTHOLOGY**: Egyptian.

RAAB (Hungarian, Györ), city in Hungary, on the Raab river, about sixty-seven miles northwest of Budapest. The population in 1920 was 50,035. It was captured by the Turks in 1529, and again in 1595. See **HUNGARY**: 1526-1567; 1567-1604.

Battle of. See **GERMANY**: 1809 (January-June). **RAAMSES**, or Ramses, treasure city of lower Egypt. See **Jews**: Children of Israel in Egypt.

RABAT KARIM, Battle at. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: VII. Persia and Germany.

RABELAIS, François (c. 1495-c. 1553), French satirist. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1498-1550; **EDUCATION**: Modern: 16th century: Rabelais' Gargantua.

RABINOWITZ, Solomon (pseudonym, Sholem Aleichem) (1859-1916), Jewish humorist. See **Jews**: Language and literature.

RABROVO, Battle of. See **WORLD WAR: 1915:** V. Balkans; b, 4.

RAB-SHAKEH, title of the chief minister of the Assyrian kings. The Rab-Shakeh of Sennacherib demanded the surrender of Jerusalem.

RACE PROBLEMS: Race as a factor in human history.—Race and color.—Modern development of race problem as color problem.—“The term race is popularly used in a very vague way. The newspapers . . . said, during trouble in Poland [following the Russian revolution of 1905], that the Russian soldiers then in Warsaw showed ‘race antipathy’ in their conflicts with the people. We all know, however, that the mutual hatred of Russians and Poles is due mainly to political and religious causes. Frenchmen of the northern provinces who are anthropologically wholly indistinguishable, as Professor Ripley tells us, from the inhabitants of many western German districts, still have what they call a ‘race antipathy’ for the man across the border. Thus almost any *National* or *Political* or *Religious* barrier, if it is old enough, may lead to a consciousness of difference of race. On the other hand, there are of course unquestionable physical varieties of mankind, distinguished by well-known physical contrasts. But the anthropologists still almost hopelessly disagree as to what the accurate classification of these true races may be. . . . The numerous questions and prejudices which are aroused by the contact of the various races of men have always been important factors in human history. They promise, however, to become, in the near future, still more important than they have ever been before. . . . Physically speaking, great masses of men are to-day [brought] into more frequent and closer contact than was formerly possible, because of the ease with which at present numerous means of communication can be used, because of the increase of peaceful migrations, and because of the imperial ambitions of several of the world’s great peoples. . . . When we think of East Indian coolies now present as laborers, side by side with native negroes and with white men in the British West Indies; when we remember the problem of South Africa, as it was impressed upon our minds a few years since, at a moment when Dutchmen and Englishmen fought for the land while Kaffirs and Zulus watched the conflict, . . . we then see that the earliest social problem of humanity is also the most recent problem.”—J. Royce, *Race questions and prejudices* (*International Journal of Ethics*, Apr., 1906).—“When races dwell together on the same ground or in close proximity, as the Magyars and Saxons live among or close to the Roumanians in Transylvania or the Lithuanians near to Poles and Russians, or the Ainos among the Japanese, the more numerous, or otherwise stronger element ultimately absorbs the weaker. Inter-marriage is a more potent factor in the blending process than government or commerce, and inter-marriage always goes on except where checked by differences of colour or differences of Religion. Even these two causes may not be permanent. The latter at any rate seems likely to lose some of its power and colour repulsion is strong only among the Teutonic peoples.”—J. Bryce, *Race sentiment*, p. 34.—The term “race problem” refers, in particular, to the situation which arises when one or the other of the colored races is thrown in close contact with white men. “It is only superficially that color and physiognomy divide the cultivated races. The fundamental differences are economical and social. The religious differences are rather phases and results of these, and are intertwined with both. In our modern world the economic difference is by

far the most important; it is the gap between the Eastern standard of comfort and the Western that makes the two stand so far apart. The long quarantine of Oriental labor in its three great centers, China, India and Japan, dragged the standard down into the closest proximity to starvation; nothing but periodical famines and plagues, sweeping out their millions, made any progress, even the most infinitesimal, possible. When the bulk of a people are at the intermittent mercy of these two brooms of humanity, there must be stagnation, in spite of occasional spurts of progress. To admit this Eastern standard into immediate competition with the Western would end in dragging the latter down more than raising the former up. Western nations must, in order to save themselves from the long stagnation of the East, exclude Eastern labor till its standard is greatly raised. That this process of elevation has begun we can see. In India famines and plagues, thanks to British rule, have no longer the omnipotence they had; and education and Western manufacture and markets are raising the value and wages of labor. . . . Almost as important a differentiation of ideal is the position of woman. All these Eastern centers still abase her not only in social but in household life. This is perhaps the more patent difference in ideals; but it is not the more potent; for the Western emancipation of woman is comparatively recent; what made it easy was the monogamy of Western peoples. The process will be longer in the East because of the long recognition and approval of polygamy. There can be no real admixture of the races till the position of woman in the household is as secure in Japan as in the West. In India and China the process will be much more prolonged because they are not insular, and hence are not easily opened to foreign influences and ideas. But the growth of Western education in both is quickening the life and will lead to vast social and political changes. Japan is the only Eastern nation that the Western people on the Pacific have to fear; for she has Westernized most efficiently in arts, sciences and armaments. But with the advantages of Westernism she must take, and is rapidly taking, its defects; in her future wars there will be less patriotism, less concentration of power and less national plasticity.”—J. M. Brown, *Pacific ocean in racial history of mankind* (*Journal of Race Development*, July, 1911).—See also **EUROPE:** Introduction to historic period: Distribution of races.

Problem of mixed races.—Mental inferiority of negro questioned.—“On the borderland between the great races of the earth, where the white Caucasian comes in contact with the Negro, the brown Caucasian, the Mongol and the Amerindian, a grave problem has been created by the fusion of the white with the coloured races. In Africa and India the question is especially difficult. The white man has mingled his blood with that of the native races, and then, like Amnon, in the domestic history of the house of David, has turned upon his action, and scorned the victims of his blandishments. That constitutes the problem: What is to become of the ‘coloured people’ in Africa, and the great Eurasian community in India?”—A. J. Macdonald, *Trade politics and Christianity in Africa and the East*, p. 233.—Of all the race problems which face western civilization in the twentieth century, the one which is most difficult of solution is that of the negro and negroid races, and their place in the world. Formerly, the problem was simplified by the belief that the negro was mentally inferior to the white man, but this is now being questioned by some modern authorities. “In

a discussion of the mental differences between one race and another, it should be borne in mind that when we talk about the characteristics of a race as a whole, we are dealing with an abstraction which has no existence in nature, . . . [and] the degree of variability in each race is very great. . . . In a comparison between the negro and the North European we may safely say that the traits of the negro are so characteristic that they are not duplicated among the whites and that there is a distinct gap between the extreme variants in these two cases. . . . In a discussion of the physiological side of the negro problem we are most immediately interested in the functioning of the brain. It is true that, on the average, the brain of the negro is slightly smaller than the brain of the European. But here the enormous variability in the size and structure of the brain in both the white and the negro races should be borne in mind. . . . Whether or not there is a difference in the number of cells and connective fibres in the brains of the two races is an open question. . . . In relation to . . . [the] question of the mental ability of the negro, the study of primitive life in Africa seems most significant. The contrast presented by African industrial and political conditions and conditions among . . . [the] poor negroes [of the United States] is very striking. Instead of shiftlessness, we find in Africa highly developed native arts. Excellent work in weaving, carving, pottery, blacksmithing, and even metal casting and glass blowing, is done by the black races either all over the African continent or at least locally. Industrially, the African negro is in advance of most other primitive tribes. His political organization reminds one strongly of the political conditions in mediæval Europe. . . . An important phase of the negro problem in . . . [the United States] relates to the position of the mulatto. The common saying is that he inherits all the bad qualities of both races. Socially this may be true in many cases, and it can readily be understood. If, however, the attempt is made to prove the biological inferiority of the mulatto, we are confronted by the fact that no evil results are found in the mixed populations of Africa in the northern borderland of the negro country, where Mediterranean races and negroes have intermarried, and also by the fact that under favorable conditions the mulatto is healthy and may attain to great eminence, as in the cases of Dumas and Pushkin. . . . Even if there is neither a biological nor a psychological justification for the popular belief in the inferiority of the negro race, the social basis of the race prejudice in America is not difficult to understand. The prejudice is founded essentially on the tendency of the human mind to merge the individual in the class to which he belongs, and to ascribe to him all the characteristics of his class. . . . To the popular mind, the negro appears as a class, and the impressions made by the life of the poor negro are generalized by the white man and are combined with dogmatic beliefs regarding the physical and hereditary mental make-up of the race. . . . It is claimed by many that the negro problem is economic rather than racial, that the fear of negro competition causes racial opposition. Obviously, this explanation also would not hold good if the tendency did not exist to treat the negro as a class, not as an individual. The economic conflict may be a contributing cause that accentuates the pre-existing feeling of the contrast between whites and negroes. This feeling may be emphasized in many ways—by economic interest, by questions of social privilege, or by any other social process

that brings about conflicts of interest between large groups of whites and negroes. It would, however, be an error to seek in these sources the fundamental cause for the antagonism; for the economic conflict, as well as the other conflicts, presupposes the social recognition of the classes."—F. Boas, *Problem of the American negro* (*Yale Review*, Jan., 1921).

Previous to 1900.—Absence of problem where two races do not compete as equals.—South America.—"One may say that there is no 'colour question' in South America. . . . Although both in Spanish America and in the United States there are social distinctions which coincide with race distinctions, the character of those distinctions is different. In both countries there are two sections. But in the United States everyone who is not white is classed as coloured, however slight the trace. In Spanish America everyone who is not wholly Indian is classed as white, however marked the Indian tinge. Thus the mixed population, which in the United States swells the negro element, is in Spanish America a part of the white nation, and helps to give that element its preponderance. And a further difference appears in the fact that whereas in the United States the man of colour is discriminated against for social purposes, irrespective of his wealth, education, or personal qualities, in Spanish countries race counts for so little that when he emerges out of the poverty and ignorance which mark the Indian, his quality with the white man is admitted. So rarely, however, does he emerge that one may broadly say that the Nation consists in these republics of white men and mestizos only, the Indian constituting, if not another nation, yet a separate nationality, marked off not merely by poverty, but by its language and the adherence of its members to ancient superstitions. They have nothing, except the worship of the saints and a fondness for liquor, in common with the class above them, for they speak a different language, think differently, feel differently, have their own amusements, and cherish, in a dim way, faint memories of a time when their forefathers were masters of the land. They are not actively hostile to the white people, and, indeed, get on better with their landlords than some European peasantries have done with theirs. But they live apart, inside the nation, but not of it. . . . If it is asked how the presence of this solid Indian mass, unassimilated by the white nation, has affected that nation and the progress of the country as a whole, the answer is that in the first place it prevented all chance of the growth of a free European agricultural population even in those high valleys where Europeans could work and thrive; . . . and besides the weakening of the state by the lack of national spirit in half of its population, the presence of a large mass of ignorance and superstition has operated to reduce the general intellectual level. There have been countries where a small rich and ruling class, living on the toil of inferiors, has cultivated art and letters with brilliant success, but we find nothing of the sort here. The ignorant mass has depressed the whole, as a glacier chills the air of its valley. Whether the Spanish stock has deteriorated through the mixture of Indian blood is a more difficult matter to determine. The Peruvians and Bolivians of today, both whites and mestizos—and the same thing is true of Venezuelans and Ecuadoreans—differ much from the Spaniards of the sixteenth century and from the European Spaniard of today. They are probably more excitable: they are naturally less industrious because they live in hot countries and have Indians to work for them. But

in Spain itself, . . . the Catalans are more energetic than the Andalusians, the Gallegos more industrious than the Valencians. . . . Moreover, our knowledge of heredity in its influence on race development is still imperfect. The Argentines, who are of an almost pure white stock, also differ much from the modern Spaniard. [See ARGENTINA: Population.] It might seem natural to assume *a priori* that men of pure European race would continue to hold the foremost place in these countries, and would show both greater talents and a more humane temper than those in whose veins Indian blood flows. But I doubt if the facts support such a view. Some of the most forceful leaders who have figured in the politics of these republics have been mestizos. . . . Of the four northern republics, Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, and Ecuador, . . . the number of purely Spanish families is small. It is probably largest in Colombia. In Venezuela the Indians have been more largely absorbed into the general population than has happened in Colombia and Ecuador. In all four states such of the Indians as remain wild forest dwellers are passive, and practically outside the nation, which is, as a social and political entity, predominantly mestizo. What has been said of Peru and Bolivia is true of these states also: there is no colour line: the mestizos are treated as white and are not, as a class, intellectually inferior to the white. The Indian forms the lowest stratum, and seldom rises out of it. There remains Brazil, distinguished from the other republics by the fact that in addition to her small mestizo population and her pure Indian population, most of it wild, she has a great mass of negroes and a still larger mass of mulattoes and quadroons. It is hardly too much to say that along the coast from Rio to Bahia and Pernambuco, as well as in parts of the interior behind these two cities, the black population predominates. In character and habits it somewhat resembles the negroes of the British West Indies and Santo Domingo, being superior to the Haytians, but inferior in education and enterprise to the coloured people of the southern states of North America. High as is its fecundity, its death-rate is also so high, owing to the general neglect of sanitary precautions, that it does not appear to be increasing relatively to the general population. It is well treated—slavery was seldom harsh among the kindly natured, easy-going Portuguese—and bears no ill-will to its former masters. Neither do they feel towards it that repulsion which marks the attitude of the whites to the negroes in North America and South Africa. The Brazilian lower class intermarries freely with the black people: the Brazilian middle class intermarries with mulattoes and quadroons. Brazil is the one country in the world, besides the Portuguese colonies on the east and west coasts of Africa, in which a fusion of the European and African races is proceeding unchecked by law or custom. The doctrines of human equality and human solidarity have here their perfect work. The result is so far satisfactory that there is little or no class friction. The white man does not lynch or maltreat the negro: indeed, I have never heard of a lynching anywhere in South America except occasionally as part of a political convulsion. The negro is not accused of insolence and does not seem to develop any more criminality than naturally belongs to any ignorant population with loose notions of morality and property. The chief conclusion which the history of the relations of races in the South American continent suggests are the three following. The first may be thought doubtful.

It is negative rather than positive, and though it seems worth stating, I state it with diffidence: The fusion of two parent stocks, one more advanced, the other more backward, does not necessarily result in producing a race inferior to the stronger parent or superior to the weaker. The Mestizo in Peru is not palpably inferior in intellect to the Spanish colonial of unmixed blood, but seems to be substantially his equal. The Mestizo in Mexico is not palpably superior—some doubt if he is at all superior either physically, morally, or intellectually—to the pure Tarascan or Zapotec Indian, who is, no doubt, a stronger human being than the South American Quichua or Aymara. The second conclusion is this: Conquest and control by a race of greater strength have upon some races a depressing and almost ruinous effect. The Peruvian subjects of the Incas had reached a state of advancement which, though much below that of the ancient Egyptians and Babylonians, was remarkable when one considers that their isolation deprived them of the enormous benefit of contact with other progressive peoples, and when one considers also the disadvantage of living at a great altitude, the absence of milk-yielding animals, and the paucity both of animals capable of domestication and of cereal plants. The impact of Spanish invasion not only shattered their own rudimentary civilization to pieces, but so took all the heart and spirit out of them that they have made practically no advances during four centuries, and have profited hardly at all by the western civilization of their masters. The aborigines of Mexico, having more stamina of intellect and will, have suffered less by the shock, but have done almost as little to assimilate the arts and ideas of Europe. Thirdly, the ease with which the Spaniards have intermingled by marriage with the Indian tribes—and the Portuguese have done the like, not only with the Indians, but with the more physically dissimilar negroes—shews that race repugnance is no such constant and permanent factor in human affairs as members of the Teutonic peoples are apt to assume. Instead of being, as we Teutons suppose, the rule in this matter, we are rather the exception, for in the ancient world there seems to have been little race repulsion: there is very little to-day among Mohammedans: there is none among Chinese. This seems to suggest that since the phenomenon is not of the essence of human nature, it may not be always as strong among the Teutonic peoples as it is to-day. Religion has been in the past almost as powerful a dissevering force as has racial antagonism. In the case of Spaniards and Portuguese, religion, so soon as the Indians had been baptized, made race differences seem insignificant. Islam has always done this in the East and in Africa.”—J. Bryce, *South America*, pp 473-482.

1705-1895.—Negro problem in the United States.—Its first appearance.—Development up to 1900.—“What was the Negro Problem? It was certainly not merely a question of slavery; in the last analysis this institution was hardly more than an incident. Slavery has ceased to exist, but even to-day the problem is with us. The question was rather what was to be the final place in the American body politic of the Negro population that was so rapidly increasing in the country. In the answering of this question supreme importance attached to the Negro himself; but the problem soon transcended the race. Ultimately it was the destiny of the United States rather than of the Negro that was to be considered, and all the ideals on which the country was based came to the testing. . . . The history of the Negro peo-

ple in the United States falls into well defined periods or epochs. First of all there was the colonial era, extending from the time of the first coming of Negroes to the English colonies to that of the Revolutionary War. This divides into two parts, with a line coming at the year 1705. Before this date the exact status of the Negro was more or less undefined; the system of servitude was only gradually passing into the sterner one of slavery; and especially in the middle colonies there was considerable intermixture of the races. By the year 1705, however, it had become generally established that the Negro was to be regarded not as a person but as a thing; and the next seventy years were a time of increasing numbers, but of no racial coherence or spiritual outlook, only a spasmodic insurrection here and there indicating the yearning for a better day. With the Revolution there came a change, and the second period extends from this war to the Civil War. This also divides into two parts, with a line at the year 1830. In the years immediately succeeding the Revolution there was put forth the first effective effort toward racial organization; . . . but, in spite of a new racial consciousness, the great mass of the Negro people remained in much the same situation as before, the increase in numbers incident to the invention of the cotton-gin only intensifying the ultimate problem. About the year 1830, however, the very hatred and ignominy that began to be visited upon the Negro indicated that at least he was no longer a thing but a person. Lynching began to grow apace, burlesque on the stage tended to depreciate and humiliate the race, and the South became definitely united in its defense of the system of slavery. On the other hand, the Abolitionists challenged the attitude that was becoming popular; the Negroes themselves began to be prosperous and to hold conventions; and Nat Turner's insurrection thrust baldly before the American people the great moral and economic problem with which they had to deal. With such divergent opinions, in spite of feeble attempts at compromise, there could be no peace until the issue of slavery at least was definitely settled. The third great period extends from the Civil War to the opening of the great war in Europe. Like the others it also falls into two parts, the division coming at the year 1895. The thirty years from 1865 to 1895 may be regarded as an era in which the race, now emancipated, was mainly under the guidance of political ideals. Several men went to Congress and popular education began to be emphasized; but the difficulties of Reconstruction and the outrages of the Ku Klux Klan [see Ku Klux Klan] were succeeded by an enveloping system of peonage, and by 1890-1895 the pendulum had swung fully backward and in the South disfranchisement had been arrived at as the concrete solution of the political phase of the problem."—B. G. Brawley, *Social history of the American negro*, pp. 116, 372-373.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Negroes; BALTIMORE: 1871-1915; NORTH CAROLINA: 1898; 1900.

1855-1907.—Australasia.—Genesis of Chinese problem.—Imperial complications in Hindu problem.—"Long traffic with China ports by European nations had, by the middle of the nineteenth century, set up a natural leakage of individual Chinese into almost all of the countries bordering on the Pacific. Everywhere the unsurpassed industrial qualities of the Chinese conquered for them a livelihood and often a competence. Employers appreciated their patience, their sobriety,

their docility, and their capacity; and on the whole they were made welcome. But herein lay the elements of an economic problem to which no European government could close its eyes for long. . . . By the end of 1887 Chinese were denied free access to any part of Australia. Moreover, by discriminating under the factory laws in that year, Victoria took the initiative in a programme of social conservation, which later became the guiding principle of legislation throughout Australia and New Zealand. . . . In December, 1887, China took up officially in London the question of the treatment of Chinese nationals in British dominions. . . . [Just at this moment an influx of Chinese into unoccupied territory was reported, and at the same time Chinese immigrants in excess of the statutory quota arrived in Sydney and Melbourne. An act was hastily passed by New South Wales, however, and these latter were not allowed to land. Immediately afterwards South Australia proposed a colonial conference, which was held in June, 1888. The colonies to whom the question had been submitted by the colonial office] recommended that the Imperial Government should endeavour to get a treaty with China, under which Chinese should be entirely excluded, with the exception of officials, travellers, merchants, and students; and in the meantime they agreed to standardise their own legislation by leaving out the poll-tax, and making the passenger limitation one to every 500 tons of the ship's register. . . . In 1896 a conference of Australasian premiers at Sydney decided to apply the anti-Chinese restrictions to other Asiatics. . . . [But all legislation was reserved] pending the meeting of the Imperial Conference in 1897. In welcoming the delegates, Chamberlain spoke very seriously and sympathetically on the Asiatic problem. The British Empire, he said, contained an empire of 300,000,000 Asiatics, all as loyal to the Crown as the delegates themselves, and including many hundreds of thousands every whit as civilized as the white races. . . . He advised the conference to confine its attention to the character of the immigrants and not to their colour. . . . No decision was come to at the conference, but Chamberlain persevered, and later in the year was able to inform the Australian colonies that Japan also would accept the exclusion of her people by means of the language test. . . . That the language test did not, however, completely settle the Asiatic problem was evident when the Commonwealth proceeded in its earliest days to put into effect the 'White Australia' policy to which it was committed from its birth."—G. H. Scholefield, *Pacific, its past and future*, pp. 231-234, 236-237.—See also JAPAN: 1905-1914.

1880-1906.—Anti-Chinese agitation in the United States and Canada.—Treaties suppressing immigration of laborers.—Chinese boycott.—Protest of President Roosevelt.—Restriction on Chinese immigration in Canada.—"Oriental emigration developed with the improved means of transportation in the latter half of the nineteenth century. . . . The motives for this emigration were exactly the same as those which attracted European emigrants to the United States at the same time. They were primarily economic, the desire to better one's self. Great opportunities existed in California, the land of gold, and every Chinese hoped to make a fortune in a few years and then return to his native district. For this reason very few women accompanied the vigorous pioneers, whose stay, it was hoped, would be but brief. The United States, in those days, welcomed European immigration. . . . Those who came from northern Europe were easily assim-

lated by the old British stock, and in comparison with the people of the colored races all the Europeans were easily absorbed. . . . But the Chinese and Japanese usually remained apart. They were different in color and culture. For mutual benefit and protection they tended to live together in groups. . . . After the immigration question began to be studied, the dangers of mass immigration were pointed out. By this was meant the immigration of peoples from any part of the world in such numbers that they would form homogeneous groups or masses, which would maintain their national language, customs, and standards of living. . . . Asiatic immigration, if unregulated, would tend to the mass type. Chinese were the first Oriental immigrants to enter California after the American occupation. . . . At first they were well received. They were peaceful, industrious, thrifty, and honest, and there was work enough for all to do and wages were high. But within a few years objections were raised against them. . . . These objections may be summed up as: (1) social—they were said to be unassimilable, with strange and repellent manners, customs, and ideals; (2) economic—they were cheap labor, with a low standard of living, able and willing to work for less than a white man's wage; (3) moral—they engaged in opium-smoking, incessant gambling, and other vices; (4) political—if their numbers were not checked, they would soon overrun and control the whole Pacific Coast. . . . The desire of most Californians that Chinese immigration be restricted was a proper one, but the measures taken by the local officials and by many of the citizens were, in many cases, absolutely indefensible. The story of the mistreatment of the Chinese in California and other Western States is a discreditable page in American history."—P. J. Treat, *Japan and the United States, 1853-1921*, pp. 251-252.—Efforts to restrict immigration by legislation were unavailing; but in 1880 a treaty was made between the United States and China, which, on the part of the United States, had the intention of excluding Chinese laborers. The preamble of this act states that "Whereas, in the eighth year of Hsien Feng, Anno Domini 1858, a treaty of peace and friendship was concluded between the United States of America and China, and to which were added, in the seventh year of Tung Chih, Anno Domini 1868, certain supplementary articles to the advantage of both parties, *which supplementary articles were to be perpetually observed and obeyed*; and, Whereas the Government of the United States because of the constantly increasing immigration of Chinese laborers to the territory of the United States, and the embarrassments consequent upon such immigration, now desires to negotiate a *modification of the existing Treaties which shall not be in direct contravention of their spirit*: Now, therefore," etc. The following are the four articles of the treaty thus explained:

Article 1. Whenever in the opinion of the Government of the United States the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States, or their residence therein, affects or threatens to affect the interests of that country, or to endanger the good order of the said country or of any locality within the territory thereof, the Government of China agrees that the Government of the United States may regulate, limit or suspend such coming or residence, *but may not absolutely prohibit it. The limitation or suspension shall be reasonable, and shall apply only to Chinese who may go to*

the United States as laborers, other classes not being included in the limitations. Legislation taken in regard to Chinese laborers will be of such a character only as is necessary to enforce the regulation, limitation, or suspension of immigration, and immigrants shall not be subject to personal maltreatment or abuse.

Art. II. Chinese subjects, whether proceeding to the United States as teachers, students, merchants or from curiosity, together with their body and household servants, and Chinese laborers who are now in the United States *shall be allowed to go and come of their own free will and accord, and shall be accorded all the rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions which are accorded to the citizens and subjects of the most favored nation.*

Art. III. If Chinese laborers, or Chinese of any other class, now either permanently or temporarily residing in the territory of the United States, meet with illtreatment at the hands of any other persons, the Government of the United States will exert all its power to devise measures for their protection and to secure to them the same rights, privileges, immunities and exemptions as may be enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation, and to which they are entitled by treaty.

Art. IV. The high contracting powers having agreed upon the foregoing articles, whenever the Government of the United States shall adopt legislative measures in accordance therewith, such measures will be communicated to the Government of China. If the measures as enacted are found to work hardship upon the subjects of China, the Chinese minister at Washington may bring the matter to the notice of the Secretary of State of the United States, who will consider the subject with him; and the Chinese Foreign Office may also bring the matter to the notice of the United States minister at Peking and consider the subject with him, to the end that mutual and unqualified benefit may result.

This is the latest of the still obligatory engagements by treaty that bear on the admission of visitors or immigrants from China to the United States. Hence the Government of the United States is now under the engagements which it made with the Government of China in 1880, which included an engagement to be faithful to the hospitable spirit of the compact of 1868. When one has looked over those engagements of national honor, it seems hard to harmonize them in spirit, or even in letter, with some of the enactments which are regulating, at the present day, the treatment of people from China who venture to approach the entry ports of the United States. Such for example, as the following, from "the Act of May 6, 1882, as amended and added to by the Act of July 5, 1884":

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the passage of this act, and until the expiration of ten years next after the passage of this act, the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States be, and the same is hereby suspended, and during such suspension it shall not be lawful for any Chinese laborer to come from any foreign port or place, or having so come to remain within the United States.

Sec. 2. That the master of any vessel who shall knowingly bring within the United States

on such vessel, and land, or attempt to land, or permit to be landed any Chinese laborer, from any foreign port or place, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine of not more than five hundred dollars for each and every such Chinese laborer so brought and may also be imprisoned for a term not exceeding one year. . . .

Sect. 6. That in order to the faithful execution of the provisions of this act, every Chinese person, other than a laborer, who may be entitled by said treaty or this act to come within the United States, and who shall be about to come to the United States, shall obtain the permission of and be identified as so entitled by the Chinese Government, or of such other foreign government of which at the time such Chinese person shall be a subject, in each case to be evidenced by a certificate issued by such Government, which certificate shall be in the English language, and shall show such permission, with the name of the permitted person in his or her proper signature, and which certificate shall state the individual, family, and tribal name in full, title or official rank, if any, the age, height, and all physical peculiarities, former and present occupation or profession, when and where and how long pursued, and place of residence of the person to whom the certificate is issued, and that such person is entitled by this act to come within the United States.

If the person so applying for a certificate shall be a merchant, said certificate shall in addition to above requirements, state the nature, character, and estimated value of the business carried on by him prior to and at the time of his application as aforesaid: *Provided*, That nothing in this act nor in said treaty shall be construed as embracing within the meaning of the word "merchant," hucksters, peddlers, or those engaged in taking, drying, or otherwise preserving shell or other fish for home consumption or exportation.

If the certificate be sought for the purpose of travel for curiosity, it shall also state whether the applicant intends to pass through or travel within the United States, together with his financial standing in the country from which such certificate is desired.

The certificate provided for in this act, and the identity of the person named therein shall, before such person goes on board any vessel to proceed to the United States, be vised by the indorsement of the diplomatic representatives of the United States in the foreign country from which such certificate issues, or of the consular representative of the United States at the port or place from which the person named in the certificate is about to depart; and such diplomatic representative or consular representative whose indorsement so required is hereby empowered, and it shall be his duty, before indorsing such certificate as aforesaid, to examine into the truth of the statements set forth in said certificate, and if he shall find upon examination that said or any of the statements therein contained are untrue it shall be his duty to refuse to indorse the same.

Such certificate vised as aforesaid shall be prima facie evidence of the facts set forth therein, and shall be produced to the Chinese inspector in charge of the port in the district in the United States at which the person named therein shall arrive, and afterward produced to the proper authorities of the United States whenever lawfully demanded, and shall be the sole evidence permissible on the part of the person so producing the same to establish a right of entry into the

United States; but said certificate may be controverted and the facts therein stated disproved by the United States authorities.

It will be observed that Article IV of the Treaty of 1880 provides that, if measures enacted in the United States "are found to work hardship upon the subjects of China, the Chinese minister at Washington may bring the matter to the notice of the Secretary of State of the United States, who will consider the subject with him." One who consults the annual reports that are published, of "Papers relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States," will find that the Chinese Minister at Washington has had occasion very often to bring cases of the kind thus referred to in the Treaty to the notice of the Secretary of State, and discovered, when he did so, almost invariably that under the enactments complained of the Secretary of State had no power even to "consider the subject" of complaint with him. Wu Ting-fang, who represented China at Washington in 1900-2, had much correspondence on such matters with Secretary Hay, whose sympathetic friendliness to China was well proved. Resentful feeling aroused in China by the immigration and exclusion laws of the United States, in their special application to incoming Chinese and in the harshness of their administration, began to have expression at Shanghai in May, 1905, when resolutions were adopted at a meeting of the merchant guilds of that city which initiated an extensive boycotting of American goods and of everything connected with America. A report of the meeting and of its recommendations was sent to all parts of the empire and elicited a quick and general response. The undertaking of the movement was to stop the buying of American goods; socially to ostracise tradesmen who continue to handle them, and to render no service to Americans in China, except for higher pay than is demanded from others. This boycotting attitude of large numbers in China was persisted in throughout the year, and not only made itself felt seriously in commercial circles, but impressed the American public with a proper sense of the indignities they were allowing to be imposed on a people who deserve their respect. The president (Roosevelt), in his Message to Congress at the opening of the session in December, dealt justly with the subject, as follows:

"The conditions in China are such that the entire Chinese coolie class, that is, the class of Chinese laborers, skilled and unskilled, legitimately come under the head of undesirable immigrants to this country, because of their numbers, the low wages for which they work, and their low standard of living. Not only is it to the interest of this country to keep them out, but the Chinese authorities do not desire that they should be admitted. At present their entrance is prohibited by laws amply adequate to accomplish this purpose. These laws have been, are being, and will be, thoroughly enforced. . . . But in the effort to carry out the policy of excluding Chinese laborers, Chinese coolies, grave injustice and wrong have been done by this Nation to the people of China, and therefore ultimately to this Nation itself."—*President's Message to Congress, Dec. 5, 1905*.—No effective impression on the moral sense of the rationality of Congress was made by the president's appeal, and the laws which are contemptuous of national treaties and indifferent to the national honor remain on the statute books unchanged. That others than the president in the Federal administration felt the wrong and the

shame of the law which it had to administer, was shown by an article from the pen of the secretary of commerce and labor, published in the spring of 1908. The following are some passages from the article:

"It is not the policy of the Government with reference to Chinese immigration, but the manner in which it is, of necessity, carried out, by reason of the way in which the laws are framed, that causes constant friction and dissatisfaction. . . . The attitude of the Chinese Government may be inferred from the fact that in 1904, after the convention of 1894 had been in force ten years, China availed herself of her reserved right and formally denounced the treaty, refusing longer to be a party to an arrangement which, as carried into effect, was offensive to her national pride. . . .

"For proof of the feeling of the Chinese people it is only necessary to refer to the boycott of American goods, inaugurated by various trade guilds and business and commercial associations of the Empire during the summer of 1905. At that time China held first rank among Oriental countries as a consumer of American products. In that year, her total commerce amounted to \$497,000,000, of which \$329,000,000 were imports; \$57,000,000, or more than seventeen per cent., being supplied by the United States. . . . It was reasonable to believe that American trade would continue to progress and a larger and larger share of the foreign trade of China [would] accrue to the United States. Instead of that, the exports of the United States to China, according to our statistics, fell to \$44,000,000 in 1906, and to \$26,000,000 in 1907.

"It is not necessary to attribute the decline wholly to the boycott of 1905, but a drop in our exportations to that country of fifty per cent. in two years is sufficiently startling to challenge attention. But on higher grounds than those of mere commercial interest should the frame of the laws be changed. . . .

"I would not suggest a change in the established policy of rigidly excluding Chinese laborers of every description, both skilled and unskilled. . . . But, at a time when this policy of exclusion has been so thoroughly applied that there remain in the United States only about 70,000 Chinese, . . . little danger need be apprehended from a full and fair reconsideration of the subject and a re-casting of the laws upon a juster basis. . . .

"By making admission the rule, and exclusion the exception, we could easily preserve the present policy in all its integrity, and even strengthen the real prohibitory features thereof, at the same time entirely removing a material cause of friction, dissatisfaction and unnecessary humiliation to the people of a friendly nation."—O. S. Straus, *Spirit and letter of exclusion* (*North American Review*, Apr., 1908).

A much stronger expression was given to the shamed feeling of honorable Americans on this subject by former Secretary of State John W. Foster, in an article written in 1906, in which he said: "I do not know how I can better illustrate the kind of protection, or want of protection, extended to the Chinese, as guaranteed by the Constitution, the treaties, and the solemn promises of the government of the United States, than by recalling a notorious case which occurred . . . [in Boston] and under the conduct of Federal officials. At about half past seven o'clock on the evening of Sunday, October 11, 1902, a number of United States officials of Boston, New York, and other cities charged with the administration of the

Chinese exclusion laws, assisted by a force of the local police, made a sudden and unexpected descent upon the Chinese quarter of Boston. The police and immigration officials fell upon their victims without giving a word of warning. The clubs, restaurants, other public places where Chinese congregated, and private houses were surrounded. Every avenue of escape was blocked. To those seized no warrant for arrest or other paper was read or shown. Every Chinese who did not at once produce his certificate of residence was taken in charge and the unfortunate ones were rushed off to the Federal Building without further ceremony. . . . In many cases no demand was made for certificates, the captives were dragged off to imprisonment, and in some instances the demand was not made till late at night or the next morning, when the certificates were in the possession of the victims at the time of their seizure. . . . About two hundred and fifty Chinese were thus arrested and carried off to the Federal Building. Here they were crowded into two small rooms where only standing space could be had, from eight o'clock in the evening, all through the night, and many of them till late in the afternoon of the next day. . . . Some of them were released during the night, when relatives brought their certificates or merchants were identified. But the greater part were kept till the next day, when the publicity of the press brought friends, or relief through legal proceedings. . . . So strong was the indignation of the respectable citizens of Boston, that a large public meeting was held in Faneuil Hall to denounce the action of the immigration officials and the police. . . . It was announced by the immigration officials that their raid was organized under the belief that there were a number of Chinese in Boston and its vicinity unlawfully in the United States, and this method was adopted for discovering them. The official report of the chief officer soon after the event showed that two hundred and thirty-four Chinese were imprisoned, that one hundred and twenty-one were released without trial or requirement of bail, and that only five had so far been deported, but that he hoped that he might secure the conviction and deportation of fifty; as a matter of fact, however, the deportations fell much below that number. . . . [Even the treaty of 1880] which had been obtained from China so reluctantly, yet with the generous exhibition of friendship on her part just described, did not prove satisfactory to the increasing demands of the labor unions. Before ten years were passed, under the spur and excitement of the presidential campaign of 1888, and upon the hesitation of the Chinese government to make a further treaty modification, the Scott Act was passed by Congress, which was a deliberate violation of the treaty of 1880, and was so declared by the Supreme Court; but under our peculiar system it became the law of the land. Our government had thus flagrantly disregarded its solemn treaty obligations. Senator Sherman, then chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, stated in the Senate that we had furnished China a just cause for war."—J. W. Foster, *Chinese boycott* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Jan., 1906).—See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1862-1913.—In Canada the opposition of organized labor to Asiatic immigration, on the Canadian Pacific coast, directed first against an influx of Chinese, brought about, in 1904, the imposition of a head-tax of \$500 on every person of Chinese origin entering Canada thereafter, with the following exceptions: (a) The members of the diplomatic corps, or other

government representatives, their suites and their servants, and consuls and consular agents; (b) The children born in Canada of parents of Chinese origin and who have left Canada for educational or other purposes, on substantiating their identity to the satisfaction of the controller at the port or place where they seek to enter on their return; (c) Merchants, their wives and children, the wives and children of clergymen, tourists, men of science and students, who shall substantiate their status to the satisfaction of the controller, subject to the approval of the Minister, or who are bearers of certificates of identity, or other similar documents issued by the government or by a recognized official or representative of the government whose subjects they are, specifying their occupation and their object in coming into Canada."—See also below: 1903-1908.

1903-1908.—Anti-Indian agitation in British dominions.—South Africa.—Australia.—Canada.

—When the twentieth century opened to the anti-Chinese agitation was added anti-Indian agitation in the British dominions and the anti-Japanese feeling in the Pacific dominions and the United States. The anti-Indian feeling involved special difficulties inasmuch as India is a part of the British empire. In the Transvaal the problem was a legacy from the Boer government, Indian merchants and others, attracted by the tales of easily made wealth, had pressed into the country, and had been opposed by the Kruger government. "Before the Boer-British War, there had been Indian complaints of ill-treatment in the Transvaal, which added something to the controversies of Great Britain with the South African Republic. After the war, when British authority had become supreme at Pretoria, it found a legacy of existing law which was embarrassing at once. The situation was described in a despatch of May 11, 1903, from Viscount Milner, the British High Commissioner, to the Colonial Secretary at London, Mr. Chamberlain, in which he attempted to exhibit, as he said, 'the difficulty which besets any kind of action on this thorny question.' The Government, he wrote, is 'between two fires. On the one hand, it is accused of not enforcing the present law with sufficient strictness and is called upon to legislate in the direction of a complete exclusion of Asiatics except as indentured labourers. Even in that capacity, their introduction meets with strenuous opposition. On the other hand, the Asiatics, of whom British Indians form by far the most numerous section, not only protest against any fresh legislation but demand the repeal of the existing law. [See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1903-1904; 1905.] In 1906, the semi-autonomous authority then organized adopted an ordinance on the subject of Asiatic residence in the Colony which Lord Elgin, who had succeeded Mr. Chamberlain in the Colonial Office, disapproved. In the next year, however, when the full measure of colonial autonomy had been conferred by the Imperial Government . . . essentially the same provisions were embodied in an enactment by the new Transvaal Legislature, entitled 'The Asiatic Law Amendment Act, 1907,' and Lord Elgin could not venture to disapprove them again, for the reasons which he stated to the Colonial Governor. This measure was followed . . . by an 'Immigrants' Restriction Act, 1907,' which accentuated still further the inhospitality of Transvaal legislation, and made more serious trouble for the British Government, . . . not only with its Indian subjects, but with the Chinese. On the effect of the two acts upon British Indians Lord Elgin wrote to Mr. Morley, Secretary of State for India

(Oct. 10, 1907): 'The practical effect of Section 2 (4) will be to prevent the further immigration into the Transvaal of British Indians or other Asiatics. . . . In the interests of British Indians themselves, it is probably desirable, in view of the state of Colonial feeling, that further immigration should be restricted. Lord Elgin does not, therefore, propose to raise any objection to this provision.' . . . The most obnoxious features of the two offensive acts were an educational qualification, which required applications for admission to the colony and for trading licenses in it, and other connected documents, to be written by the applicants in a European language, Yiddish being recognized as European, and a prescribed registration which required finger-prints as a means of identification. Both of these provisions of law were felt to be insulting and degrading by the Hindus of the better class, who organized a refusal of submission to them, and tested them without avail in the courts. Their language was treated contemptuously in the educational qualification, while, personally, they were classed with criminals by the finger-print identification. The agitators of disaffection in India made much of these indignities, and the matter was extremely embarrassing to the British administration there."—J. N. Larned.—"The thesis of South Africa is that unrestricted right of entry to Indians will lower the whole standard of living for the white man and make his existence in the country impossible. It is the same thesis as is adopted regarding Asiatic immigration by . . . our western States, by Canada and by Australia. It has extended to the European settlers of British East Africa. Questions of justice, fair play, higher considerations of national interest fall on deaf ears when the Anglo-Saxon is asked to let in the Asiatic. He simply will not do it. There is no argument. Only those who are far away from the 'yellow peril' and who would not be affected themselves by unrestricted Asiatic immigration espouse the cause of Japanese, Chinese, and Indians."—H. A. Gibbons, *New map of Africa*, pp. 63-64.—"The influx of Chinese [into Australia] continued to be governed by colonial legislation, under the advice of the Colonial Secretary. Nor did the Imperial Government withhold assent from colonial bills. New Zealand imposed a language test; and the number of Chinese in New Zealand is constantly diminishing, though not necessarily for this reason. The Imperial Government declined to interfere when a Chinese petition was received in 1908, holding that the matter was exclusively for the Dominion to decide. . . . By the Post and Telegraph Act of 1901 the Federal Parliament [of Australia] forbade the making of any contract for the carriage of ocean mails with shipping companies who employed other than white labour. This was aimed directly at British lines which had for years employed seamen belonging to India (lascars). Chamberlain at once declared that this Act must terminate any mail agreement between the Imperial and the Australian governments. . . . The British Government could not consistently become a party to a contract in which the employment of Indian subjects was in terms forbidden 'on the ground of colour only.' The case of Australia, he held, was all the weaker for the fact that it was seeking not to protect its white population from an influx of foreign immigrants, but merely to prevent 'the employment of His Majesty's Indian subjects on a contract to be mainly performed in tropical or sub-tropical waters.' . . . The Commonwealth took yet another step in the same direction in 1906 by passing a Bill to restrict the tariff preference

to British goods to such as were carried in ships manned exclusively by white labour. As the Bill infringed several commercial treaties it was not assented to, so that the white labor aspect did not require to be adjudicated upon."—G. H. Scholefield, *Pacific, its past and future*, pp. 234, 237-238.—The position in the west of Canada was no less difficult than in Australasia and Africa. "The effect of restriction [of Chinese immigration] was to raise the price of wages among the Chinese each time it was increased, until after the five hundred dollars was imposed, the Chinaman, secure in the labor market against more Chinamen, advanced their own wages by some method of combination. . . . This lucrative wage attracted the cupidity of the Japanese, . . . and they increased very rapidly in numbers in a very short space of time. Then . . . Hindus, similarly attracted, also came in large numbers. They were principally Sikhs, discharged soldiers. . . . A temporary depression in 1907, owing to the slump in the money market and the failure of crops in the Middle West, brought about a slackness in the labor market, and feeling against these importations culminated in riots. The Chinese, except that they were generally in demand, as a problem, were comparatively easily dealt with; but with the Japanese and Hindus the case was quite different. The proud Japanese nation resented the discrimination against its subjects. In the case of Japanese, therefore, delicate diplomacy had to be resorted to and, on the grounds of the well-being of both races, the Japanese government voluntarily agreed to limit the numbers to come to Canada each year to a comparatively harmless minimum. In the case of the Hindus, it was hard to find justification for exclusion that would satisfy Hindu, shall I say, prejudices. At the time they began to come in numbers, the state of unrest in India was giving the British government great anxiety. For a few representatives of the British Empire to exercise sovereignty over 150,000,000 of racially alien peoples, and then the rights of citizenship to be denied to these peoples on British territory elsewhere, was what the Englishman would call 'a little thick,' and the two facts taken together required some effort to make them fit in with Hindu logic. . . . The Japanese are a greater danger and the least desirable of the three racial elements to which the province is opposed and that because of their enterprise and aggressiveness, their determination to get a foothold on equal terms with the Anglo-Saxon, a desire, which by the way, the Japanese government resists on the part of the citizens of other nations in Japan. . . . The Hindu, newly imported, with his . . . prejudice and traditional occultism and caste, is impossible. Physically and mentally he has qualities which, in the second generation, would perhaps beneficially assimilate with the white race; but the process is fraught with danger. Undoubtedly, the yellow or brown or dusky peril of the Orient is imminent and economically is real and menacing. . . . The danger is in numbers, not in individuals and a half billion whites in a territory so large as British Columbia would be as one against a host. A million or two in the Middle West would have just as little chance against a horde of Asiatics."—E. R. Gosnell, *British Columbia and British international relations, Canadian national problems (Annals American Academy of Political and Social Science, Jan., 1913)*.—"The position of the British Indian in Canada is rendered the more difficult in comparison with that of the Japanese, because of the impossibility of the adoption by the Indian Government of any

system of restraint of emigration to Canada on the same lines as that adopted by the Government of Japan. The result has been that . . . the Canadian Government has been determined to prevent the entry of any British Indians at all into the Dominion on its western side. . . . In the first place a rule was made that no person could be allowed to enter Canada who did not come in by a continuous journey from the place of origin whence he migrated, and on a through ticket purchased in advance: that rule evidently rendered it impossible for any one to enter Canada from India in the absence of any direct passenger steamship connexion. Further, it was laid down that immigrants of Asiatic race must possess in their own right not less than two hundred dollars apiece, but from this rule were excepted natives of countries as to which special arrangements were in force, like Japan, or as to whom special statutory provision was made, such as Chinese."—A. B. Keith, *Imperial unity and the dominions*, pp. 195-196.

1904-1909.—First anti-Japanese agitation in California.—Segregation of "Orientals" in San Francisco schools.—Japanese resentment.—Labor question at the bottom.—State rights and treaty rights.—"The so-called Japanese problem in America [which first became pressing in California in 1904] is simply one phase of an age-long and world-wide problem, the adjustment of human relations. . . . Fortunately for the Japanese, their immigration to California did not develop until the anti-Chinese agitation had quieted down. . . . In 1870, the census reported fifty-five persons of the Japanese race in the country; in 1880, the number was 148; and in 1890, 2,030. In 1885, Japan permitted her laborers to emigrate, and an immigration convention with Hawaii was concluded the next year. This fact, coupled with the desire for labor in California to take the place of the unobtainable Chinese laborers, caused Japanese immigration to increase steadily after 1890. In 1891, 1,136 entered the United States . . . and in 1900, 12,628. The latter number has never been equaled since that time. . . . The increase of Japanese immigration in 1900 and the following years alarmed some of the labor leaders in California. . . . The Japanese, unlike many of the Chinese, were unwilling to remain as unskilled laborers, and many of them promptly changed their status from laborers to skilled workmen, small merchants, land renters and owners. On this account they began to compete with organized labor at first, and later with the farming class."—P. J. Treat, *Japan and the United States, 1853-1921*, pp. 250, 253-254.—"In November, 1904, the American Federation of Labor held its annual meeting in San Francisco. It adopted a resolution demanding that the terms of the Chinese Exclusion Act should be so extended 'as to permanently exclude from the United States and its insular territory all classes of Japanese and Koreans other than those exempted by the present terms of the act.' In February, 1905, the *San Francisco Chronicle*, a daily newspaper of state-wide reputation, began to publish a series of articles having the general object of representing the immigration of Japanese, particularly of Japanese laborers, as a menace to the interests of the people of California and of the nation as well. . . . The series of articles . . . sought to establish as fact a rapidly increasing inflow of Japanese laborers, ready to work at wages far below the white standard, and sending native-born white men into the ranks of the unemployed. By a unanimous vote in each House, and with only a few absentees, the California Legislature on

March 1 and 2, 1905, placed itself on record with respect to Japanese immigration in the adoption of a concurrent resolution. After a lengthy preamble, the Legislature—

“Resolved, that in view of the facts and reasons aforesaid, and of many others that might be stated, we, as representatives of the people of the State of California, do earnestly and strenuously ask and request, and in so far as it may be proper, demand for the protection of the people of this State and for the proper safeguarding of their interests, that action be taken without delay, by treaty, or otherwise, as may be most expeditious and advantageous, tending to limit within reasonable bounds and diminish in a marked degree the further immigration of Japanese laborers into the United States. That our Senators and Representatives be, and they are hereby, requested and directed to bring the matters aforesaid to the attention of the President and the Department of State.”—*California Statutes, 1905, Concurrent and Joint Resolution, ch. xxiv.*—“Little popular interest was aroused, however, until the action of the Board of Education of San Francisco, of October 11, 1906, requiring Japanese school-children to attend the Oriental school, formerly used by Chinese alone. Although various explanations of this resolution were given at the time, the real reason was to start the process of discrimination which would eventually lead to the enactment of an exclusion law. When the news reached Japan, great indignation was expressed. This was primarily due to regret that in the United States, a country which had been so uniformly friendly to Japan, such a discriminatory measure should be adopted. But, in addition, the blow fell at a most unfortunate time, for only a few months before the Japanese Red Cross had contributed to the relief of the earthquake and fire victims of San Francisco the sum of \$224,960, an amount greater than the contributions of all the rest of the world, outside the United States. . . . Throughout the United States there was widespread criticism of the action of the San Francisco officials. President Roosevelt instructed Secretary Metcalf, of the Department of Commerce and Labor, and a Californian himself, to visit San Francisco and report on the situation. . . . On receipt of this report, President Roosevelt addressed a special message to Congress, on December 18, 1906, in which he said, in part: ‘I authorized and directed Secretary Metcalf to state that, if there was any failure to protect persons and property, then the entire power of the Federal Government within the limits of the Constitution would be used promptly and vigorously to enforce the observance of our treaty, the supreme law of the land, which treaty guaranteed to Japanese residents everywhere in the Union full and perfect protection for their persons and property; and to this end everything in my power would be done, and all the forces of the United States, both civil and military, which I could lawfully employ, would be employed.’”—P. J. Treat, *Japan and the United States, 1853-1921*, pp. 254-255.—“The effect of the president’s utterances was to raise new questions, and to bring new and powerful influences to the support of the San Francisco authorities. In California the San Francisco School Board received at once the credit of heroic defense of the principle of state sovereignty. Expression of the same sentiment in Congress was immediate and direct. . . . On March 13, 1907, the offending resolution of the previous October was repealed. . . . The Superintendent of Schools had given as the main reason for segregation, that 95 per cent. of the Japanese

pupils were young men and ‘we object to an adult Japanese sitting beside a twelve-year-old girl.’ The facts were that on December 8, 1906, in all schools of primary and grammar grade there was an enrollment of 28,736 pupils. Of these there were 93 Japanese, nearly one-third of whom were born in the United States. There were 28 girls and 65 boys. Of the 65 boys 34 were under 15 years of age, and of the remaining 31 only 2 were 20 years. 25 of the boys over 15 years were in the grammar grades, leaving but 6 to justify the objection of adults ‘sitting beside children of tender years.’ . . . The great fire in San Francisco in 1906 drove the Japanese from their established quarters. Their attempts to gain new locations in districts previously occupied wholly by white residents tended to draw attention to them. For a time the policing of the city was inadequate, and cases of bodily violence toward Japanese were not infrequent. The biennial sessions of the legislature [between 1905 and 1907] regularly furnished a large supply of anti-Japanese resolutions and bills, introduced for effect and without sufficient support for enactment. However, in 1909 legislation was attempted looking toward prohibiting Japanese from becoming owners of real property. It was only the strenuous protests of President Roosevelt actively supported by the governor of the state that prevented . . . the enactment of some such measure. The legislature finally contented itself with making an appropriation for a state census of Japanese. The treaty-right and State-right questions involved in the controversy were most perfectly clarified by Secretary of State Root, in an address before the . . . American Society of International Law, at Washington, in April, 1907. It had been assumed, he said, ‘that in making and asserting the validity of the treaty of 1894 the United States was asserting the right to compel the State of California to admit Japanese children to its schools. No such question was involved. That treaty did not by any possible construction assert the authority of the United States to compel any State to maintain public schools or to extend the privileges of its public schools to Japanese children or to the children of any alien residents. The treaty did assert the right of the United States, by treaty, to assure to the citizens of a foreign nation residing in American territory equality of treatment with the citizens of other foreign nations. So that, if any State chooses to extend privileges to alien residents as well as to citizen residents the State will be forbidden by the application of the treaty to discriminate against the resident citizens of the particular country with which the treaty is made and will be forbidden to deny to them the privileges which it grants to the citizens of other foreign countries. The effect of such a treaty, in respect to education, is not positive and compulsory; it is negative and prohibitory. It is not a requirement that the State shall furnish education; it is a prohibition against discrimination when the State does choose to furnish education. It leaves every State free to have public schools or not, as it chooses, but it says to every State: ‘If you provide a system of education which includes alien children you must not exclude these particular alien children.’”—F. H. Clark.—“As there was a constitutional question involved, the Federal Government brought two suits, one in the Federal Circuit Court and the other in the State Supreme Court, to test the validity of the resolution. The issue was never determined, for President Roosevelt had found a better way to settle the difficulty. . . . This took the form of the ‘Gentlemen’s Agreement.’ Under

it Japan agreed to give passports for America only to non-laborers, such as merchants, travelers, students, and officials. Laborers who had visited Japan might receive passports to return to the United States, and passports might be issued to the parents, wives, and children of domiciled laborers, as well as to laborers who had already acquired an interest in a farming enterprise in that country."—P. J. Treat, *Japan and the United States, 1853-1921*, p. 256.—See also JAPAN: 1905-1914; IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1862-1913.

1904-1913.—General anti-Asiatic attitude of Australia and New Zealand.—"White Australia policy."—Navigation Act of Australia.—Legislation in Canada.—Immigration Act of New Zealand.—It is in Australia and New Zealand, where the conflict of Asiatic and European involves the future destiny of a new people, that the anti-Asiatic policy has been the most thoroughgoing. Colonized in the modern period and developed with special regard to the new power of organized labor in the world, these countries have been determined that there shall be no repetition in their midst of the color problem which developed in the course of the colonization of America. "The late Professor C. H. Pearson, at one time Minister for Education in Victoria, . . . in his *National Life and Character*, admirably summarised the dangers to which his adopted country was exposed by reason of its situation, and the motives which actuated the various colonial Governments in passing enactments designed to place some restriction on the wholesale flooding of their territories. 'The fear of Chinese immigration which the Australian democracy cherishes, . . . is, in fact, the instinct of self-preservation, quickened by experience. We know that coloured and white labour cannot exist side by side; we are well aware that China can swamp us with a single year's surplus of population; and we know that if national existence is sacrificed to the working of a few mines and sugar plantations, it is not the Englishmen in Australia alone, but the whole civilised world that will be the losers. Transform the northern half of our continent into a Natal, with thirteen out of fourteen belonging to an inferior race, and the southern half will speedily approximate to the condition of Cape Colony, where the whites are indeed a masterful minority, but still only as one in four. We are guarding the last part of the world in which the higher races can live and increase freely for the higher civilisation. It is idle to say that if all this should come to pass our pride of place will not be humiliated. We are struggling among ourselves for supremacy in a world which we thought as destined to belong to the Aryan race and to the Christian faith, to the letters and arts and charm of social manners which we have inherited from the best times of the past. We shall wake to find ourselves elbowed and hustled, perhaps even thrust aside by peoples whom we looked down upon as servile and thought of as bound always to minister to our needs.' . . . The Greater Britain that is to be may be the best security for the Mother Land in years to come, and her natural ally and friend. Australian statesmen claim that they are not only safeguarding British interests, but also legislating for posterity and looking forward to the time—perhaps a century hence—when the population of the Commonwealth may be one hundred millions or even more. . . . Leaders and followers of every political cast, Conservatives, Liberals, and Radicals, have now but one national ideal—Purity of Race. They recognise

that hybrids cannot make a great nation; that an infusion of Chinese, Japanese, or Indo-Chinese blood must result in race deterioration; and that, if they are to live happily and prosperously, it must be with no strangers within their gates other than those of Caucasian descent who are able to conform to the conditions and customs of civilised communities."—O. P. Law, W. T. Gill, *White Australia (Nineteenth Century, Jan., 1904)*.—"In 1907 there were 41,078 male Asiatics in Australia and only 1,997 Asiatic females. Consequently the effective competition against Australian workmen, and the military danger of the number of Asiatics would be five times as great as would arise if they came in families. Further, white immigration would be checked by the Asiatic influx, and very soon there would be 20 Asiatic men to one white man in North Australia. In ten years we might easily have in North Australia quite half the number of unassimilable male aliens which brought about the catastrophe in Moesia, and the control of the occupied country would tend more and more to be lost to us. It would not be Australian but Asiatic ideas that would be cherished there; nor would it be Australian moral and political life that would be achieved."—A. Harper, *White Australia policy (M. Atkinson's Australia, economic and political studies, pp. 451-453)*.—"A New Zealand Bill of 1910 to penalise vessels employing lascars was . . . refused the royal assent, after being discussed at the Imperial Conference of 1911. . . . So far the restriction of Asiatics has been fairly satisfactory considering the geographical and economic influences bearing on the problem. It cannot be said to have reached a solution though, for a recent royal commission in Australia recommended the gradual exclusion of Japanese divers from the pearl fisheries in favour of white labour. . . . The Asiatic problem must inevitably be a serious one for Australia and New Zealand at all times. Up to the present [written in 1919], considering the strong public feeling on the matter, its treatment has had happy results. This is largely owing to the sagacious attitude adopted by the British Government. By taking the Dominions into its confidence and freely acknowledging the justice of their fears, the Imperial Government has been able to control and co-ordinate the colonial restrictions, and at the same time to conciliate the Asiatic power concerned, with almost remarkable success."—G. H. Scholefield, *Pacific, its past and future, pp. 238-239*.—"The most serious feature of the present day is the tendency of the Parliament of Queensland to extend beyond the sphere of immigration which is covered by Commonwealth legislation the principle of the exclusion of Asiatics from employment because they cannot pass a language test. . . . The effect of the passing of the *Navigation Act, 1913*, of the Commonwealth into operation, when it is brought into effect, will be to make it practically impossible to employ lascars in the coasting trade, which includes any trade done between Commonwealth ports by oversea vessels, since the requirements of the Commonwealth laws regarding conditions of space are such as to be impossible of convenient application to lascar crews. More serious, however, is the fact that the Royal Commission of the Commonwealth on the Pearl Fishery is anxious to see the participation of Japanese in that trade brought to an end by replacing the Japanese with Australian divers and excluding them from the waters of Australia, a recommendation which has not so far been acted upon. But by joint action of the Commonwealth and Queensland the sugar-growing trade has been closed to Asiatics, with

compensation for vested rights. In the case of New Zealand, while immigration has been prohibited in large measures by the use of the language test in the Immigration Act, in 1913 there was a good deal of agitation on the ground that natives in considerable numbers had succeeded in entering the country from Fiji, despite the protection of the Act."—A. B. Keith, *Imperial unity and the dominions*, pp. 199-201.—"Though her danger is so much less than . . . [that of Australia] Japan takes precisely the precautions . . . [as Australia does], with the result that though Japan is so much nearer China than Australia is, there are twice as many Chinese labourers in Australia as there are in Japan, and her population is 50,000,000, while ours is 5,000,000. Nor can she be blamed for so doing. No State in modern times, either in East or West, has ever permitted unrestricted immigration of this kind, nor can any State do so if it wishes to survive."—A. Harper, *White Australia policy* (*M. Atkinson's Australia, economic and political studies*, ch. 12, p. 454).—"Apart from the question of entry, and the attempts, mainly unsuccessful, of British Columbia to hamper the operations of Indian and Japanese settlers, the Dominion has been free from any substantial amount of differential legislation. Some annoyance was caused both in India and in Japan in 1912 by the enactment in the province of Saskatchewan of an Act which provided that no person should employ in any capacity any white woman or girl, or permit any white woman or girl to reside or lodge in, or to work in, or, save as customer in a public apartment, to frequent any restaurant, laundry, or other place of business or amusement owned, kept, or managed by any Japanese, Chinaman, or other oriental person. The strictness of this law was such that the most distinguished Japanese or Indian firm could not have employed a typist, and the form of legislation was obviously as offensive as its intention was doubtless good. As a result, both Japanese and Chinese restaurant-keepers had to dismiss their white employes, a result which was naturally represented by them as being devised by their white rivals in business as a mode of interfering with their trade. Fortunately these considerations appealed to the Dominion and Provincial Governments, and in due course the Act was amended by one passed in 1913 to omit all reference to Japanese and other orientals, and to restrict the operation of the measure to Chinamen, who are throughout the Dominions treated as being in an inferior position to any other oriental peoples. A similar Act of Manitoba passed in 1913 (c. 19) has not been made operative."—A. B. Keith, *Imperial unity and the dominions*, pp. 197-198.—See also JAPAN: 1905-1914.

1905-1921.—Recurrence of negro question in the United States.—Progress of negro.—Conflict with white labor.—Exodus from South to North.—Distribution in the North.—Effect of migration on the South.—Problems of negroes in the North.—Race riots.—Lynching.—Since the beginning of the twentieth century the same causes which have aggravated other race-problems have increased the friction between the white men and the negroes, and have brought about far-reaching changes in the geographical distribution of the negroes in America, and in their social point of view. The first factor in this change is the progress of the negroes themselves. There is an increasing number of intelligent and well-educated negro leaders, and a very rapid increase of wealth among the whole negro population, especially in industrial centres. With education and wealth comes an increasing

discontent with the restrictions placed upon them, and the insults and dangers they are subject to. They are learning to band together in associations for mutual protection and development. The following manifestoes of associations for the betterment of negroes are typical of others: In July, 1905, a conference of colored men from the North and South, among whom Professor W. E. Burghardt DuBois, of Atlanta, appeared to be the leading spirit, was held at Buffalo, New York. Its outcome was an organization which took the name of "The Niagara Movement." At the annual meeting of the organization, at Sea Isle City, New Jersey, in August, 1909, ten states were reported to be represented. Its objects are indicated in the following passages from an address which this meeting adopted: "For four years the Niagara Movement has struggled to make ten million Americans of negro descent cease from mere apology and weak surrender to aggression, and take a firm, unflinching stand for justice, manhood, and self-assertion. We are accumulating property at constantly accelerating rate; we are rapidly lowering our rate of illiteracy; but property and intelligence are of little use unless guided by the great ideals of freedom, justice, and human brotherhood. As a partial result of our effort we are glad to note among us increasing spiritual unrest, sterner impatience with cowardice, and deeper determination to be men at any cost. . . . That black men are inherently inferior to whites is a wide-spread lie which science flatly contradicts, and the attempt to submerge the colored races is one with world-old efforts of the wily to exploit the weak. We must, therefore, make common cause with the oppressed and down-trodden of all races and peoples; with our kindred of South Africa and the West Indies, with our fellows in Mexico, India, and Russia, and with the cause of the working classes everywhere. On us rests to no little degree the burden of the cause of individual freedom, human brotherhood, and universal peace in a day when America is forgetting her promise and destiny. Let us work on and never despair because pigmy voices are loudly praising ill-gotten wealth, big guns, and human degradation. They but represent back eddies in the tide of time." In 1909 "a number of people who were interested in the general effect of the Negro Problem on democracy in America organized in New York the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. It was felt that the situation had become so bad that the time had come for a simple declaration of human rights."—C. B. Brawley, *Social history of the American negro*, p. 33.—The declaration read as follows: "As first and immediate steps toward remedying . . . national wrongs, so full of perils for the whites as well as the blacks of all sections, we demand of Congress and the Executive: (1) That the Constitution be strictly enforced and the civil rights guaranteed under the Fourteenth Amendment be secured impartially to all. (2) That there be equal educational opportunities for all and in all the States, and that public school expenditure be the same for the negro and white child. (3) That in accordance with the Fifteenth Amendment the right of the negro to the ballot on the same terms as other citizens be recognized in every part of the country." "In 1910 Moorfield Storey, a distinguished lawyer of Boston, became national president, and W. E. Burghardt DuBois director of publicity and research. . . . The organization was successful from the first, and local branches were formed all over the country, some years elapsing, however, before the South was penetrated. Said the Director: 'Of two things we Negroes have

dreamed for many years: An organization so effective and so powerful that when discrimination and injustice touched one Negro, it would touch 12,000,000. We have not got this yet, but we have taken a great step toward it. We have dreamed, too, of an organization that would work ceaselessly to make Americans know that the so-called "Negro problem" is simply one phase of the vaster problem of democracy in America, and that those who wish freedom and justice for their country must wish it for every black citizen. This is the great and insistent message of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. This organization is outstanding as an effort in coöperation between the races for the improvement of the condition of the Negro."—B. G. Brawley, *Social history of the American negro*, p. 339.—"It recognizes the national character of the Negro problem and no sectionalism. It believes in the upholding of the Constitution of the United States and its amendments, in the spirit of Abraham Lincoln. It upholds the doctrine of 'all men up and no man down.' It abhors Negro crime, but still more, the conditions which breed crime, and most of all the crimes committed by mobs in the mockery of the law, or by individuals in the name of the law. It believes that the scientific truths of the Negro problem must be available before the country can see its way wholly clear to right existing wrongs. It has no other belief than that the best way to uplift the colored man is the best way to aid the white man to peace and social content; it has no other desire than exact justice, and no other motive than humanity. Its object is to make 12,000,000 Americans physically free from peonage, mentally free from ignorance, politically free from disfranchisement, and socially free from insult. Its aims are: To abolish legal injustice against Negroes; to stamp out race discriminations; to prevent lynchings, burnings and torturings of Negroes; to secure to every colored citizen the common rights of citizenship; to compel equal accommodations in railroad travel, irrespective of color; to secure for colored children an equal opportunity to public school education through a fair apportionment of public education funds. Through its national office and branches in forty-three states, the District of Columbia, Canada, the Canal Zone and the Philippine Islands, it carries on educational and protective work and seeks to establish better race relations on the basis of justice and fair play. The Association also maintains an Anti-lynching fund for the investigation and publication of the facts concerning lynching and race riots and for educational work and legal action to stamp out lynching and mob violence. The work is supported entirely by voluntary contributions and membership fees."—*Manifesto of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People*.—"Of special interest along the line of economic betterment has been the . . . Urban League, which also has numerous branches with headquarters in New York and through whose offices thousands of Negroes have been placed in honorable employment. The National Urban League was also formally organized in 1910; it represented a merging of the different agencies working in New York City in behalf of the social betterment of the Negro population, especially of the National League for the Protection of Colored Women and of the Committee for Improving the Industrial Conditions among Negroes in New York [both 1906]."—B. G. Brawley, *Social history of the American negro*, p. 339.—As a direct result of this progressive spirit the negroes at first began to incur the hostility of organized white labor. As an instance of the race conflicts

in labor, may be cited a strike in Georgia. In May and June, 1909, the white men employed as firemen on the Georgia railroad struck against the employment of blacks in the same capacity. Generally, the southern railroads have employed, for years, both white and black firemen. On the Georgia railroad there were about sixty of the former and forty of the latter. The white firemen were eligible to promotion to be engineers; the blacks were not. By an unwritten law they were excluded from the higher and better paid service; but as firemen the best among them had gradually won promotion to the better trains and better "runs" on the road. It was this fact which caused the strike of their white associates. As a labor strike it would have caused little trouble; as a race and color question it inflamed the state and the South, and disturbed the country at large for several weeks. The conflict of the railroad company was not with its own employees but with mobs along its line, always ready to be maddened by the thought of a negro in any place which a white man wanted. A mediation in the matter undertaken, at the instance of President Taft, by the United States Commissioner of Labor, Dr. Charles P. Neill, and the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, Mr. Martin A. Knapp, succeeded with much difficulty, in arranging a reference of the dispute to arbitration. The main proposition submitted to the board of arbitration by the employees was in these words: "That the Georgia Railroad Company and its terminals at Atlanta will not use negroes as locomotive firemen on the road or in the yards, nor as hostlers nor assistant hostlers." On this its decision was as follows: "The Georgia Railroad, when using negroes as locomotive firemen on the road or in the yards, or as hostlers, or as hostlers' helpers, shall pay them the same wages as white men in similar positions." But the representative of the employees dissented from this decision in part, explaining his view, as follows: "In so far as the above finding permits the continued employment of negro firemen by the Georgia Railroad, I dissent therefrom, because I believe from the evidence that such employment is a menace to the safety of the travelling public. In so far as such finding requires that when negroes are so employed they shall receive wages equal to those paid white men, I concur therein, believing that such requirement, by removing the principal incentive for their employment, will result in the speedy elimination of this cheaper labor, and a consequent improvement of the service." On most of the minor points in controversy the arbitrators were agreed in their conclusions, and the settlement of the whole matter was complete.

In 1910 the new position of negro labor was recognized by the admission of negroes to the American Federation of Labor. "Before the migration movement the strength of the negroes in labor unions was largely in the South. In this section they were found in considerable numbers in the carpenters, bricklayers, plasterers, longshoremen and miners' unions. In the North, however, they were not generally connected with the unions mainly for the reason that, excepting the hod carriers, teamsters, asphalt and cement workers and a few other organizations of unskilled laborers, they were not found in any occupation in sufficient numbers to necessitate being seriously considered by organized labor. The necessities of the industrial situation created by the war, however, brought thousands of negroes north and into trades and occupations in which hitherto they had not been found at all or only in negligible numbers. A change in attitude, therefore, was necessary. At

the 1910 annual meeting of the National Council of the American Federation of Labor a resolution was unanimously passed inviting negroes and all other races into the Labor Federation. The officers of the Federation were instructed to take measures to see that negro workmen as well as workmen of other races be brought into the union. In 1913 this action was reaffirmed with the assertion that: Many years ago the American Federation of Labor declared for the thorough organization of all working people without regard to sex, religion, race, politics or nationality; that many organizations affiliated with the American Federation of Labor have within their membership negro workmen with all other workers of their trade, and the American Federation of Labor has made and is making every effort within its power for the organization of these workmen."—*Negro migrations during the war (Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1920, p. 147)*.—It was not until 1916-1917 that the negro problem, in its new form, became really pressing. Then occurred a great exodus of negroes to the north, bringing with it problems of re-adjustment that, in many cases, were not settled without riot and bloodshed. "Within the brief period of three years following the outbreak of the great war in Europe, more than four hundred thousand negroes suddenly moved north. In extent this movement is without parallel in American history, for it swept on thousands of the blacks from remote regions of the South, depopulated entire communities, drew upon the negro inhabitants of practically every city of the South, and spread from Florida to the western limits of Texas. . . . Despite the apparent suddenness of this movement, all evidence indicates that it is but the accentuation of a process which . . . [had] been going on for more than fifty years. So silently indeed . . . [had] this shifting of the negro population taken place that it . . . quite escaped popular attention. Following the decennial revelation of the census there . . . [was] a momentary outburst of dismay and apprehension at the manifest trend in the interstate migration of negroes. Inquiries into the living standards of selected groups of negroes in large cities antedating the migration of 1916-1917 . . . revealed from year to year an increasing number of persons of southern birth whose length of residence has been surprisingly short. The rapid increase in the negro population of the cities of the North bears eloquent testimony to this tendency. The total increase in the negro population between 1900 and 1910 was 11.2 per cent. In . . . fifty years the northern movement . . . transferred about 4 per cent. of the entire negro population; and the movement . . . [had] taken place in spite of the negro's economic handicap in the North. . . . None of the causes [of migration] was more effective than that of the opportunity to earn a better living. Wages offered in the North were double and treble those received in the South. . . . The inability to educate their children properly because of the inadequacy of school facilities . . . [and] the treatment which the negroes received at the hands of the courts and the guardians of the peace constituted . . . [other causes] of the migration. In the South negroes largely distrust the courts and have to depend on the influence of their aristocratic white friends. When a white man assaults a negro he is not punished. When a white man kills a negro he is usually freed without extended legal proceedings, but the rule as laid down by the southern judge is usually that when a negro kills a white man, whether or not in self-defense, the negro must die. Negro witnesses count for

nothing except when testifying against members of their own race. The testimony of a white man is conclusive in every instance. In no State of the South can a negro woman get a verdict for seduction, nor in most cases enter a suit against a white man; nor, where a white man is concerned, is the law of consent made to apply to a negro girl. . . . Another frequent complaint was directed against the accommodations for travel. . . . Labor agents were a very important factor in stimulating the movement. Agents were reported, at one time or another, in every section from which the migrants went. When the vigilance of the authorities restricted their activities they began working through the mails. . . . In the first communities visited by representatives of northern capital, their offers created unprecedented commotion. Drivers and teamsters left their wagons standing in the street. Workers, returning home, scrambled aboard the trains for the North without notifying their employers or their families. . . . Homes were thrown on the market and sold at ruinously low prices. It was observed that the beginnings in each new community exhibited the same characteristics. This is due in part to a pretty universal state of unrest among negroes throughout the South. Although the first State entered by representatives of northern capital was Florida, their efforts were not confined to that commonwealth. And again, although the Pennsylvania and Erie Railroads were the first to import negroes in large numbers, they were not alone in the field very long. The steel mills of the East and the railroads of the West soon followed—each selecting States from which egress was easy and convenient. The authorities of the cities of Florida, when they began to engage themselves in the suppression of recruiting agents, succeeded in scattering them to other fields where their mere presence, preceded as it was by the news of their mission in the South, was sufficient to attract, first, all of the landless labor, then to loosen the steady workman wedded to the soil, and finally to carry away the best of the working classes. Quite naturally southeastern Georgia was the second district to feel the drain of the exodus. These workers were carried into Pennsylvania, New York and New Jersey for the maintenance work of the roads. North Carolina was next entered; then finally Virginia which had been sending many negroes into New York, Pennsylvania and New Jersey for a number of years. . . . [Many of the negroes so recruited went to the large cities with unhappy results in New York in overcrowding, and in Chicago in race riots.] By the summer of 1916, the exodus from Florida had grown to such ungovernable bounds that the more stable classes of negroes became unsettled. . . . Caught up in the wave of enthusiasm that swept over the South, these migrants could not resist the impulse to leave. The economic loss resulting from their reckless departure . . . probably can never be even approximately estimated. What seems of most interest here is that they were in the frame of mind for leaving. They left as though they were fleeing some curse; they were willing to make almost any sacrifice to obtain a railroad ticket and they left with the intention of staying. What has been described, of course, can not be construed to apply to every one who left. There were those of the business and professional classes who were prompted by other motives than those which impel the masses of migrants. There were, for example, migrants who in the South had held positions of relatively high standing by virtue of the fact that there do exist two institutional standards, the white and the black. Measured by the require-

ments of the latter, they stood high in the respect of the community, but when removed to the North they suffered in the rank of their occupation. A college president or even a school teacher had little opportunity in their respective fields in the North. They had, therefore, migrated because deserted by their neighbors they were left with a prospect of a diminishing social importance. . . . The New England States, which were probably the first to attract this labor, were Connecticut and Massachusetts. The tobacco fields of Connecticut with Hartford as a center received the first negro laborers as mentioned above. Before a year had passed there were over 3,000 southern negroes in the city of Hartford. Massachusetts had its new war plants which served as an attraction. . . . The migration to the Northwest was more extensive. Ohio, the State of vital historical association for negroes, was generously visited. Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati, Akron and Youngstown were popular centers. The coal mines, factories and iron works were most in need of men, and obtained them without any great difficulty. Indiana, still probably remembered as the delicate spot in the inquiry following a similar migration thirty-nine years ago, with its very highly developed industries caught the flood proceeding up the Mississippi valley. Indianapolis was a popular point although not a satisfactory one for the migrants, who pretty generally left it for better fields. Gary and Indiana Harbor, more properly satellite cities of Chicago, developed an almost entirely new negro population. . . . The departure of the first negroes usually elicited no concern from the authorities. It was assumed that their actions were merely expressions of the negro's 'love for travel,' and that they would soon return. When, however, they did not return and hosts of others followed, the white South became deeply concerned and endeavored to check the movement. Throughout the exodus drastic legislation and force were employed. In Alabama, Arkansas, Mississippi and Georgia laws were passed in an effort to suppress the activities of labor agents. Licenses were made prohibitively high; labor agents were arrested and heavily fined. In some cases their coming was penalized to prohibit their operations entirely and frequently suffered physical injury. In Florida labor recruiting early assumed a serious aspect. Precaution was, therefore, taken to impede the progress of the work of labor agents among negroes, at first by moral suasion and then by actual force. . . . The same condition with respect to the apparent necessity for prohibitive measures obtained in Georgia. The local governments early took action to prevent the drain of the labor population to northern States through the operation of labor agents. It was soon observed, however, that these agents worked out their schemes so clandestinely that it was impossible to check the movement by such measures. . . . The disconcerted planters and business men of the South resorted to another plan. Reconciliation and persuasion were tried. Meetings were held and speakers were secured and advised what to say. In cities and communities where contact on this plan had been infrequent, it was a bit difficult to approach the subject. The press of Georgia gave much space to the discussion of the movement and what ought to be done to stop it. The consensus of opinion of the white papers in the State was that the negro had not been fairly treated, and that better treatment would be one of the most effective means of checking the migration. Mob violence, it was pointed out, was one of the chief causes of the exodus. . . . Tuskegee Institute was also quick to offer a remedy

for the migration. In the latter part of September, 1916, the institution made a strong effort to persuade the negro farmers to remain on the land instead of going to the cities. Conferences were held with the bankers of Tuskegee and with many planters of Macon county and a method of dealing with the situation was worked out. This method embraced a number of helpful suggestions as to how to solve their many perplexing problems. . . . Southern business men and planters soon found out that it was impossible to treat the negro as a serf and began to deal with him as an actual employé entitled to his share of the returns from his labor. It was evident that it would be very much better to have the negroes as coworkers in a common cause than to have them abandon their occupations in the South, leaving their employers no opportunity to secure to themselves adequate income to keep them above want. A more difficult change of attitude was that of the labor unions. They had for years been antagonistic to the negroes and had begun to drive them from many of the higher pursuits of labor which they had even from the days of slavery monopolized. The skilled negro laborer . . . [had] gradually seen his chances grow less and less as the labor organizations . . . invaded the South. In the end, however, the trade unions . . . [were] compelled to yield. . . . There was, too, a decided change in the attitude of the whole race toward the blacks. The white people could be more easily reached, and very soon there was brought about a better understanding between the races. Cities gave attention to the improvement of the sanitary conditions of the negro sections, which had so long been neglected; negroes were invited to take part in the clean-up week; the Women's Health League called special meetings of colored women, conferred with them and urged them to organize community clubs. Committees of leading negroes dared to take up with their employers the questions of better accommodations and better treatment of negro labor. Members of these committees went before chambers of commerce to set forth their claims. Others dared boldly to explain to them that the negroes were leaving the South because they had not been given the treatment which should be accorded men. Instead of expressing their indignation at such efforts on the part of the negroes, the whites listened to them attentively. Accordingly, joint meetings of the whites and blacks were held to hear frank statements of the case from speakers of both races. One of the most interesting of these meetings was the one held in Birmingham, Alabama. The negroes addressing the audience frankly declared that it was impossible to bring back from the North the migrants who were making good there, but that the immediate problem requiring solution was how to hold in the South those who had not gone. These negroes made it clear that it was impossible for negro leaders through the pulpit and press to check the movement, but that only through a change in the attitude of the whites to the blacks could the latter be made to feel that the Southland is safe for them. Here we see the coming to pass of a thing long desired by those interested in the welfare of the South and long rejected by those who have always prized the peculiar interest of one race more highly than the welfare of all. White men, for the first time, were talking on the streets with negroes just as white men talk with each other. The merchants gave their negro patrons more attention and consideration. A prominent white man said, 'I have never seen such changes as have come about within the last four months. I know of white men

and negroes who have not dared to speak to one another on the streets to converse freely.' The suspension of harsh treatment was so marked in some places that few negroes neglected to mention it."—N. J. Scott, *Negro migration during the war*, pp. 3, 6-7, 17-19, 21, 36, 37-39, 43, 57, 72-73, 79, 81, 88-89.—In the North the negroes naturally met new and disturbing problems of re-adjustment. The most difficult question was that of housing. The influx of negroes into any white district caused a fall in real estate values, and in many cases the negroes were simply driven from block to block, or charged prohibitive prices for cruelly inadequate accommodations. Moreover, the persecution to which they were subjected in certain parts of the South began to be repeated in the North. As a result there was, from 1917 to 1920, an epidemic of race-riots, beginning with the terrible riots in East St. Louis. "In East St. Louis, Ill., all of the social problems raised by the movement were seen in their baldest guise. The original population of this city had come for the most part from Georgia, Mississippi, Kentucky [see KENTUCKY: 1917], and Tennessee. It had long been an important industrial center. It was also a very rough place, . . . and there was very close connection between the saloons and politics. For years the managers of the industrial plants had recruited their labor supply from Ellis Island. When this failed they turned to the Negroes of the South; and difficulties were aggravated by a series of strikes on the part of the white workers. By the spring of 1917 not less than ten thousand Negroes had recently arrived in the city, and the housing situation was so acute that these people were more and more being forced into the white localities. Sometimes Negroes who had recently arrived wandered aimlessly about the streets, where they met the rougher elements of the city; there were frequent fights and also much trouble on the street cars. The Negroes interested themselves in politics and even succeeded in placing in office several men of their choice. In February, 1917, there was a strike of the white workers at the Aluminum Ore Works. This was adjusted at the time, but the settlement was not permanent, and meanwhile there were almost daily arrivals from the South, and the East St. Louis *Journal* was demanding: 'Make East St. Louis a Lily White Town.' There were preliminary riots on May 27-30. On the night of July 1 men in automobiles rode through the Negro section and began firing promiscuously. The next day the massacre broke forth in all its fury, and before it was over hundreds of thousands of dollars in property had been destroyed, six thousand Negroes had been driven from their homes, and about one hundred and fifty shot, burned, hanged, or maimed for life. . . . Later there was a congressional investigation, but from this nothing very material resulted. In the last week of this same month, July, 1917, there were also serious outbreaks in both Chester and Philadelphia, Penn., the fundamental issues being the same as in East St. Louis."—B. G. Brawley, *Social history of the American negro*, pp. 347-348.—Ill-feeling broke out sporadically all over the country—of which the riots in Washington and Chicago may be taken as typical. "Serious race riots lasting for several days in Washington and Chicago left a toll of dead among both the white and the black participants, and spread a reign of terror throughout both cities never before experienced in their history. The riots in Washington began on Saturday, July 19, 1919. [See WASHINGTON, D.C.: 1919.] They were occasioned by long-continued and repeated reports of assaults by negroes on white women. Soldiers,

sailors, marines, and civilians, made violent attacks on negroes in the Centre Market district, in the heart of the city; negroes were dragged from street cars and automobiles; subsequently these attacks spread to other parts of the city, despite the calling out of the police reserves to quell the rioting. A late report put the number of negroes taken to the Emergency Hospital at fifteen. A series of clashes occurred Saturday night and Sunday, and continued until Tuesday, July 22. The situation was being held in hand by Major Gen. Haan, co-operating with the police, when riots broke out again on Tuesday with increased violence; armed and defiant negroes rode about in automobiles shooting at the whites in retaliation and the mobs got beyond control. Seven men, four colored, were killed, and more than seventy were wounded and sent to the hospitals; hundreds were arrested and heavily fined. Large numbers of soldiers, mounted and on foot, and also marines, policed the city. The riots practically ceased at the date mentioned; District Commissioner Brownlow issued an appeal to all citizens to remain indoors and to do everything possible to avoid further clashes. Secretary Daniels, in an official communication to Admiral Benson, demanded that the names of all sailors and marines implicated in the attacks on the negroes should be reported. The rioting, which lasted for several days, was the most serious since the days following the civil war, when there were riots during the period of the old 'Feather Duster Legislature' which met before the present form of Government was organized. . . . [On July 27, race rioting broke out in Chicago. (See CHICAGO: 1919: July).] Willis N. Huggins, editor of the colored weekly, *The Chicago Searchlight*, ascribed the origin of the feud to the large employers of labor, who had imported thousands of blacks into the city, and to the city's failure to provide housing accommodations; he also referred to political exploitation by local leaders, to unscrupulous landlords' profiteering, and to sensational articles in the public press of the country. E. Frank Gardiner, in a long article published in the *New York Times*, laid stress upon the linking of corrupt politics with gambling houses and other places of ill fame, where whites and blacks drank and danced together all night, undisturbed by the Mayor or by the city police."—*Race riots in Washington and Chicago* (*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1919).—On the night of September 2, 1919, there also occurred a demonstration, which, though not strictly a race riot, was characteristic of the bad feeling that was being worked up here and there in the north. A mob surrounded the Omaha court-house and removed a negro prisoner, whom they hanged and cremated. When the mayor attempted to interfere, he narrowly escaped hanging, and the whole mob broke into disorder, which made this one of the most disgraceful of the numerous affairs of this sort on record in the United States.

See also BALTIMORE: 1871-1915; CHICAGO: 1919 (July); U.S.A.: 1906 (August); WASHINGTON, D.C.: 1919.

1906-1921.—Problem between white and black non-existent in Jamaica.—In the *International Journal of Ethics* for May, 1906, Professor Royce reported several visits to Jamaica—where 14,000 or 15,000 white inhabitants were living with about 650,000 black and mulatto people—that he had found no race problem existing, no racial antagonism, no public discussion of race equality or superiority. He said: "When once the sad period of emancipation and of subsequent occasional disorder was passed, the Englishman did in Jamaica

what he has so often and so well done elsewhere. He organized his colony; he established good local courts, which gained by square treatment the confidence of the blacks. The judges of such courts were Englishmen. The English ruler also provided a good country constabulary, in which native blacks also found service, and in which they could exercise authority over other blacks. Black men, in other words, were trained,—under English management, of course,—to police black men. A sound civil service was also organized; and in that educated negroes found in due time their place, while the chiefs of each branch of the service were and are, in the main, Englishmen. The excise and the health services, both of which are very highly developed, have brought the law near to the life of the humblest negro, in ways which he sometimes finds, of course, restraining, but which he also frequently finds beneficial. Hence, he is accustomed to the law; he sees its ministers often, and often, too, as men of his own race; and in the main he is fond of order, and respectful toward the established ways of society. The Jamaica negro is described by those who know him as especially fond of bringing his petty quarrels and personal grievances into court. He is litigious just as he is vivacious. But this confidence in the law is just what the courts have encouraged. That is one way, in fact, to deal with the too forward and strident negro. Encourage him to air his grievances in court, listen to him patiently, and fine him when he deserves fines. That is a truly English type of social pedagogy. It works in the direction of making the negro a conscious helper toward good social order. Administration, I say, has done the larger half of the work of solving Jamaica's race problem. Administration has filled the Island with good roads, has reduced to a minimum the tropical diseases by means of an excellent health service, has taught the population loyalty and order, has led them some steps already on the long road 'up from slavery,' has given them, in many cases, the true self-respect of those who themselves officially coöperate in the work of the law, and it has done this without any such result as our Southern friends nowadays conceive when they think of what is called 'negro domination.' Administration has allayed ancient irritations. . . . The work has been done by administration,—and by reticence. For the Englishman, in his official and governmental dealings with backward peoples, has a great way of being superior without very often publicly saying that he is superior. You well know that in dealing, as an individual, with other individuals trouble is seldom made by the fact that you are actually the superior of another man in any respect. . . . Be my superior, quietly, simply showing your superiority in your deeds, and very likely I shall love you for the very fact of your superiority. For we all love our leaders. But tell me that I am your inferior, and then perhaps I may grow boyish, and may throw stones. Well, it is so with races. Grant, then, that yours is the superior race. Then you can afford to say little about that subject in your public dealings with the backward race. Superiority is best shown by good deeds and by few boasts."—J. Royce, *Race questions and prejudices* (*International Journal of Ethics*, Apr., 1906).—This absence of friction between white and black and other colored races still continues. The almost pure negroes practically form a lower class by themselves, and there is nothing to hinder any of them from rising in the social scale. There is also a comparatively large Hindu population in the island, which, because of their religious and social peculiarities holds itself more

or less apart. The mixed race forms a middle class, and individuals who distinguish themselves, or are members of European families are accepted as a matter of course in white society. The statement may be made of all the British West Indian islands.

1909-1921.—Black and white problem in South and East Africa.—The problem of the black and white races in Africa, in the sections of the continent in which they come in conflict had already reached the stage of discussion in 1904, when it was stated that "The native population of Africa south of the Zambesi is ten millions. The white population is under one million. To-day the majority of the natives are in a semi-savage condition. But the day may come when they shall have emerged from that condition, and have attained the degree of civilisation which prevails amongst the negroes, their kindred, in the United States. The process of evolution has begun. When it is completed, the relative position of the black and white populations in South Africa will be—what? Look to the United States and you shall find some hint of the answer. The native population of Cape Colony, including the territories, is, in round numbers, 1,200,000, and the white population 377,000. Day by day the power of the native grows. The gate of the political arena stands wide open to him, and he is not slow to enter. With the exception of natives occupying lands under tribal tenure (an important exception, but one that is constantly diminishing), every male person, irrespective of colour, race, and creed, and above the age of twenty-one years, and born or naturalised a British subject, is entitled to the full franchise after one year's residence in the Colony, provided he occupies property of the value of 75*l.* or is in receipt of wages of not less than 50*l.* annually, and is able to sign his name and state in writing his address and occupation. Such a franchise would horrify the average American in the South, and unquestionably it will have to be radically amended unless the colonists are prepared to endure political annihilation. At present neither Bondsman nor Progressive will face the situation. Neither wishes to alienate the substantial aid which his party gets from the natives."—R. Jones, *Black peril in South Africa* (*Nineteenth Century*, May, 1904).—On the suffrage question for natives, connected with the Union of South African States, see SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1908-1909.—The problem is of no less importance in East Africa. In 1911, Maurice S. Evans, who had been a member of the legislative assembly of Natal, and who made a special study of the relations between the races, discussing the question of western civilization upon the primitive mind of the native said: "We have, among us [in South East Africa], an overwhelming preponderance of these people, we are a white speck in a black mass. They live in two camps of unequal size, the vast majority as did their fathers as tribesmen, the minority, more or less educated, and following, at greater or less distance, our life. We have so far broken in upon them as to notably decrease, in some cases to entirely kill, much that in the old time made up their interest in life. Before we arrived and in the early days of our occupation their lives, though easy, were not vacant, they had many interests and congenial occupations. Their share in their own government was limited, but they knew what was going on and were not ignored; from time to time they were called up to the kraal of the chief, and indirectly, their opinions had weight and formed custom and law. Under a tyrant they could not become lethargic or apathetic, the dan-

ger of some arbitrary action kept them on the alert, but their position was not irremediable, for they could and did rise, directly or by proxy, and assert their rights. The witchcraft which they dreaded, prevented them from stagnating, and folk lore and myth gave interest to their lives. Their strong physical natures found vent in warlike expeditions and tribal fights, the country was full of game, and hunting was a frequent exercise which worked off their hot blood. Their weapons and utensils were simple enough, but all had to be made by hand from raw materials which had to be found, and the manufacture gave scope to considerable ingenuity and some little artistic effort. All this we have changed. The pride of the Zulu in his king is limited to a tribal head under control of the magistrate. His laws are ready-made for him by the European, and his opinion thereon is never asked, his interests have degenerated into grievances. The great and absorbing game of war is forbidden him, and even faction fights are severely (too severely) punished. The great herds of wild animals have gone, and hunting, as his fathers knew it, with its thrilling dangers, is a thing of the past; at best he is called out as beater to a European shooting harmless buck. The weapons and utensils, to the making of which he had to devote time, patience, and skill, are now bought at the store of the Asiatic or white man. The old customs, the stories, folklore and myth, with knowledge of woodcraft and plant, all of which stimulated the mental powers and imagination, are rapidly being forgotten. As I cannot too often reiterate, they are, though outwardly little changed, undergoing inward changes, and the whole process amounts to bewilderment. The young people are getting out of hand; the simple interest their fathers had in their natural surroundings and social life is dwindling, and they look for excitement in more frequent visits to town and in beer drinking. This casting down of restraint and sanctions, coupled with the comparative monotony of their lives, is leading rapidly, in the opinion of nearly all observers, to deterioration of character. Neither the colonists in their private capacity, nor the Government as representing them, are replacing the old activities with any adequate substitute, and for the old recognized and accepted control familiar to them, is put the policeman. Laws without end are made to prevent their injuring the white man, but few which aim at their own benefit."—M. S. Evans, *Black and white in South East Africa*, pp. 106-108.

1913-1921.—Recurrence of Anti-Japanese agitation.—Heney-Webb law in California.—Legislation of 1920.—California situation.—Hindus in British Columbia.—"There can be little question that the Gentlemen's Agreement was a far more satisfactory way to meet the question of Japanese immigration [into the United States] than an exclusion law. Under the Chinese exclusion laws the American officials had to pass upon the right of an immigrant to be placed in the exempt class. This was a difficult thing to do, at an American port, with inadequate sources of information. . . . But, under the agreement, the Japanese Government scrutinized carefully every applicant for a passport. Its officials knew perfectly whether a man was a merchant or a laborer. There have been few if any cases of passports having been wrongly granted. Later criticisms arose from the nature of the agreement, rather than from its enforcement, and Japan then decided to bar out the so-called 'picture brides,' or women who had been married *in absentia* to Japa-

nese residents of the United States. . . . The immigration question is the fundamental question concerning the Japanese in the United States. It has been settled by an agreement which has worked satisfactorily since 1908. If at any time it should fail to operate, and Japanese laborers should enter the country in violation of its terms, some other method should be considered and adopted. But, on the other hand, the question has been complicated by various attempts to discriminate against Japanese who are lawfully resident in the United States. In so far as these measures are discriminatory they are indefensible. . . . [In 1912 Arizona passed an act to prevent the Japanese from forming colonies.] In 1913, the California Legislature passed an act [Heney-Webb Land Act] which denied to aliens ineligible to citizenship the right to own land or to lease agricultural land for more than three years."—P. J. Treat, *Japan and the United States*, pp. 256-258.—The actual provisions of this law were framed in such a way as to contain no express reference to Japanese and thus not to constitute in form a discrimination against Japanese. They read as follows: "Sect. 1. All aliens eligible to citizenship under the laws of the United States may acquire, possess, enjoy, transmit, and inherit real property, or any interest therein, in this state in the same manner and to the same extent as citizens of the United States, except as otherwise provided by the laws of this state. Sect. 2. All aliens other than those mentioned in Section 1 of this act may acquire, possess, enjoy, and transmit real property or any interest therein, in this state in the manner and the extent and for the purposes prescribed by any treaty now existing between the government of the United States and the nation or country of which such alien is a citizen or subject, and not otherwise, and may, in addition thereto, lease lands in this state for agricultural purposes for a term not exceeding three years." The Japanese public was greatly incensed and there was again talk in the Japanese press of war. (See also CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920.) "No anti-Japanese measures were advocated in California between 1913 and 1919. Students of the question, who realized how well the Gentlemen's Agreement was operating, believed that all occasion for agitation and misrepresentation had passed, and that the resident Japanese could now be judged on their merits as individuals rather than as representatives of an unpopular race. Unfortunately, early in 1919, the old agitation against the Japanese was renewed. . . . Between July, 1908, and July, 1919, 79,738 Japanese entered the continental United States, but 68,770 departed, so the net increase was only 10,968, or an average of less than a thousand a year. Yet, in spite of these official figures, the average Californian believed that Japanese laborers were pouring into the State. And, when the alarming statements regarding the Japanese birth-rate were tested by the actual facts, the conditions were found to be perfectly reasonable. . . . As a matter of fact, the birth-rate reached its peak in 1917, and has steadily declined. . . . The 1920 census figures reported a Japanese population of 70,707 out of a total of 3,426,861. The increase in the past decade had been, of Japanese, 29,351, and of the entire population, 1,049,312, so only the most inveterate opponents of the Japanese continued to predict a Japanese domination within the next few years. Japanese land-holding had, however, largely increased within the decade. [(See CALIFORNIA: 1920.) Although it was strongly opposed, the Anti-Alien Land Bill became law and thus] . . . for a second time, a measure was passed which reversed the

wise policy of President Roosevelt, for it combined a maximum of friction with a minimum of efficiency. [See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1920-1921: Anti-Japanese law in California.] The act made it more difficult, but not impossible, for Japanese to own land. But it did not prevent them from using land, as its advocates had alleged, for crop contracts would take the place of leases, as had frequently been done in the past. . . . The Japanese question in California, and in other Western States, consists of two elements, which should not be confused. One is the question of immigration, the other is the treatment of Japanese who are lawfully resident in the United States. The restriction of Oriental immigration is an American policy, as the Chinese exclusion laws, the General Immigration Act of 1917 [see IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1917], and the Gentlemen's Agreement with Japan, all testify. The policy is a wise one, and is so considered by thoughtful Japanese and Chinese."—P. J. Treat, *Japan and the United States*, pp. 259-263.—"All the other grievances which Americans harbor against the Japanese nation and her people are as nothing beside those arising from the so-called 'invasion' of California. . . . The average man east of the Rockies supposes that the Japanese is like the Chinaman who came to California in the old days. The Chinaman was a coolie, hailing as a rule from Canton, in southern China. He was the lowest grade of large-town worker, generally unskilled, and ready to turn his hand to any sort of rough labor that turned up. . . . Not so the Japanese who have poured into California. These men are skilled farmers and small business men. They have left their native land to carve their fortunes where opportunity beckons. They are eager to get a solid footing in their new home. They seek to become landowners and business men. They do not come to work for the Americans any more than the Pilgrim Fathers came to work for the Indians. They come as the Pilgrim Fathers did, to take possession of the country. . . . And the Easterner, accustomed to seeing all kinds of aliens becoming Americans, not only believes the Japanese but sympathizes with his aspiration. Not so the small California farmer. To him this very love of our country and the determination to merge one's identity in it threaten him with a competition he has already proved himself unable to withstand. Many Americans east of the Rockies have said: 'How foolish to oppose the Japanese when this country needs so many farm laborers. The California farmer is biting off his nose to spite his face when he advocates exclusion. If he shuts out the Japanese he will never find farm laborers.' To which we must reply that if the California farmer does not shut out the Japanese, he will not need farm laborers much longer. The State board report says: 'The Oriental is of no appreciable value as a farm laborer to the American farmer. Very few of them . . . are in the employ of American farmers as purely farm help. . . . The Oriental farm-laboring class is valuable principally to land speculators or developers who do not farm their own lands, but lease them upon some crop basis to Orientals. As a matter of fact there are probably more white laborers working for Oriental farmers than there are Oriental laborers working for American farmers.' Here we come to the very storm-center. The American who feels the 'Yellow Peril' acutely is the independent small farmer,—the man with one or two hundred acres off which he seeks to get a living and small competence for himself and his children. He has, let us say, been growing berries or sugar beets or

grapes or vegetables on his place for many years, all of which he has been selling in competition with other Americans whose standard of work and living has been the same as his own or nearly so. Into a community of such people there comes a keen and thrifty Japanese. For a year or two he may work around as a farm hand, . . . chiefly in order to discover the quality and promise of the soil in the district. Finally he rents a piece of ground, and then appear wife and children, and often, too, a small army of friends, all of the same race. All of these fall to, working at a pace which bewilders and horrifies the Americans thereabouts. Fourteen, sixteen, and even eighteen hours in the fields a day are schedules frequently observed in Japanese communities. . . . Out of every 100 people growing berries in California, 88 are Japanese. Out of every 100 who raise sugar beets, 67 are Japanese. Out of every 100 who grow grapes, 52 are Japanese. Out of every 100 who raise vegetables (for market, of course), 46 are Japanese. Out of every 100 who grow citrus fruits, 39 are Japanese. Out of every 100 who grow deciduous fruits, 36 are Japanese. . . . [Furthermore] when we are thinking about the human problems such as those involved in the Japanese issue [we must remember that the rich, fertile land in California comprises about one-sixth of the area of the State]. It is in the fertile one-sixth of the State that the Japanese have concentrated. Less than one-third of the white population of the State lives in this same fertile region. Thus, from the point of view of community life and economic development, the effective proportion of Japanese to whites is much greater than the general statistics for the State at large would indicate. . . . Thus we see that the social and economic struggle is really between some 800,000 whites thinly scattered over a region smaller than New York State and compact groups of Japanese officially numbering 87,279. . . . The whites, while they practise coöperation much more extensively than most American farmers do, in fact, still lag far behind the Japanese."—W. B. Pitkin, *Must we fight Japan?* pp. 193, 203-208, 218, 220.—Yet "it is doubtless true that at the beginning when Japanese immigrants first entered the labor market their wages were lower than those of whites and it is quite likely that in some cases white labor was driven out by Japanese. As a rule, however, Japanese took the place of vanishing Chinese. Today there is more work than workers, either white or brown. . . . Now the readiness of the Japanese to work long hours and in unhygienic conditions does raise a serious question. . . . Japanese have largely taken the place of Chinese in farm labor; . . . they have also made possible developments in berry, lettuce, celery and kindred crops which white labor alone would never have allowed. . . . It is no discredit, moreover, to the Japanese that he is thrifty and enterprising. . . . We want industrious, ambitious and enterprising labourers."—S. L. Gulick, *American Japanese problem*, pp. 29, 31-32.—See also PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Geographical description; WESTERN AUSTRALIA: 1921.—"The result of the prohibition [of Hindu immigration into Canada] was the famous voyage of the *Komagata Maru* from Hong Kong [in 1914] with a miscellaneous body of Indians collected, many of them no doubt under false pretences, but others collected with revolutionary intent. The Indians in Canada were under the influence of the revolutionary section of the Indians in the United States, and in the minds of these revolutionaries was concerted the device of the voyage of the vessel, with the idea either of compelling the Canadian Government to permit

their entry, or in the alternative of intensifying indignation in India. The vessel duly arrived, the law courts were invoked, but of course, in view of the clear requirements of the law, in vain, in favour of the Indians, save a few who, being domiciled in Canada, were allowed entry, and after an effort to defy the law, the Canadian Government, which it should be recorded, behaved with dignity and restraint, reprovisioned the vessel, and sent it away on its return voyage. [From] the subsequent history of the revolutionary members of its passengers, . . . Canada could not help feeling that her wisdom in repressing the entry of Indians was amply justified. . . . The same feeling was intensified by a series of murders of anti-revolutionaries by the revolutionary section, and in particular the brutal murder in open court of Mr. Hopkinson, who, on behalf of the Dominion and Indian Governments, had been engaged in the attempt to protect the peaceful Indians from the revolutionary section of the populace. On the other hand it is to be admitted that the [Indian] settlers in British Columbia had some real ground of grievance. . . . These immigrants, many of the Sikhs, soldiers of the Crown, had entered Canada in good faith without let or hindrance, had made good in the country, and desired that they should be rejoined by their wives and children. The difficulty felt on this head after the adoption by the Government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier of the policy of restriction after the riots in British Columbia led to the sending of a delegation to the Minister of the Interior in the new Ministry of Mr. Borden, and feeling was made more bitter by the assertion that Mr. Rogers then promised the deputation to relax the restrictions, and afterwards failed to keep his promise. . . . It is probable enough that the allegation of bad faith which was spread widely over India was a deliberate invention of the revolutionary section of the Indian population. In point of fact the Government saw their way in a couple of individual cases to relax the rigour of the law against the entry of the wives of the immigrants."—A. B. Keith, *Imperial unity and the dominions*, pp. 196-197.

1922-1923.—Consequences of continued migration of negroes in the United States.—"The intricate social and political problems occasioned by the presence of two dissimilar races in the United States have heretofore been deemed purely sectional matters. By anyone at all familiar with the history of the country . . . it was easily understood why the Negro race was found almost entirely within the Southern states, and it was assumed that it would probably always remain there. Now suddenly the race, moved by some widespread impulse, begins of its own volition a migration northward which may alter the entire aspect of the racial question in America, and possibly swell into one of those mighty floods which, like the flight of Tatar tribes, changes history. . . . One learns with surprise that the movement, first noted about two years ago, has already shifted nearly half a million of our colored citizens to the states of the North and West. In less than twelve months forty thousand colored farm-laborers have left Georgia. From replies to an . . . inquiry sent out by the Agricultural College of South Carolina it appears that during the period of six months ending May 1, 1923, forty-one counties in that state sent North fifty thousand Negroes, chiefly adult laborers. It is difficult to take in the full significance of these figures when applied to sparsely settled districts. One county, for instance, reports the loss of 3600 Negroes, or just 22 per cent of its entire population, white and black. It further reports the abandon-

ment of 2520 farms during the present season, showing that in the Cotton Belt the Negro exodus and the agricultural crisis go hand in hand. Another Carolina county, celebrated in the old days as standing second in the United States in point of cotton production, claims to have lost 3500 Negroes since the planting of the present crop. . . . However, those vast humid plains of the South Atlantic and Gulf states are destined to remain forever the home of the bulk of the African race in America. There climate and the ease with which an existence can be wheedled out of nature most nearly resemble conditions in his ancient land, and it is there that the race shows the greatest despite the constant trickle to other sections. In the North his numbers can be maintained only by accretions from the Black Belt. . . . Statistics compiled by Dr. Walter F. Wilcox of Cornell University show an amazing preponderance of Negro deaths over births in the colder states. In New England the ratio is 135 deaths to 100 births, in New York City, 16 deaths to six births, and in the state of Minnesota 65 deaths to one birth."—E. T. H. Shaffer, *New South: The negro migration*, (*Atlantic Monthly*, Sept., 1923).

1923.—Status of Indians in Kenya Colony.—"Although on the surface a seemingly unimportant issue, the status of Indians in Kenya Colony—a territory of East Africa—has raised a question which affects the whole structure of British imperialism. After a long and bitter controversy the British Government [in 1923] . . . reached a decision which is far from satisfactory to the natives of India. . . . The decision, set forth in a Parliamentary paper issued in London on July 24 may be regarded as the judgment in a test case defining the status of Indian immigrants in all parts of the British Empire. What the Indians wanted was simple enough; equality of treatment in all respects with both Europeans and natives not only in political rights but in unrestricted freedom to enter or leave the colony, to buy and sell land, to be eligible for the civil service, and to be spared the disadvantages and indignities of segregation. The British Government, which has consistently held that its role is that of protector of the natives, declares in the Parliamentary paper of July 24 that the Kenya Colony and Protectorate is African territory and that the interests of the African natives must be paramount, and that when these interests and the interests of immigrant races conflict, the former shall prevail. . . . The essential points of the settlement as laid down in the Parliamentary paper, . . . may be summarized as follows: That responsible self-government for the colony [of Kenya] is out of the question; that the Indian demand for equal franchise cannot be granted, but that the Government is prepared to grant the Indians and Arabs representation on the Legislative Council through the communal system of election; that the elected members of the Council shall comprise five Indians, one Arab and eleven Europeans. This leaves the franchise unchanged as regards white settlers. The policy of segregation as between Europeans and Asiatics in townships must be abandoned, but the existing practice of reserving agricultural land in the highlands for British and Europeans must be maintained. The Government undertakes temporarily to reserve an area in the lowlands and to ascertain when a demand exists for agricultural land on the part of the Indians. The Government declares it cannot countenance racial discrimination with respect to British immigrants, and that some further control over immigration in the economic interest of the natives is required. The Governor of Kenya is

instructed to investigate this matter. Finally, the Government suggests that the whole question may be re-examined after a period of years, with a view to improving the position of the Indians."—L. Powys, *Britain's imperial problem in Kenya Colony* (*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1923).

See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION; AMERICANIZATION: Problems of language, etc.

Also in: A. L. Harris, *Negro problem as viewed by negro leaders*.—J. H. Harris, *Britain's negro problem*.—W. Pickens, *American race problem* (*American-Scandinavian Review*, Aug., 1922).

RACHEL TRIBES. See JEWS: Formation, etc.

RACHISIUS, king of the Lombards; 744-750. **RACHMANINOV**, Sergei Vassilievitch (1873-), Russian composer. Studied at Petrograd conservatory; later at Moscow conservatory; conductor of Philharmonic concerts, London, 1899; taught in Moscow, 1903-1906, meanwhile conducting there from 1897-1906, first in private opera, then in imperial opera; "Francesca da Rimini," produced in Moscow, 1906.

RACINE, Jean Baptiste (1639-1699), French dramatist. See DRAMA: 1500-1700.

RACK-RENTING, Ireland. See ABSENTEEISM.

RADA, Ukrainian national assembly, established March, 1917. See UKRAINE: 1914-1921; 1916-1918; RUSSIA: 1917 (November-December).

RADAGAIUS, Radagais, or Rodogast.—"In the year 406, Italy was suddenly overrun by a vast multitude composed of Vandals, Sueves, Burgunds, Alans, and Goths, under the command of a king named Radagais. To what nation this king belonged is not certain, but it seems likely that he was an Ostrogoth from the region of the Black Sea, who had headed a tribe of his countrymen in a revolt against the Huns. The invading host is said to have consisted of 200,000 warriors, who were accompanied by their wives and families. These barbarians were heathens, and their manners were so fierce and cruel that the invasion excited far more terror than did that of Alaric. . . . Stilicho [the able minister and general of the contemptible Emperor of the West, Honorius] found it hard work to collect an army capable of opposing this savage horde, and Radagais had got as far as Florence before any resistance was offered to him. But while he was besieging that city, the Roman general came upon him, and, by surrounding his army with earthworks, compelled him to surrender. The barbarian king was beheaded, and those of the captives whose lives were spared were sold into slavery."—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths*, ch. 10. —See also ROME: 404-408.

Also in: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 1, ch. 5.

RADAMA I, king of Madagascar, 1810-1828. See MADAGASCAR: 1810-1804.

Radama II, king of Madagascar, 1861-1863.

RADAUTZ, town in Bukovina, Rumania. It was occupied by the Russians in 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 3.

RADCLIFFE, Ann (1764-1823), English novelist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1780-1830.

RADCLIFFE COLLEGE, founded in 1879 at Cambridge, Massachusetts, for the higher education of women. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Secondary education.

RADETSKY, Josef, Count of Radetz (1766-1858), Austrian field marshal. Served against the Turks and in the Napoleonic wars; appointed commander in Italy, 1831; took part in Italian campaigns, 1848-1849; victorious at Custoza, Mortara and Novara, and at the siege of Venice. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

RADICALISM.—"For more than a century there has been a vast movement of mind in the western world which now receives the general name of Radicalism, or, going back to the beginning of Radicalism in modern history, we should fix the time of its appearance when Martin Luther attached certain daring theses to the gates of the council church of Wittenberg. In the next century it assumed shape in English and New English Puritanism, in the next played a subordinate part in the American Revolution, while in France it became meantime a speculative mania, warring in the name of reason on all the higher antecedent experience of humanity. Which mania, getting to be practical, broke out in the immeasurable frenzy of the Revolution of 1789. Now the old Radicals were distinguished by some well marked mental and moral characteristics. Their creed was, to put it briefly, that the whole social order ought to be based on a few universal and self-evident propositions. . . . To-day, the written constitutions which were regarded as so many bulwarks of individual rights and of certain fundamental principles, are found to be either somewhat hampering to progress or are liable to be stretched in interpretation so as to cover accomplished facts. We do not now think of a fixed order,—of a state of things in which no great changes are to be made. . . . If the prevailing nature of the old Radicalism is considered, it will also be found to have been Puritan in the fullest sense of the word, and by Puritanism is meant a certain, high, unbending and always non-materialistic way of looking at life and approaching great questions. The true Puritan looks rather to the ends and purposes of things than to the pleasures of the moment. . . . Very different is the type of Radicalism now in the ascendant; the new Radical is as essentially unpuritanical as his prototype was puritanical. He is as hungry for pleasure and the lightening of the burden of life as the other was to improve his moral and intellectual status. He wants a good time in the most natural sense and a pleasant life of the kind that a great city provides. . . . Radicalism is characterized less by its principles than by the manner of their application. Its political doctrine is that of democracy and as a general thing liberal men will approve of it. And though democracy may be the parent of Radicalism, this is no dishonor to the parent. Democratic ideas in a justly liberal sense must necessarily have some offshoots which are deformed, because so many persons can appreciate mere license who cannot appreciate true liberty. . . . The fact that Radicalism, as often formulated by its leaders, meets among the working classes a very wide reception proves, indeed, that the Radicals are spreading something, but it does not prove that what they are spreading is Radicalism. What I here seek to point out is that the thing which is uttered by them with a certain aim and with a certain meaning, takes on another meaning as it enters the ears of the working classes, and presents to their minds aims of quite a different kind. Radicalism is, in this respect, rather an antagonism than a principle. It has less of political desire or of aspiration than of the spirit of contest against privilege. It would be absurd to suppose that the ordinary Radical argued politics or considered them on scientific principles, so much as with piqued feelings and with resentment. The main idea is to pull down and not to build up. There may be a dominance of principle in a small minority but there is a dominance of feeling in the great majority. Radicalism, speaking loosely, is hatred of class privilege. It is a sentiment which

is fanned by discontent. This brings us down to the bed-rock truth that only as a people grow better and wiser do they make intelligent progress toward the higher social state. The great task before reformers is to forward the mental, moral, and spiritual revolution involved in their ideal. This accomplished, all other reforms are easy."—J. E. Shea, *Radicalism and reform* (*Proceedings of the American Political Science Association, Dec., 26-29, 1906*).

RADIO TELEGRAPHY AND TELEPHONY. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: Telegraphy and telephony: Wireless or radio.

RADIO-ACTIVITY. See **CHEMISTRY**: Radio-activity.

RADISSON, Pierre Esprit, Sieur de, French-Canadian explorer. See **WISCONSIN**: 1658-1669.

RADIUM. See **CHEMISTRY**: Radio-activity: Radium.

Treatment of cancer. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Modern: 20th century: Study and modern treatment of cancer.

RADOM, town in Poland, about 100 miles south of Warsaw. Occupied by the Germans in 1915. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 7.

RADOSLAVISTS, Liberal party of Bulgaria. See **BULGARIA**: 1908-1914.

RADOVITCH, Andrey, prime minister of Montenegro. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: V. Balkan theater: e, 1.

RADOWITZ, Joseph Maria von (1797-1853), Prussian general and statesman. See **GERMANY**: 1850-1851.

RADYMNO, town in Galicia. It was captured by the Russians in 1914, and stormed by the Germans in 1915. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 4; 1915: III. Eastern front: g.

RADZIWILL, Michael Jerome (1778-1850), Polish general. See **POLAND**: 1830-1832.

RAE, John (1813-1893), Scottish Arctic explorer. See **ARCTIC EXPLORATION**: Chronological summary: 1848; 1853-1854.

RAEBURN, Sir Henry (1756-1823), Scottish portrait painter. See **PAINTING**: English.

RÆTIA. See **RHETIA**.

RAFA, town in Syria. It was occupied by the British in 1916 and 1917. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 2, iv; 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c, 1, i.

RAFFLES, Sir Thomas Stamford (1781-1826), English administrator and colonial governor. Secretary of the presidency of Penang, 1807-1808; lieutenant-governor of Malacca, 1811-1816; lieutenant-governor of Fort Marlborough, Sumatra, 1818-1823; founded Singapore, 1918. See **JAVA**: 1795-

1816; **SINGAPORE**; **STRAITS SETTLEMENTS**: Conquest and settlement.

RAGA, Ragha, or Rhages.—"The Median city next in importance to the two Ecbatanas was Raga or Rhages, near the Caspian Gates, almost at the extreme eastern limits of the territory possessed by the Medes. The great antiquity of this place is marked by its occurrence in the Zendavesta among the primitive settlements of the Arians. Its celebrity during the time of the Empire is indicated by the position which it occupies in the romances of Tobit and Judith. . . . Rhages gave name to a district; and this district may be certainly identified with the long narrow tract of fertile territory intervening between the Elburz mountain-range and the desert, from about Kasvin to Khaar, or from long. 50° to 52° 30'. The exact site of the city of Rhages within this territory is somewhat doubtful. All accounts place it near the eastern extremity; and, as there are in this direction ruins of a town called Rhei or Rhey, it has been usual to assume that they positively fix the locality. But . . . there are grounds for placing Rhages very much nearer to the Caspian Gates."—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Media, ch. 1*.—See also **CASPIAN GATES**.

RAGÆ. See **RATÆ**.

"RAGGED SCHOOLS," for the education of destitute children in Great Britain. See **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: Evening schools: England.

RAGHA. See **RAGA**.

RAGLAN, Fitzroy James Henry Somerset, 1st Baron (1788-1855), British field marshal. Military secretary to the duke of Wellington; took part in the later Napoleonic campaigns; commanded in the Crimea, 1854; made a field marshal after Balaklava and Inkermann.

RAGMAN'S ROLL. See **SCOTLAND**: 1328.

RAGUSA, seaport of Jugo-Slavia, on the Adriatic. Formerly a part of Austria-Hungary, it was ceded to Jugo-Slavia in 1919. See **LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF**.

RAIFEISEN SYSTEM, Germany. See **RURAL CREDIT**: Germany.

RAILROAD ARTILLERY. See **ORDNANCE**: 20th century.

RAILROAD BRAKES. See **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Railroad air brake; 20th century: Railroad brakes.

RAILROAD CONSPIRACY CASE (1851). See **MICHIGAN**: 1850-1860.

RAILROAD LABOR BOARD, United States. See **RAILROADS**: 1920: Esch-Cummins Act; **ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL**: United States: 1888-1921.

RAILROADS

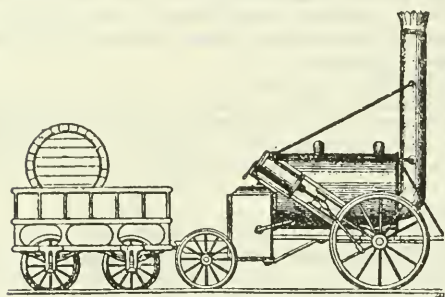
Their significance in modern civilization.—"Of all the factors that have contributed, during this century, to the growth of wealth, to the increase of material comfort, and to the diffusion of information and knowledge, the railway plays the most prominent part. It has widened the field for the division of employments; it has cheapened production; it has promoted exchange, and has facilitated intercommunication. In its aggregate it represents a larger investment of capital than any other branch of human activity; and the service that it renders, and has rendered, to society is, both from industrial and commercial points of view, greater than is rendered by any other

single service to which men devote their activities. . . . In the shape of the railway, the road has become the principal lever in man's conquest over want, distress from the accidents of birth in locality, and the disadvantages arising therefrom. It has diffused civilization, and has distributed the commodities of any one part of the civilized world over every other part, so that wants and satisfactions become substantially equalized throughout the industrial world. . . . The general result of railway construction has been an enormous increase of production and productive power on the part of mankind, and has also resulted in an enormous development in the character of produc-

tions, particularly in the direction of producing, for general and popular consumption, commodities which, until the railway was introduced, were in many cases impossible of transportation, except along the lines of waterway."—S. Sterne, *Railways in the United States*, p. 34.

1759-1881.—England.—Origin of steam railroad.—Early patents.—Stephenson's locomotive.—Railway mania.—Manchester and Liverpool railway.—Midland railways.—Monopolies.—Rate war.—To England is due the honor of the origin of the steam railroad. "The application of the steam engine to locomotion on land was, according to Watt, suggested by Robison, in 1759. In 1784, Watt patented a locomotive engine, which, however, he never executed. About the same time Murdoch, assistant to Watt, made a very efficient working model of a locomotive engine. In 1802, Trevithick and Vivian patented a locomotive engine, which was constructed and set to work in 1804 or 1805. It travelled at about five miles an hour, with a net load of ten tons. The use of fixed steam engines to drag trains on railways by ropes, was introduced by Cook in 1808. After various inventors had long exerted their ingenuity in vain to give the locomotive engine a firm hold of the track by means of rackwork-rails and toothed driv-

the son of a common workingman, and self-educated as a mechanic and engineer, was appointed engine-wright of Killingworth Colliery in 1812. In the following year he urged the lessees of the colliery to undertake the construction of a "travelling engine," as he called it. "Lord Ravensworth, the principal partner, had already formed a very favourable opinion of Stephenson, from the important improvements which he had effected in the colliery engines, both above and below ground; and, after considering the matter, and hearing Stephenson's statements, he authorized him to proceed with the construction of a locomotive. . . . The engine was built in the workshops at the West Moor, the leading mechanic being John Thirlwall, the colliery blacksmith, an excellent workman in his way, though quite new to the work now entrusted to him. . . . The wheels of the new locomotive were all smooth,—and it was the first engine that had been so constructed. From the first, Mr. Stephenson was convinced that the adhesion between a smooth wheel and an edgerail would be as efficient as Mr. Blackett had proved it to be between the wheel and the tramroad. . . . The engine was, after much labour and anxiety, and frequent alterations of parts, at length brought to completion, having been about ten months in hand. It was first placed upon the Killingworth Railway on the 25th of July, 1814; and its powers were tried on the same day. On an ascending gradient of 1 in 450, the engine succeeded in drawing after it eight loaded carriages of 30 tons' weight at about four miles an hour; and for some time after, it continued regularly at work. It was indeed the most successful working engine that had yet been constructed. . . . The working of the engine was at first barely economical; and at the end of the year the steam power and the horse power were ascertained to be as nearly as possible upon a par in point of cost. The fate of the locomotive in a great measure depended on this very engine. Its speed was not beyond that of a horse's walk, and the heating surface presented to the fire being comparatively small, sufficient steam could not be raised to enable it to accomplish more on an average than about three miles an hour. The result was anything but decisive; and the locomotive might have been condemned as useless had not Mr. Stephenson at this juncture applied the steam blast [carrying the escape of steam from the cylinders of the engine into the chimney or smoke-stack of the furnace], and at once more than doubled the power of the engine." A second engine, embodying this and other improvements, was constructed in 1815, with funds provided by Mr. Ralph Dodds. "It is perhaps not too much to say that this engine, as a mechanical contrivance, contained the germ of all that has since been effected. . . . It is somewhat remarkable that, although George Stephenson's locomotive engines were in daily use for many years on the Killingworth railway, they excited comparatively little interest."—S. Smiles, *Life of George Stephenson*, ch. 9-24.—The Stockton and Darlington line, incorporated "for making and maintaining a railway or tramroad from the river Tees at Stockton to Wilton Park Colliery, with several branches therefrom, all in the county of Durham," received Parliamentary sanction to employ locomotives for passenger traffic as well as freight; and on the first day (September 27, 1825) there was run a "mixed" train,—passengers were taken aboard on trucks, and other wagons carried coal,—but thereafter for a number of years steam traction was used exclusively for freight, usually coal; while passengers were carried by rail coaches, which were drawn

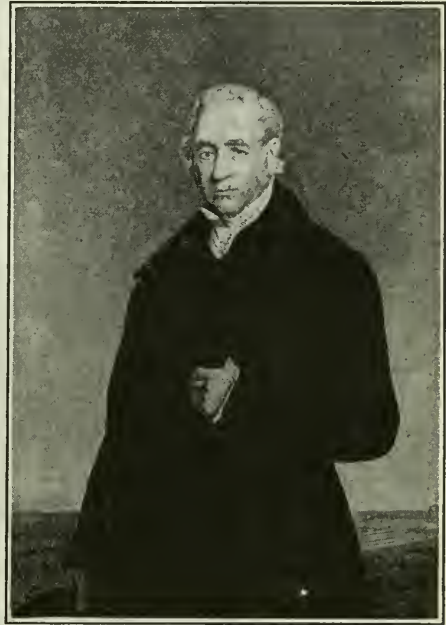


STEPHENSON'S "ROCKET," 1829

ing wheels, legs, and feet, and other contrivances, Blackett and Hedley, in 1813, made the important discovery that no such aids are required, the adhesion between smooth wheels and smooth rails being sufficient. To adapt the locomotive engine to the great and widely varied speeds at which it now has to travel, and the varied loads which it now has to draw, two things are essential—that the rate of combustion of the fuel, the original source of the power of the engine, shall adjust itself to the work which the engine has to perform, and shall, when required, be capable of being increased to many times the rate at which fuel is burned in the furnace of a stationary engine of the same size; and that the surface through which heat is communicated from the burning fuel to the water shall be very large compared with the bulk of the boiler. The first of these objects is attained by the 'blast-pipe,' invented and used by George Stephenson before 1825; the second, by the tubular boiler, invented about 1829, simultaneously by Séguin in France and Booth in England, and by the latter suggested to Stephenson. On the 6th October, 1829, occurred that famous trial of locomotive engines, when the prize offered by the directors of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was gained by Stephenson's engine, the 'Rocket,' the parent of the swift and powerful locomotives of the present day, in which the blast-pipe and tubular boiler are combined."—W. J. M. Rankine, *Manual of the steam engine*, pp. xxv-xxvii.—George Stephenson,

by horses, on this line. However, on this 25-mile railroad was first demonstrated the use of the steam cars as a common carrier. Many roads, besides the Liverpool and Manchester railway, were projected at this time. The Liverpool and Manchester railway was constructed by Stephenson, and opened for service in 1830, when his famous locomotive, the "Rocket" achieved a speed of thirty-five miles an hour. Owing to a severe financial crisis, "the state of the country was such that it was impossible to bring the projects before Parliament with any prospect of success. Thus, what might have been a railway boom in 1825 and 1826, collapsed for want of money, and it was not until ten years later that public interest in railway projects became general."—H. G. Lewin, *British railway system*, pp. 5-7.—From 1835 to 1844 was a period of great activity in railroad construction in the British Isles. Short lines were extended into trunk lines and new roads were pushed to completion in remote sections of the country. "There were few securities in which the moneyed classes could invest their savings. The debt of the nation was decreasing; and the public funds were no longer a very remunerative investment. The canal system was tolerably complete, and did not require the expenditure of any large amount of capital. Agricultural improvements had been arrested by the decreased price of agricultural produce; and there were no other obvious purposes to which an ordinary investor could devote his little savings. Yet the savings went on accumulating, and were ready for any profitable use. The natural result ensued. Financing speculators, with more ability than honesty, came forward to relieve the investors of their superfluous money; and the savings of the nation, pouring into the only available outlets, were wasted in the waters of the ocean or the deserts of South America. It required the crisis of 1825-6 to convince the people of the supreme folly which they had committed. But the sharp lesson, while it taught them prudence, did not teach them how to save. They abstained from investing their savings abroad, but they kept them unproductive at home. Trade, in consequence, stagnated from the prevalent distress; and the labouring classes, suffering from its stagnation, were unable to find employment for their labour. The introduction of railways at once altered this condition of things. The investing classes found a new, safe, and almost illimitable field for the investment of their money; the labouring classes found a new sphere for the employment of their labour. . . . Engineers, surrendering their previous opinions, were now busily projecting new railways, and fondly speculating on the almost illimitable field for the exercise of their abilities which was suddenly afforded them. For a season, indeed, conservative municipalities, stagnating in the torpor of their dull existence, had the folly to resist the invasion of their quiet towns by the steam-engine. . . . Interested opposition of this character soon disappeared, because the benefits which the railway conferred on municipalities . . . outweighed the slight inconveniences which it brought with it; and the very classes, who, at one time, had tried to resist even the approach of the railway, complained if they had no station within easy distance of their own door."—S. Wahpole, *History of England*, pp. 25, 24.—"All the English railways were constructed by private enterprise, each under a particular act of Parliament. In 1836-37 railroad speculation developed to the point of mania. There was scarcely a practicable line between two considerable places that was not embraced in the pros-

pectus of one or another company. Promoters resorted to all kinds of tricks to get capital and spent extraordinary sums in the struggle for Parliamentary authorizations. . . . By 1838 the four great centers of London, Birmingham, Liverpool and Manchester were all connected by rail. Less than 2000 miles had been constructed up to 1843, but in 1848 more than 5000 had been built. The capital expended amounted to \$325,000,000 in 1843 and to more than \$1,000,000,000 in 1848. By 1861 the capital embarked in these enterprises amounted to \$1,800,000,000, over \$80,000,000 a year having been expended during the preceding 18 years."—L. G. McPherson, *Transportation in Europe*, pp. 225, 227.—"Although the Liverpool and Manchester line paid eight or nine per cent dividends from the outset, the general money market did not become interested in railway shares until 1843; in the earlier period, railways were



GEORGE STEPHENSON
(After painting by John Lucas)

financed by local funds. . . . The usual source of capital was the mercantile community in the towns at either end of the line; the Liverpool and Manchester project was typical of railway projects for somewhat more than a decade. . . . Communication between Liverpool, Manchester, and London was controlled by four separate companies. Traffic from the midland cities, Derby, Nottingham, Leeds, and intermediate points, was served by three closely related lines, which secured connection with London by transfer to the London and Birmingham at Rugby. The actual inconvenience was not as great as might be imagined, for provision was made from the outset for the joint use of stations and in some cases for the joint use of portions of track. . . . Through passenger coaches were put into operation between London and points on the railroads of the Midland lines at an early date, and the complexities of the division of revenues from traffic led to the establishment of the Railway Clearing-House in 1842. . . . In 1844 Parliamentary sanction was obtained for

the formation of the Midland Railway. This was the nucleus of the first of the modern railway systems to be formed by amalgamation of small lines. The component parts of the London and North Western were united in 1846. The Great Western, however, was not the result of amalgamations. It was somewhat similar to the other projects in so far as it was a scheme for connecting London and Bristol, but the project really went far beyond the limits of a scheme to serve purely local interests. This road was surveyed by Brunel and his influence appears not only in certain technical details of engineering, but also in the general conception of the road. . . . The Great Western was . . . conceived as a complete system that should primarily depend upon a monopoly of traffic in an entire region. It was certainly the first of the

The Great Western began to adapt its line to the northern gauge at an early date, at first by adding a third rail so that both gauges could be used, latterly by a complete abandonment of the broad gauge. . . . The density of traffic in the London-Liverpool district and the traffic between London and Scotland led to competition as soon as the railway network began to approach its ultimate form. Lines built for local purposes possessed significance from the point of view of through traffic, so that competition emerged where none was originally planned. . . . As early as 1835-36, merchants of York, led by George Hudson, projected lines to connect York with the Midland lines at Leeds and other lines to afford a Scottish connection. The section between York and Leeds was soon completed and the rails were ex-



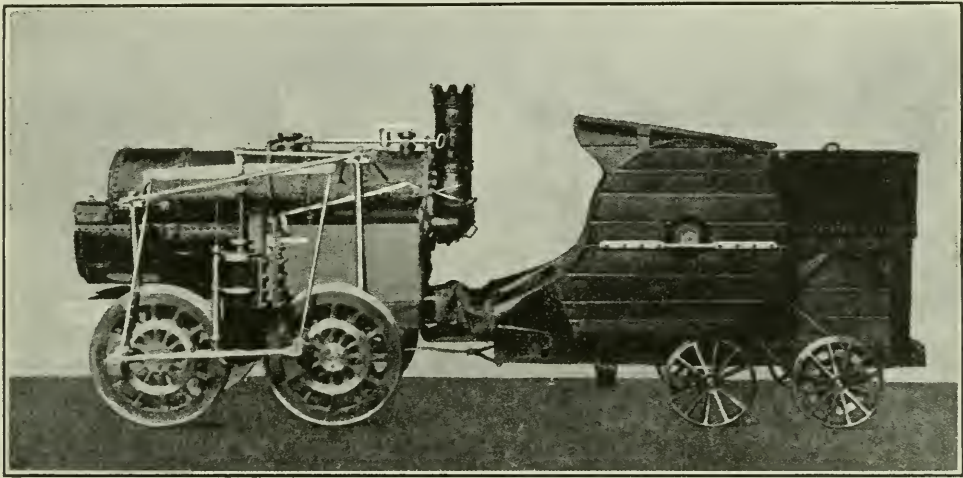
IMPROVED MODEL OF STEPHENSON'S "ROCKET," 1837

railways to be planned in the modern spirit, with a view to what we may call commercial strategy. The ultimate extensions to Oxford and Liverpool were not foreseen by Brunel, but the domination of the west of England was part of the plan. The notion that the road was to be somewhat isolated induced Brunel to modify in some details the character of the engineering work. The gauge of the roads in the north, built by Stephenson, or under the influence of his ideas, was the four-foot-eight-and-one-half-inch gauge that had been taken from the tram wagons of the colliery lines. Brunel felt that this gauge was not well adapted to the needs of a railway. . . . He therefore recommended a seven-foot gauge, confident that the slight additional expense involved in laying the roadbed would be recovered in economies of operation. . . . The development of contacts with the roads of the London-Liverpool traffic region, however, rendered the difference in the gauge unfortunate.

tended northward by easy stages. In 1841 the rails stopped at Darlington; extension to Newcastle was authorized in the following year and opened in 1846. The Newcastle-Berwick section was opened in October, 1847; and as Scotch companies had been at work on the Edinburgh end since 1844, it was possible to offer through service from London to Edinburgh. The trip was made in thirteen hours and ten minutes; an all-rail route except for the gap caused by the delay in the completion of the bridge over the Tyne at Newcastle. Meanwhile the London and North Western interests had been at work on a west coast route, via Lancaster and Carlisle, which was finally opened for traffic in February, 1848. The first trains on this route ran on a fifteen-and-one-half-hour schedule, but by July the trains were making the journey to Edinburgh in twelve hours. In the fall the Tyne bridge was completed, but the east coast service was hampered by the dependence upon the

London and North Western for connections between Rugby and London, and in this service there were discriminations in favor of the passengers and freight that were booked for Scotch points via the west coast route. . . . A through line from London to York [at first opposed by Hudson] . . . was finally authorized as the Great Northern Railway in June, 1846. Portions of the line were opened for traffic in 1850. . . . The London and North Western, assisted by the Midland as a subservient ally, endeavored to exclude the Great Northern from all possible traffic and proposed arrangements which would afford minimum facilities for the handling of such traffic as involved joint activity. Branches were built into Great Northern territory, the Scotch companies associated with the London and North Western were persuaded to refuse traffic and connections, and attempts were made to induce the local east and west lines to boycott the new road. . . . Timetables were arranged with a view to producing a maximum degree of inconvenience to passengers using the new line. The opening of increased por-

panies included were the London and North Western, the Lancaster and Carlisle, and the Caledonian, constituting the west coast group; the North British, the York, Newcastle and Berwick, the York and North Midland, and the Great Northern, constituting the east coast route; and the Midland, which at this time was hardly more than a connecting link between the two great competitive systems. The Octuple Agreement was relatively unfavorable to the Great Northern; it received no share in the traffic of Glasgow, Perth, and Aberdeen, and only an unsatisfactory share of the traffic with Edinburgh, Berwick, and Newcastle. These arrangements were distinctly less amiable than the arrangements between the London and North Western and the Great Western with reference to competitive traffic. In those negotiations provision was made for charging equal rates based on the shortest or most advantageous route; in dealing with the Great Northern, the directors of the London and North Western were unwilling to recognize the new line as an equal, and the agreements were merely a kind of truce which did not



FIRST FRENCH LOCOMOTIVE OF MARC SÉGUIN

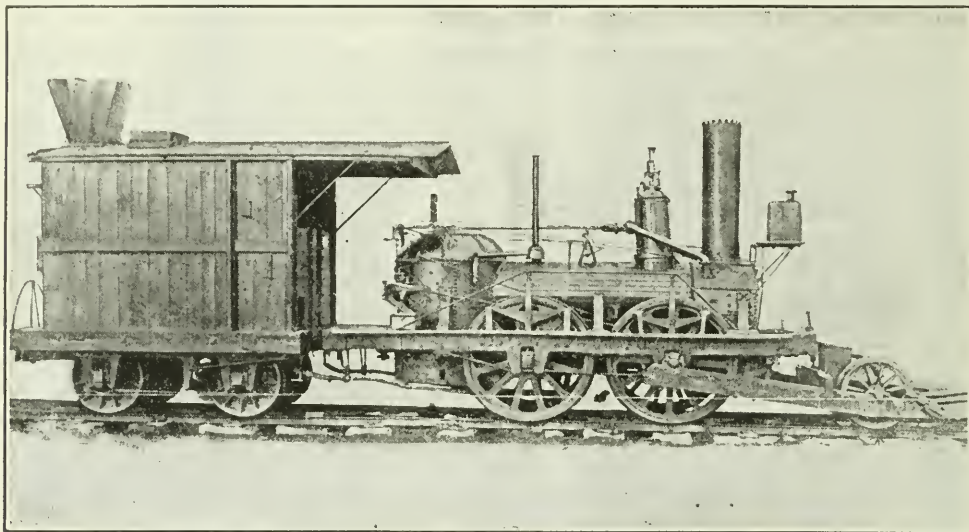
tions of the Great Northern line produced a wild rate war among the roads seeking passengers to the Exhibition of 1851; round-trip fares from the West Riding to London fell from fifteen shillings to ten, and then to five shillings. Finally, the Great Northern agent at Leeds declared that the Great Northern fare would be sixpence less than any fare declared by any other road. This rate war was proceeding simultaneously with negotiations among the roads for a division of traffic and an agreement as to rates. The general principle of a traffic pool had been assumed at the outset, and it was equally clear that there must be rate agreements, but matters of detail proved such an obstacle that it was necessary to call in as arbitrator, the . . . President of the Board of Trade, W. E. Gladstone. . . . The award finally made was based upon somewhat arbitrary percentages, the Great Northern being awarded sixty-three per cent of the traffic of the most intensely disputed area—Lincolnshire. This Gladstone award covered only the traffic south of York. The Scotch traffic had caused somewhat less trouble so that the roads had reached an agreement privately in March, 1851. The arrangement involved eight companies and is therefore known as the 'Octuple Agreement': the

put an end to the attempt to destroy the traffic of the Great Northern. The London and North Western urged passengers to buy tickets to intermediate points, and from such places to London, rates being arranged to reduce the total fare below the level provided for in the award. . . . The Midland could not exist as an independent line between the London and North Western on one side and the Great Northern on the other side. . . . The London and North Western, however, succeeded in winning the Midland over to its old allegiance and in 1853 application was made to Parliament for authority to amalgamate the two systems. . . . The whole matter was canvassed by a committee of the House of Commons of which Mr. Cardwell was chairman and the decision was in favor of competition among the railways. [The Midland developed lines to competitive points on all coasts.] . . . The accomplishment of these results was difficult. When the proposed amalgamation of 1853 was denied by Parliament the two companies contented themselves with a secret joint-purse agreement which was not discovered until 1857. The officials of the Great Northern discovered it unexpectedly and used their knowledge to put an end to the alliance between the London and North

Western and the Midland. . . . Arrangement was made for the Midland to use the tracks of the Great Northern between Hitchin and London, so that Midland trains began to operate directly to London in 1858, though the traffic was frequently obstructed by discreetly contrived difficulties in the yards and terminals. Work on an independent entrance to London was begun in 1860, but the terminal at St. Pancras and the line to Bedford were not completed until 1869. The Scotch connections were still slower in development. The line to Carlisle was opened for freight in 1875."—A. P. Usher, *Introduction to industrial history of England*, pp. 443-444, 446-452, 454-456.—See also SCOTLAND: 1750-1921.

ALSO IN: R. Young, *Timothy Hackworth and the locomotive*.—W. T. Jackman, *Development of transportation in modern England*.—W. M. Acworth, *Railways of England*.—J. Francis, *History of English railways, 1820-1845*.—F. Wishaw, *Railways of Great Britain and Ireland*.

acquiring the real estate, and that the concessionary companies should provide the track and its appurtenances and the rolling-stock, and should conduct the operations [but], upon the expiration of each concession the permanent way and the equipment were to be taken over by the government at an expert valuation."—L. G. McPherson, *Government transportation in Europe*, pp. 45, 49.—"The railway history of France stands by itself. Nowhere is the passion for logic and the love of symmetry which distinguish the French genius better exemplified than in the history of the French Railway system. . . . The whole country was divided up among six great companies, five of which radiate from Paris, and the sixth, the Midi, serves the extreme South and Southwest. The development of the railway network has been systematic from the outset; trunk lines first, then important branches, then the less important ones, and finally in recent years a considerable development of light secondary lines. Throughout, the State . . .



THE "JOHN BULL"

© Keystone View Co.

One of the earliest engines of the Pennsylvania railroad, first used in 1831.

1823-1905.—France.—Origin of railroads.—Development of projected system.—Government concessions.—Government ownership.—"The origin of railways in France is found in the two lines constructed in 1823 and 1826, with horses as the motive power, to connect the coal field of Saint Étienne with the Rhone on the one side and the Loire on the other. Concessions for lines between Paris and St. Germain and Versailles were awarded in 1835 and 1836. . . . A law enacted on June 11, 1842, ordered the construction of the nine lines that constitute today the main arteries of the French network. Seven of these lines focus at Paris; one from Nancy and Strasburg, one from Marseilles and Lyons, one from Toulouse and Bourges, one from Bayonne, Bordeaux and Tours, one from Nantes, one from Havre and Rouen, one from Belgium and Lille; and there are two transverse lines, one from Bordeaux to Marseilles by way of Toulouse, and one from Mulhouse to Dijon. To secure the establishment of these lines, the government offered concessions, stipulating that the state should construct the roadbed and the structures, that the localities through which the lines were to pass should pay two-thirds of the cost of

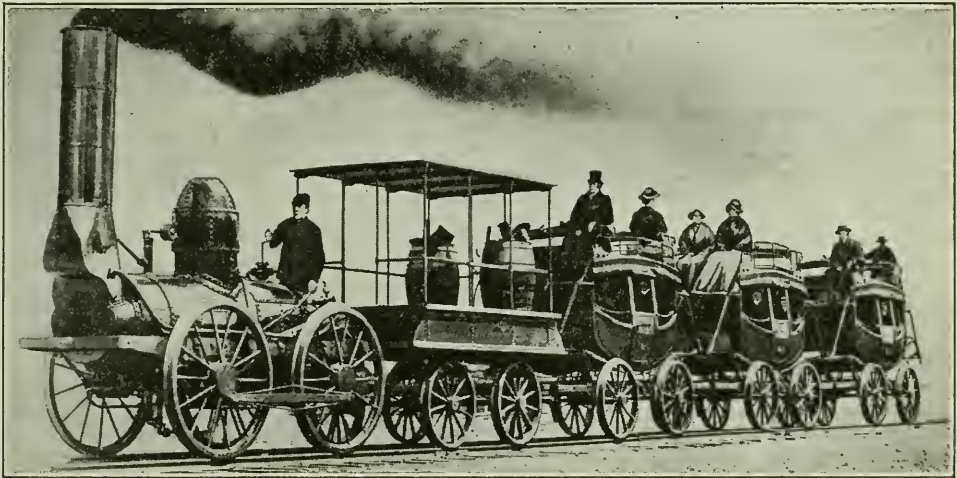
guided, subsidized and controlled. Each company . . . [had] a monopoly of its own district. So far as possible, the points where the great systems meet are arranged—not, as in Holland, or formerly in Italy, at the great towns—but precisely at the points of least importance from a traffic standpoint. Where traffic is unavoidably competitive, as for instance from Paris to Central Switzerland, which can be reached either by the Eastern or by the Paris and Lyons railway, arrangements are deliberately made to prevent competition. The Government controls all rates and fares charged and all services given, and the Government approves, not merely of pools, but of agreements by which shippers, attempting to consign traffic by the route by which the railway companies have agreed the traffic shall not flow, are deliberately penalized by higher rates."—W. M. Acworth, *Historical sketch of government ownership of railroads in foreign countries*, pp. 29-30.—In the quarter of a century preceding 1905, the French railroad mileage increased 71 per cent.

ALSO IN: E. Milhaud, *Les Fermiers généraux du rail*.

1826-1850.—United States.—Railroad begin-

nings.—“Whatever credit is due to the construction of the first railroad ever built in America is usually claimed for the State of Massachusetts. Every one who has ever looked into a school history of the United States knows something of the Quincy railway of 1826. Properly speaking, however, this was never—or at least, never until the year 1871,—a railroad at all. It was nothing but a specimen of what had been almost from time immemorial in common use in England, under the name of ‘tram-ways.’ . . . This road, known as the Granite railway, was built by those interested in erecting the Bunker Hill Monument, for the purpose of getting the stone down from the Quincy quarries to a wharf on Neponset River, from which it was shipped to its destination. The whole distance was three miles, and the cost of the road was about \$34,000.”—C. F. Adams, Jr., *Railroads, their origin and problems*, ch. 1.—“In 1826, a coal mining company began using a railroad over the mountains from Carbondale to Honesdale, Pa., and the following year another coal company put a similar road [Switchback Railroad] into service at Mauch

very simple product of native genius. . . . In June, 1831, a second locomotive, called the West Point, had arrived in Charleston; and this at last was constructed on the principle of Stephenson’s Rocket. In its general aspect, indeed, it greatly resembled that already famous prototype. There is a very characteristic and suggestive cut representing a trial trip made with this locomotive on March 5th, 1831. . . . About six months before . . . there had actually been a trial of speed between a horse and one of the pioneer locomotives, which had not resulted in favor of the locomotive. It took place on the present Baltimore & Ohio road upon the 28th of August, 1830. The engine in this case was contrived by no other than Mr. Peter Cooper. . . . The Cooper engine, however, was scarcely more than a working model. Its active-minded inventor hardly seems to have aimed at anything more than a demonstration of possibilities. The whole thing weighed only a ton, and was of one-horse power. . . . Poor and crude as the country was, however, America showed itself far more ready to take in the far reaching consequences of



FIRST TRAIN RUN FROM ALBANY TO SCHENECTADY, AUGUST 9, 1831

Chunk, Pa. These mountain roads were built for private use, and the cars were operated by the force of gravity and by means of stationary engines. They were not railroads in the present meaning of the term. . . . The Baltimore & Ohio Railroad was the pioneer, in that it was the first road to be constructed for the general use of the public.”—E. R. Johnson, *Elements of transportation*, p. 7.

“There is, indeed, some reason for believing that the South Carolina Railroad was the first ever constructed in any country with a definite plan of operating it exclusively by locomotive steam power. . . . On the 15th of January, 1831—exactly four months after the formal opening of the Manchester & Liverpool road—the first anniversary of the South Carolina Railroad was celebrated with due honor. A queer looking machine, the outline of which was sufficient in itself to prove that the inventor owed nothing to Stephenson, had been constructed at the West Point Foundry Works in New York during the summer of 1830—a first attempt to supply that locomotive which the Board had, with a sublime confidence in possibilities, unanimously voted on the 14th of the preceding January should alone be used on the road. The name of Best Friend was given to this

the initiative which Great Britain gave in 1830 than any other country in the world. . . . It might almost be said that there was a railroad mania. . . . Accordingly, after 1830 trial trips with new locomotives followed hard upon each other. To-day it was the sensation in Charleston; to-morrow in Baltimore; the next day in Albany. Reference has already been made to a cut representing the excursion train of March 5th, 1831, on the South Carolina Railroad. There is, however, a much more familiar picture of a similar trip made on the 9th of August of the same year from Albany to Schenectady, over the Mohawk Valley road. This sketch, moreover, was made at the time and on the spot by Mr. W. H. Brown.”—C. F. Adams, Jr., *Railroads, their origin and problems*, ch. 1.—“The present great New York Central System originated in the charter granted in 1826 to the Mohawk & Hudson, seventeen miles of which, from Albany to Schenectady, were opened for traffic in 1831. Between 1830 and 1835, three lines were built out of Boston, one to Providence, another to Lowell, and a third to Worcester. The Worcester line was extended to Albany by 1841. The following year one could travel [using a dozen of connecting roads] by rail from Boston to

Buffalo. The germ of the Pennsylvania System was the Columbia Railroad, built by the State of Pennsylvania from Philadelphia to Columbia on the Susquehanna River. It was put into operation in 1834. Three years later, private corporations had built lines from Philadelphia to New York Bay and to Baltimore. The next year the Reading Railroad up the Schuylkill Valley was in operation. Railroad building in the South began in South Carolina with the line from Charleston to Hamburg on the Savannah River opposite Augusta. When this road, 137 miles in length, was opened in 1834, it had the distinction, for a short time, of being the longest railroad in the world. . . . It was uncertain at the start of railroad building, and for some time afterwards, whether the railways could carry freight cheaply enough to compete with the canals, rivers, and lakes over routes where waterways were in existence or could be constructed. . . . [In] 1850, the mileage was 9000."—E. R. Johnson, *Elements of transportation*, pp. 8, 10.—See also U.S.A.: 1836-1840; ALABAMA: 1830-1833; INDIANA: 1831-1876; MICHIGAN: 1830-1846; MISSISSIPPI: 1831-1869; PENNSYLVANIA: 1825-1836.

ALSO IN: C. McGill, *History of transportation in the United States before 1860*.—L. H. Haney, *Congressional history of railroads to 1850*.—C. F. Carter, *When railroads were new*.—H. S. Tanner, *Description of canals and railroads of the United States, 1840*.—J. L. Ringwalt, *Development of transportation systems in United States, 1888*.

1830-1880.—United States.—Mechanical improvements of railroads.—"After the success of the 'Rocket,' and of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, the authority of George Stephenson and his son Robert became absolute and unquestioned upon all subjects of railway engineering. Their locomotives had very little side play to their wheels, and could not go around sharp curves. They accordingly preferred to make their lines as straight as possible, and were willing to spend vast sums to get easy grades. Their lines were taken as models and imitated by other engineers. . . . When we come to the United States we find an entirely different state of things. The key to the evolution of the American railway is the contempt for authority displayed by our engineers, and the untrammelled way in which they invented and applied whatever they thought would answer the best purpose, regardless of precedent. . . . The first, and most far-reaching, invention was that of the swivelling truck, which, placed under the front end of an engine, enables it to run around curves of almost any radius. . . . The swivelling truck was first suggested by Horatio Allen, for the South Carolina Railway, in 1831; but the first practical use of it was made on the Mohawk and Hudson Railroad, in the same year. It is said to have been invented by John B. Jervis, Chief Engineer of that road. The next improvement was the invention of the equalizing beams or levers, by which the weight of the engine is always borne by three out of four or more driving-wheels. They act like a three-legged stool, which can always be set level on any irregular spot. The original imported English locomotives could not be kept on the rails of rough tracks. The same experience obtained in Canada when the Grand Trunk Railway was opened, in 1854-5. The locomotives of English pattern constantly ran off the track; those of American pattern hardly ever did so. Finally all their locomotives were changed by having swivelling trucks put under their forward ends, and no more trouble occurred. The equalizing levers were patented in 1838, by Joseph Harrison,

Jr., of Philadelphia. These two improvements, which are absolutely essential to the success of railways in new countries, and have been adopted in Canada, Australia, Mexico, and South America, to the exclusion of English patterns, are also of great value on the smoothest and best possible tracks. The flexibility of the American machine increases its adhesion and enables it to draw greater loads than its English rival. The same flexibility equalizes its pressure on the track, prevents the shocks and blows, and enables it to keep out of the hospital and run more miles in a year than an English locomotive. Equally valuable improvements were made in cars, both for passengers and freight. Instead of the four-wheeled English car, which on a rough track dances along on three wheels we owe to Ross Winans, of Baltimore, the application of a pair of four-wheeled swivelling trucks, one under each end of the car, thus enabling it to accommodate itself to the inequalities of a rough track and to follow its locomotive around the sharpest curves. . . . The climbing capabilities of a locomotive upon smooth rails were not known until, in 1852, Mr. B. H. Latrobe, Chief Engineer of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, tried a temporary zigzag gradient of 10 per cent,—that is 10 feet rise in 100 feet length, or 528 feet per mile—over a hill about two miles long, through which the Kingwood Tunnel was being excavated. . . . It was worked for passenger traffic for six months. This daring feat has never been equalled. Trains go over 4 per cent. gradients on the Colorado system, and there is one short line, used to bring ore to the Pueblo furnaces, which is worked by locomotives over a 7 per cent. grade. These are believed to be the steepest grades worked by ordinary locomotives on smooth rails. Another American invention is the switchback. By this plan the length of line required to ease the gradient is obtained by running backward and forward in a zigzag course, instead of going straight up the mountain. . . . With the improvement of brakes and more reliable means of stopping trains upon steep grades, came a farther development of the above device, which was first applied on the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad in Colorado, and has since been applied on a grand scale on the Saint Gothard road, the Black Forest railways of Germany, and the Semmering line in the Tyrol. This device is to connect the two lines of the zigzag by a curve at the point where they come together, so that the train, instead of going alternately backward and forward, now runs continuously on. It becomes possible for the line to return above itself in spiral form, sometimes crossing over the lower level by a tunnel, and sometimes by a bridge. . . . There is one thing more which distinguishes the American railway from its English parent, and that is the almost uniform practice of getting the road open for traffic in the cheapest manner and in the least possible time, and then completing it and enlarging its capacity out of its surplus earnings, and from the credit which these earnings give it."—T. C. Clarke, *American railway*, pp. 3-4, 7-10.

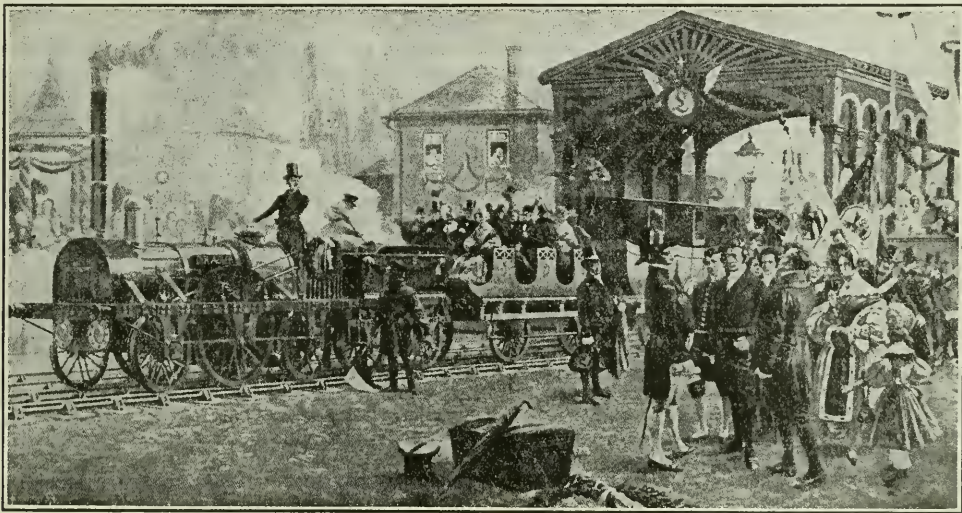
ALSO IN: E. R. Johnson and T. W. Van Metre, *Principles of railroad transportation*, ch. 4-5.—W. V. Turner and S. W. Dudley, *Development in air brakes for railroads*.—E. Hungerford, *Modern railroad*.

1830-1853.—Canada.—Early railroads.—St. Lawrence and Atlantic, the first international railroad.—"The railway found Canada scarcely a geographical expression, and made it a nation. . . . From the beginning in Canada, to a much greater degree than in Great Britain or in the United

States, the railway was designed to serve through traffic. But it was regarded at first as only a very minor link in the chain. River and canal were still considered the great highways of through traffic. Only where there were gaps to be bridged between the more important waterways was the railway at first thought profitable. . . . In 1832, . . . a charter was granted by the legislature of Lower Canada to the Company of the Proprietors of the Champlain and St. Lawrence Railroad, for a line from Laprairie on the St. Lawrence to St. Johns, sixteen miles distant on the Richelieu river, just above the rapids. From St. Johns transportation to New York was easily effected, through the Richelieu to Lake Champlain and thence to the Hudson. This portage road promised to shorten materially the journey from Montreal to New York. Construction was begun in 1835, and the road opened for traffic in July 1836. The rails were of wood, with thin flat bars of iron spiked on. These were apt to curl up on the least provocation,

system prompted further steps. A second stage in Canadian railway building had begun [when the Grand Trunk was started in 1853]. . . . [But] the St. Lawrence and Atlantic was the Canadian half of the first international railway ever built. At the outset much more than half of the enterprise and activity was centred in the United States, for the Canadas were still apprentices in railway promotion and construction."—O. D. Skelton, *Railway builders*, pp. 12, 36-41.

1832-1905.—Germany.—State construction of railroads.—Prussian predominance.—Bismarck and railway problems of the empire.—"The construction of steam railroads in Germany did not begin until several lines were well under way in England and in the United States. The first railroad was a short local line between Nuremberg and Fürth, opened in 1832. Other similar lines were then built, to connect towns not far distant one from another such as Dresden and Leipzig, Berlin and Potsdam, Brunswick and Wolfenbuettel.



OPENING OF FIRST GERMAN RAILROAD BETWEEN NUREMBERG AND FÜRTH

(After painting by H. Heim, in the German Museum at Munich)

whence came their popular name of 'snake-rails.' At first horse power was used, but in 1837 the proprietors imported an engine and an engineer from England. Some premonition of trouble made the management decide to make the trial run by moonlight. In spite of all the efforts of the engineer and officials, the *Kitten* would not budge an inch. Finally an engineer, borrowed from the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, reported that all that was needed was 'more wood and water,' and given these the *Kitten* gambolled along at twenty miles an hour. . . . For ten years the sixteen-mile Champlain and St. Lawrence was the sole steam railway in British North America, while by 1846 the United Kingdom had built over twenty-eight hundred miles, and the United States nearly five thousand. Political unrest, commercial depression, absorption of public funds in canals, hindered development in Canada. . . . It was not until the railway mania broke out in England in the middle forties . . . that Canadian promoters found interest awakened and capitalists keen to listen. At the same time, the active competition of United States roads for the western traffic and the approaching completion of the St. Lawrence canal

The early development of the main lines was in an easterly and westerly direction in the interior. . . . The first railways in Prussia were built by private companies, the state being unable to raise large funds for railway construction. Besides granting concessions to private companies, the state sometimes aided them by the direct purchase of shares and by the guaranty of interest. All such concessions provided that the state could take over the lines at will. . . . In some of the other German states the railways were constructed and operated by the government, in some by private companies, while in others there appeared railways of both sorts, state owned and privately owned. . . . After the establishment of the Empire, a committee of investigation reported that economic considerations point to the conclusion that all railways should be under the control of the State. Prince Bismarck formed a plan for the purchase of all the railways by the Empire; but to this project several of the states offered such strong opposition that it was abandoned. He then adopted the policy of purchase by the Prussian state. With the authorization of the Prussian Diet, the policy of securing entire state control of the Prussian railways was formally

inaugurated in 1880, and within ten years this object was practically attained. Prussia not only acquired substantially all the main railway lines within its territory, but gained control of the principal routes in north Germany, although in many cases they extended beyond the Prussian boundaries. It hereby gained . . . [a] dominant influence over the railway policy of the entire Empire. . . . The capital expenditures on the Prussian railways to 1905 were \$2,286,000,000."—L. G. McPherson, *Transportation in Europe*, pp. 56-58.—See also GERMANY: Constitution of the empire: VII.

ALSO IN: B. H. Meyer, *Administration of Prussian railroads* (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, no. 215).—E. A. Pratt, *German railroads and traders*.—A. E. Leyen, *Die Eisenbahn Politik des Fürsten Bismarck*.

1834-1908.—Continent of Europe.—Origin and development of railways.—"In Austria, . . . the building of railways was greatly discouraged by the government until 1836. In that year the Emperor rather reluctantly granted Baron Rothschild a charter for a railway from Vienna into the province of Galicia. Another charter was granted to a Baron Sina for a line from Vienna to Raab and Gloggnitz. The policy then adopted in Austria guaranteed to each railroad company a monopoly in its own district during the period for which the charter was granted. Soon after the state also commenced building lines, but the growth of the Austrian system was slow until after the war of 1866. . . . Belgium has the best-developed track system on the continent. The state commenced the construction of railroads as early as 1834, and the first line (Brussels-Malines) was opened May 5th, 1835. Four great state lines were constructed in different directions, and between these lines private roads were permitted to be built. Between 1850 and 1870 the private lines increased from 200 to 1,400 miles, and competition between them and the state lines became so active as to reduce rates to the lowest possible point. In 1870 the government decided to buy a large number of competing lines. In 1874 it had acquired more than half, and . . . [by 1893], with a few exceptions, they . . . [were] all owned and controlled by the state. . . . In Italy railroad enterprises have received attention since 1853. The first roads were those of Lombardy, being commenced while that province was still under Austrian rule. The treaties of Zurich in 1859 and of Vienna in 1866 delivered these roads and the Venetian lines to the kingdom of Italy. Between 1860 and 1870 the systematic construction of a railroad net was commenced which connected the various lines with each other and with Rome. Nearly all the railroads of Italy fell into the hands of the government, but in 1885 they were leased for a term of sixty years to three companies, terminable at the end of twenty or forty years by either party upon two years' notice. . . . The first road in Spain was opened in 1848 between Barcelona and Mataro. The government greatly encouraged railroad construction by subsidies, and during the decade following 1855 the development of the railway system of the country was rapid. More than thirty companies have been formed, which have built about twenty main lines. . . . In Portugal very little railroad building was done previous to 1863, when a little over three hundred miles of road . . . [were] constructed. The government owns nearly half of the roads of the country, the remaining lines being the property of private companies. . . . In Denmark the first railroad was built on the island of Seeland

in 1847. Previous to 1880 the larger part of the roads of the kingdom was owned by private companies. Since then several of the most important private roads have been purchased by the state. . . . On the Scandinavian Peninsula the railroad system has developed rather slowly. Norway built the first line from Christiana to Eidsvold in 1854, and Sweden commenced railroad building two years later. The narrow-gauge system [was] fully developed here. While in Norway the greater part of the lines is owned by the state, the roads of Sweden are chiefly in the hands of private companies."—W. Larrabee, *Railroad question*, pp. 54, 56-58.—Holland's railroad history is a unique contrast to the other continental countries. Her "lines were built by the State [but] the operation has always been wholly in private hands. For many years, there were in Holland three principal companies; the State Railway Company, the Holland Company and the Dutch Rhenish Company. In 1890, the Dutch Government made a new departure. It bought up all the lines which it did not own, and it then apportioned the whole system anew between two companies representing, respectively, the old State Railway and the Holland Companies, in such a manner that each Company had access to every important town in competition with the other. This system, which presumably was patterned on the Italian System of 1885, has been in existence ever since. In 1908 a motion in Parliament in favor of nationalization was brought forward and defeated."—W. M. Acworth, *Historical sketch of government ownership of railroads in foreign countries*, p. 27.—See also MONTENEGRO: 1910; BALKAN STATES: Map.

ALSO IN: C. L. Raper, *Railway transportation*.—R. Morris, *Railroad administration*.—C. Colson, *Railway rates and traffic* (tr. by L. R. Travis, G. Leedham and L. R. Christie).

1835-1873.—Latin America.—Beginnings of railroads in Cuba, South America and Panama.—"The oldest railway line in the northern group of republics was built in Cuba as early as 1835, and is, in fact, the oldest of all in Latin America. . . . Chile had the first railway on the continent of South America, the line being built by an American in 1851. The Argentine Republic followed in 1857, and Brazil a year later. Not only railways, but practically all of the modern means of transportation in Latin America, were initiated and constructed with European and American capital. Most of them, also, are owned by foreigners. . . . Of the transcontinental lines, the Panama Railway between Colón and Panama was built in 1855 to facilitate the journey of the gold seekers bound for California, and to serve as a means of transit until the long projected waterway through the Isthmus of Panama could be completed."—W. R. Shepherd, *Latin America*, pp. 184-185, 187.

ALSO IN: W. S. Robertson, *History of Latin American nations*.—J. Risque, *Cuba's main line railways* (*Railway Age*, Jan. 16, 1920, pp. 223-226).

1837-1908.—Russia.—First railroads.—Political corruption of state-aided roads.—Foreign capital sought for railroad construction.—Concession policy of the government.—Witte's plan to develop Siberia through railroads.—"The first Russian railroad was the Tzarkoselsky (from Petrograd to Tzarskoie-Selo, Tr.), twenty-five versts long, built in 1837 by private means without any subsidies or guarantees on the part of the Government; the railroad was to remain the property of its builders for an indefinite time. The construction lasted two years, and cost comparatively

little—forty-two thousand rubles per verst, including all the necessary buildings. The exploitation of that railroad convinced the Government of the practicability of railroads in Russia, and it undertook the construction of the Petrograd-Moscow line, subsequently called, the Nicolaievsky. At the head of the fiscal undertaking stood Minister of Communications Kleinmichel, one of Arakcheiev's generals; although it is generally testified that personally he was honest, the construction of the railroad was connected with flagrant abuses. True, it was firmly built, especially the depots, bridges, etc., but it cost one hundred and sixty-five thousand rubles per verst, as against forty-two thousand rubles of the Tzarskoselsky railroad. The construction of the Nicolaievsky railroad lasted nine years; the bonded peasants were driven in hordes to the works, and the workers perished in large numbers. These were the only railroads built during the reign of Nicolas. True, in 1851, the Government decided to construct the Warshavsky (Petrograd-Warsaw) Railroad, . . . but until 1853 only a small portion was constructed, at the expense of eighteen million rubles, and the breaking out of the war caused the work to cease for lack of funds. After the Crimean Campaign the Government of Alexander II, which had just experienced the horrors of want of roads, . . . determined to consider as one of its first tasks the construction of roads. But in view of the bitter lesson taught by the fiscal management of the building of the Nicolaievsky railroad, and in accordance with the principles of its new economic policy, the Government decided to hand the matter over to private companies, limiting its own rôle to general initiative and to encouragement of private enterprises. Added to these considerations was the plan for attracting capital and metal-money into Russia, for which reason foreigners were allowed to head the undertaking. Although among the founders was one Russian banker, Stiglitz, most of them were foreigners; even the office of the company was not in Petrograd, but in Paris. A joint-stock company was formed, under the title Main Company of Russian Railroads; it issued stock, with the Government's guarantee for five per cent. income on that capital, besides other privileges, as, for instance, that the company should retain ownership of the roads for ninety-nine years. . . . The Main Company was to complete, first of all, the Warshavsky line, then to construct the line Düna-burg-Riga, next the Moscow-Nizhni-Novgorod line, and finally, the Moscow-Sevastopol line. It had been planned in that way to connect the fertile Volga provinces, part of New Russia, and the central black-soil provinces, with a Baltic port through Moscow, while Moscow would in her turn be joined with the Black Sea (Sevastopol). But the Main Company completed only the Warshavsky road and the line to Nizhni-Novgorod, while the Düna-burg-Riga was not finished by the stipulated time, and the Moscow-Sevastopol railroad was not even begun. Only part of the capital was subscribed abroad, but the larger portion of the stock and obligations the company sold and realised in Russia, so that in the end the hopes of the Government for the influx of foreign capital were not fulfilled; the reverse came to pass, and the whole enterprise, conducted as it was rapaciously in means and methods, proved unfortunate in all respects. . . . In spite of this failure, Reiter and the new Minister of Communications, Melnikov, decided to continue the work; in Reiter's opinion the construction of railroads was unconditionally necessary for his basic task—the development of the

country's productive powers, in general, and the raise of the course of the Russian money, in particular, by way of increasing the grain-export. Melnikov prepared a quite purposeful plan for the further development of the railroad net, . . . but it was very difficult to begin its realisation. Reiter still preferred private capital for the undertaking; he expected an influx of Russian and foreign capital; besides he pointed out that since a considerable part of the construction would have to be done by the aid of loans, it was important that those loans be a private matter, although with the Government's guarantee, lest the contracting of new loans should harm the national credit. On the other hand, Melnikov considered that since private construction had been compromised, the work should be done by fiscal means. . . . The Kiev-Balta railroad was built in this way, and it appeared that thanks to Melnikov's personal honesty and strict watchfulness, the cost was only a little over fifty thousand rubles per verst. An important role in the history of Russian railroads was played by the concession given to a Russian contractor, Derviz. In 1866 he undertook to build the Riazan-Kozlov line which connected through Riazan, Moscow, and—through the latter—Petrograd, with the most fertile region; the enterprise proved very profitable, and yielded eight per cent. dividend the first year. It completely changed the state of the Riazan-Moscow line which began to pay twelve per cent. dividend. These circumstances, discovered after 1866, aroused the appetites of Russian capitalists, and improved the chances of Russian railroads abroad. . . . [It was] argued that in the next ten years (1865-1875) at least five thousand versts of railroads should be built. Although . . . [this] calculation was considered optimistic in 1865, it was greatly exceeded, because owing to the concession-fever which began after the success of the Riazan-Koslov line, between 1865 and 1875 were built not five thousand, but twelve thousand more versts, so that by 1875 Russia was in possession of a net of seventeen thousand versts, which connected the most productive regions with ports and with the coal region of the Don, and allowed a wide export of internal products abroad."—A. Kornilov, *Modern Russian history*, pp. 139-144.—"The results of this [concession] policy were shown during the period of 1891-1902, by the construction of new railroads in European Russia carried out chiefly by private enterprise. [Under the able ministry of Count Witte], the Government concentrated its efforts on Siberia, Central Asia and the Caucasus, where roads of strategical and general State importance were laid down. As to European Russia, the Government although it built during the said period some 4000 versts of new railways, was in general content to extend the network of railways belonging to the State by purchasing privately owned roads. Generally speaking this period in the history of Russian railways yielded by far the best results; railway construction had not before been undertaken on so large a scale, nor has it ever since attained these dimensions."—K. Zahorsky and E. Geidanov, *Internal transport, Russian railways, canals and inland waterways* (A. Raffalovich, ed., *Russia: Its trade and commerce*, pp. 230-231).—The first railroad into Siberia was begun in 1878, from Perm to Ekaterinburg. The Trans-Siberian railroad was started in 1892, and four years later, a concession was obtained from China to build 1070 miles of track across Manchuria. The Chinese Eastern railway, built by Russia, financed by France, and coveted by Japan, has been the center

of Siberian politics. In fact after 1908 Russia concentrated on railroad building in Siberia, and practically all rail development in Central Russia was at a standstill—a fact of vital importance in the World War.—See also TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY; ASIA: 1500-1900; CHINA: 1895; RUSSIA: 1905 (October); SIBERIA: 1917-1919.

1838-1873.—England.—Railway mail service established.—Beginning of railroad legislation.—Acts of 1845 and 1853.—Railway Commission of 1873.—“In 1838 provision was made for the conveyance of mail by the railways at reasonable charges; some power of compulsion was given the Government. Finally, in 1840, a committee was appointed to consider the entire question of legislative policy. The tendencies of the time were recognized, the mistakes of the past admitted, but no substantive measure of control was proposed. The committee recommended that steps be taken to insure the observance by the companies of the provisions and limitations of their charters. In the sessions of 1841-42 acts were passed providing: that no railway should be opened until it had been inspected by the Board of Trade; that returns should be made to the Board of Trade as to traffic, tolls, rates, and all cases of accident; that existing by-laws affecting persons not servants of the companies were to be submitted to the Board of Trade. The Board of Trade was also designated as the ‘guardian of the public interest,’ and authorized to certify to the law officers of the Crown any infraction of the interest of the public. These acts thus established the principle of regulation, but made no specific provision of importance.”—A. P. Usher, *Introduction to the industrial history of England*, p. 463.—“The first important act, I think, that affects the English railways is what is known as the ‘cheap-trains act,’ which was introduced by Mr. Gladstone as long ago as 1844. One consequence of that act was that it regulated what was probably the most important existing rate in the world. I suppose a yearly traffic of \$100,000,000 is carried on that rate to-day. The act provided that one train per day should carry third-class passengers at two cents per mile, and the fact is that to-day in England every train carries third-class passengers at that rate. This same act of Parliament provided that the state was to be entitled to take over any railway constructed after the passage of the act at 25 years purchase, upon the supposition that the annual profit would be not less than 10 per cent. Practically that act has not been put into force yet. With respect to rate regulation proper, the first act that we need to notice was in 1845, called the ‘railway clauses consolidation act,’ and it applies to every new railway that is constructed. One clause of that act is known as the ‘equality clause,’ which requires that every railway company shall charge the same rate for traffic carried the same distance under the same conditions. Practically no two kinds of traffic are carried the same distance and under exactly the same conditions. Therefore, a clause that merely insisted on equality when all the circumstances were exactly the same had very little effect. Nine years afterwards, in 1854, Parliament enacted what is known as the ‘railway and canal traffic act of 1854.’ Under that act the railway companies were put under obligations, if the circumstances were different, to make such a difference in the rates as was proportional to the difference of circumstances. The early act said circumstances being equal, charges should be equal. The later act said circumstances being different, the difference is to be proportional to

the difference of circumstances. That act was left to be applied by an ordinary law court, the court of common pleas. That court, being an ordinary law court, showed, I think one may say, a considerable distaste for dealing with what were not strictly law questions. It is, of course, familiar to this honorable committee that the question always raised was: What are similar conditions? What are differences of conditions, that justify a difference of rates? At the bottom that is not a legal question, but an economic or business question. From its point of view the court showed considerable distaste, and I think one may say did not encourage complaints of that kind to be brought before it. Then after nearly 20 years, in 1872, there was an inquiry into this matter. There was considerable depression of trade following on very great prosperity at the time of the Franco-German War, and the traders grew restive, raised many difficulties and there was an inquiry by a very strong Parliamentary committee consisting of 10 members, nine of whom were at that time, had been or afterwards became cabinet ministers. That committee recommended—and it was carried into effect by the act of 1873—the institution of a railway commission. That commission was not a legal court except in the sense that it could make orders, and of its three members two were laymen; there was one legal member, not of the standing of a judge, but the chairman was a layman. One effect of that was that the railway companies particularly protested against being subjected to the jurisdiction of what they claimed to be an inferior court. Whenever they were defeated, as they frequently were, they took the case on appeal, or by writ of prohibition, or by various legal methods, before one of the ordinary law courts, and I think one might say that as a rule, certainly in many cases, they succeeded in upsetting the judgment of the commission. Another point of very great importance, I think, in the act of 1873, was that it put the obligation upon the railways to publish every rate, perhaps not in the most effective way, but each railroad was compelled to keep, at every station from which it sent traffic, books showing the rates at which all traffic was carried and the conditions attaching to the rate.”—W. M. Acworth, *Hearing before Committee on Interstate Commerce, United States Senate, May, 1915* (quoted in L. G. McPherson, *Transportation in Europe*, pp. 233-236).

1850-1860.—United States.—Early consolidations.—Pennsylvania, New York Central, Erie and Illinois Central systems.—“The decade following 1850 is a notable one in the history of railways, because it was then that railroad consolidation began on a large scale. . . . The Pennsylvania Railroad Company, by constructing roads, and by purchasing and leasing State lines, connected Philadelphia and Pittsburg in 1852. The Pennsylvania System to-day includes roads once owned by over two hundred companies. [The New York Central, between Albany and Buffalo (1851), two years later added the Hudson River railroad between Albany and New York (1853).] . . . Other railway systems were growing rapidly by construction rather than by consolidations. The Erie Railroad reached Lake Erie in 1851; the same year the Baltimore & Ohio entered Wheeling on the Ohio River; and in 1854 the Rock Island connected Chicago with the Mississippi River. Before the end of the decade, the Illinois Central, aided by a liberal land grant made by the United States in 1850, had reached a length of 700 miles.”—E. R. Johnson, *Elements of transportation*, pp. 11-12.—“The Illinois Central . . . was long considered one

of the greatest railroads in the world. Until after the Civil War there was only one road with a length aggregating more than 1,000 miles. This growth began early in the '50s, at which time the Pennsylvania system first surpassed 500 miles in length; and in 1853 to 1858, when the New York Central nucleus was formed by the consolidation of some sixteen independent corporations. . . . The inconvenience, both for freight and passenger traffic, incident to these small systems was quite obvious. It is stated that, for instance, a journey from New York to the Mississippi in the '50s involved not less than seven bodily transfers from one car to another."—W. Z. Ripley, *Railroads, finance and organization*, p. 456.—See also MICHIGAN: 1850-1860; MINNESOTA: 1849-1894; MISSOURI: 1851-1874; WISCONSIN: 1851.

ALSO IN: W. G. Gephardt, *Transportation and industrial development in the new West*.

1853-1918.—Canada.—Intercolonial railroad for the maritime provinces.—Its merger with Canadian National railways after the World War.—In 1853 "the Maritime Provinces of New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island were complaining of their isolation from the rest of British North America and clamouring for railway connections. Between the terminus of the Grand Trunk in Quebec and private lines in Nova Scotia, there was a gap of five hundred miles through New Brunswick. The Intercolonial Railway . . . was then projected in order to bring into closer union the separate parts of Canada. Substantial help was finally secured from the British Government and in 1863 a commission was appointed to arrange for surveys of district to be covered, during the progress of which negotiations for the complete union of the provinces were begun. . . . There were various unforeseen difficulties, and it was nine years later before the line between Rivière du Loup and Truro was opened for traffic. Meanwhile the Dominion had taken over the government roads already existing in Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, making 950 miles of railway under the control of the Federal Government in 1876. Numerous other lines were built and acquired. By 1898, the main line of the Intercolonial Railway was complete, including the sections from Montreal to Halifax, from Moncton to St. John, and from Truro to Sydney, Cape Breton."—M. Low, *History of Canadian National railways*, p. 8.—As a Canadian government road, the Intercolonial was one of the original lines to be merged in the Canadian National railways in 1918.—See also NEWFOUNDLAND: 1897-1900.

1853-1919.—Canada.—Grand Trunk railroad.—Grand Trunk Pacific built by the government.—Its difficulties.—Nationalization.—"The Grand Trunk Railway was incorporated November 10th, 1853. . . . It was a bold scheme, almost a reckless one, in the pioneering days of the early fifties, to link up Sarnia, Ontario, with Portland, Maine, via Toronto and Montreal. The undertaking was entered into in order to give Montreal and the west direct communication by rail with the Atlantic seaboard and to give eastern points a direct route to the west through Canada. . . . The first train over the line ran from Montreal to Toronto on October 27, 1856. This train was the forerunner of the International Limited of today. The original system was completed in 1859, the Grand Trunk having at that time a line from Portland, Maine, to Sarnia, Ontario, the latter being connected with Port Huron, Michigan, by ferry. There were also several branch lines. . . . Eventually, by a series of intricate and interesting nego-

tiations, the Grand Trunk Railway was extended to Chicago, Illinois and Detroit. Gradually, by the construction of branch lines and by the acquisition of other railways already operating, the system had spread a net-work all over the south-western parts of the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec. In 1870, the Pullman sleeping-car was introduced into Canada by the Grand Trunk. Several fine bridges and other structures were built, including the St. Clair tunnel connecting Sarnia and Port Huron, which was completed in 1891, being the first sub-aqueous tunnel in America. The main line was double-tracked, making a continuous stretch of double track from Chicago, Illinois to St. Rosalie, Quebec, a distance of 886 miles. . . . Then the Grand Trunk Pacific was begun [1903], . . . a line from Moncton, N. B., to Prince Rupert, B. C., wholly within Canadian territory. The Western Division, from Winnipeg to the Pacific Coast, comprising some 1755 miles, was constructed by the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Company [1914]. The Eastern Division, extending from Winnipeg to Moncton, N. B., 1804 miles in length, was constructed by, and at the cost of, the Canadian Government, under the supervision of the Commissioners of the National Transcontinental Railway, with the intention of leasing it to the Grand Trunk Pacific for a period of fifty years."—M. Low, *History of Canadian National railways*, pp. 6-10.—But the Grand Trunk declined to operate this transcontinental road, after a time, unless the government would furnish further financial support, as the competition with the Canadian Pacific, its transcontinental rival, was so great. Since no more state aid was forthcoming, the road went into the hands of the Canadian minister of railways, and was operated, under his supervision, by Grand Trunk officials until incorporated into the Canadian National railways, following the government merger of 1918.

ALSO IN: F. A. Talbot, *Making of a great Canadian railway*.

1854-1906.—Mexico.—Early railroad construction.—Díaz régime.—Concessions.—The first railroad was built in Mexico in 1854, connecting Mexico City with Guadalupe. During the next two decades, while Mexico underwent two civil wars, and the French occupation, many concessions for railroads were granted to foreign firms, only to be declared null and void by the government before any building was started. "In 1872 Porfirio Díaz became provisional president. He at once attacked the railroad policy of his predecessor as unduly influenced by foreign interests. . . . On September 26, 1876, he issued a decree nullifying any contract made by his predecessor 'which may result in any burden to the nation.' . . . By the end of Díaz' first term, however, the situation was changed, and the country entered upon a period of active railroad development. Several events contributed to the change. One was the belated recognition of the Díaz government by the United States, thus removing the grounds for prejudice against Americans seeking concessions in Mexico. . . . The early eighties were years of optimism, and American capital flowed in increasing currents into Mexican railroads. The source of these funds were generally the larger financial interests, however; for it does not appear that the securities were generally taken by small investors. For such an extensive distribution, time is needed; and before the necessary time had elapsed, it became apparent that original estimates were inadequate and that too much reliance had been placed upon subsidies. In 1885 the Mexican government found it necessary to suspend the payment of sub-

sides, and, although it made a partial resumption of payments a year later, the American investor had become dubious about the possibility of obtaining great returns from money placed in a country where uncertainty was the general rule. . . . The field, therefore, was left to the interests already committed to the venture and to investors in Europe who were able and willing to place their funds with a view to a slow development and deferred returns."—F. W. Powell, *Railroads of Mexico*, pp. 100, 111-112, 119-120.—Across the isthmus of Tehuantepec, the narrowest portion of Mexico, the building of a railway connecting the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans was discussed in 1859, and attempted in 1882, 1887 and 1893. Finally in 1898 the Mexican government contracted with the London firm of Pearson and Son, Ltd., to rebuild the 192 miles of line already laid, and to complete the road to the terminals, Puerto Mexico (Coatzacoalcas) on the Gulf coast, and Salina Cruz on the Pacific coast. The work was completed in 1906, and the interoceanic railroad formally opened by President Diaz.

ALSO IN: B. Moses, *Railway revolution in Mexico*.—G. C. Terry, *Tehuantepec railway of Mexico* (*Engineering Magazine*, Jan., 1907).

1855-1915.—India.—Early development under Lord Dalhousie.—Later development to meet famine emergencies and to exploit resources.—Roads from Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.—The general Indian railway policy was laid down by Lord Dalhousie, who established the Board of Public Works in India. The first railroad was built out of Bombay in 1855, under his direction. This great administrator proceeded to advance the plans and construction of three trunk railroads, the East Indian from Calcutta, in northern India; the Great Indian Peninsular from Bombay in western India and the Madras, from Madras in south-eastern India. They were built by private companies for the purpose of linking up the cities named with the other great centers of population, the government in order to attract capital guaranteeing five per cent on the investment for a period of twenty-five years, with provisions for then taking over the lines. This policy, however, proved embarrassing in consequence of the financial burden, the average cost being £16,000 per mile, so that the policy was modified in the next decade. "Feeders" were also constructed chiefly of narrow gauge lines, with the assistance of the government. The East Indian railway by 1861 ran from Calcutta to Allahabad, yielding the full rate of five per cent the very first year. Even before the Mutiny in 1857, about 200 miles of railroad were opened for traffic, but that was not sufficient to be of much help in putting down the great rebellion. The military exigencies hastened the further construction of railroads. After the great famine of 1866 railroad building, together with the construction of new irrigation canals, was stimulated to the utmost to provide greater means of famine relief and mitigation of droughts. Direct construction of new lines as well as the purchase of the "guaranteed" roads were undertaken by the government, whose railroad debt in subsequent years ran upwards of £200,000,000. The term of several contracts with the private companies having expired, under their specified conditions the government had the right to take possession of the lines, but instead of doing so it made contracts for another 25-year period, under which it should share profits above five per cent. Other lines, however, were wholly acquired by the government, among them the East Indian railway in 1879. This railroad, ascending the Ganges from

Calcutta to Delhi, sends forth a branch to Jabalpur in the Central provinces, so that in 1871 direct rail connection had been established between Calcutta, in Bengal, and Bombay and Madras, respectively, on the west and east coasts; and in 1878, connections were further established through Panjab to Karachi, the great port in the Indus delta. The Great Indian Peninsula railway (2900 miles) extends from Bombay, "the gateway of India" on the west coast, north to Cawnpore and Agra, and east to Jabalpur (or Jubbulpore) where it connects with the East Indian railway for Northern India and Calcutta; it also connects at Nagpur with the Bengal-Nagpur railway (2550 miles) for the Central Provinces and for Calcutta; and with the Madras and Southern Mahratta railway at Raichpur for Madras; as well as with the Hyderabad state railway at Wadi, for that most important of native Indian States, having almost 15,000,000 population. The ownership of the Great Indian Peninsula railway was taken over by the government in 1900, but it is operated by a private company. The Bombay Baroda and Central India railway (2775 miles) was also taken over by the government in 1905 and connects Bombay with Baroda, Delhi and the leading railroads in northern India. It is one of the original guaranteed railroads, tapping the rich Guzerat and Rajputana. The Madras and Southern Mahratta railway (3100 miles), running from Madras on the east coast into Hyderabad and Mysore, and connecting also with railroads in the north and south, was taken over by the government in 1907, as was the South Indian railway (1700 miles) running from Trichinopoly, Madras, and connecting by a ferry with the Ceylon Government railway. The East Indian railway (2710 miles), giving the only direct access to Calcutta from Northern India, was linked with the Oudh and Rohilkhand railway, a state road connecting together Benares, Allahabad, Lucknow and Cawnpore. Another important state road is the Northwestern railway (3750 miles) connecting Karachi on the Arabian sea with Panjab and with the Northwestern Provinces, and penetrating Baluchistan. The Bengal and Northwestern railway is an important line of 2000 miles. Not owned by the state like the Oudh and Rohilkhand, it forms a web north of the Ganges with rail connections at Benares and Cawnpore. The East Indian railway, by means of its great bridge over the lower Ganges (opened Mar. 4, 1915) has further given easy access to Assam, northern Bengal and Burma. The Burma railways connect Rangoon and Mandalay, with extensions to Lashio in the North Shan states and to Taunggyi in the South Shan states. Reverting to the Northwestern railway, tapping Baluchistan via Bolan Pass (Quetta is 536 miles from Karachi, 727 miles from Lahore), this extension was obviously built more from a military strategic standpoint than with a view to its commercial importance. It skirts the boundary of Afghanistan. With respect to the native state railways of India, Baroda has a greater railroad mileage in proportion to its area than is possessed by any other state. In view of the removal of the capital of India to Delhi, it is now interesting to consider the later history of the railroads as related to that city, from which seven of them radiate. The East Indian and the Great Indian Peninsula railway lines have already been mentioned as furnishing communications with the east and south. "It is over fifty years since the first railway in the Panjab, a short line joining Lahore and Amritsar, was opened in 1862. Three years later Lahore was linked up with Multan and the small steamers which then plied on the Indus,

Amritsar was connected with Delhi in 1870, and Lahore with Peshawar in 1883. The lines from Peshawar to Lahore and branching thence to Karachi and Delhi may be considered the Trunk Line. . . . There are now three routes from Delhi to Lahore: (a) The N. W. Railway via Meerut and Saharanpur (on east of Jamna), and Ambala, Ludhiana, Jalandhar, Amritsar; (b) The Southern Panjab Railway via Jind, Rohtak, Bhatinda, and Ferozepore; (c) The Delhi-Ambala-Kalka branch of the East Indian Railway from Delhi through Karnal to Ambala, and thence by the N. W. Railway. This is the shortest route. The Southern Panjab Railway also connects Delhi with Karachi through its junction with the N. W. Railway at Samasata to the south by Bahawalpur. Another route is by a line passing through Rewari and the Merta junction. Karachi is the natural seaport of the central and western Panjab. The S. P. Railway now gives an easy connection with Ferozepore and Ludhiana, and the enormous export of wheat, cotton, etc., from the new canal colonies is carried by several lines which converge at Khanewal, a junction on the main line, a little north of Multan. The Sind Sagar branch starting from Lala Musa between Lahore and Amritsar with smaller lines taking off further north at Golra and Campbellpur serves the part of the province lying north of the Salt Range. These lines converge at Kundian in the Mianwali district, and a single line runs thence southwards to points on the Indus opposite Dera Ismail Khan and Dera Ghazi Khan, and turning eastwards rejoins the trunk line at Sher Shah near Multan. There are a number of branch lines in the plains, some owned by native States. Strategically a very important one is that which crossing the Indus by the Khushalgarh bridge unites Rawalpindi with Kohat. The only hill railway is that from Kalka to Simla, [the summer capital].”—J. Douie, *Panjab, North-west Frontier Province and Kashmir*, pp. 128-130.

ALSO IN: H. S. Baker, *British India*.—W. E. Weld, *India's demand for transportation*.

1861-1865.—United States.—Government control of railroads in the Civil War.—“In view of the paramount importance the railway system was to assume in the conduct of the war, the Federal Government took possession of the Philadelphia, Wilmington and Baltimore Railway on March 31, 1861. This preliminary measure was followed by the passing, in January, 1862, by the United States House of Representatives, of ‘An Act to authorise the President of the United States in certain cases to take possession of railroad and telegraph lines, and for other purposes.’ . . . Thus the Act in question established a precedent for a Government taking formal possession of, and exercising complete authority and control over, the whole of such railways as it might require to employ for the purposes of war; although, in point of fact, only such lines, or portions of lines, were so taken over by the War Department as were actually required. In each instance, also, the line or portion of line in question was given back to the owning company as soon as it was no longer required for military purposes; while at the conclusion of the war all the lines taken possession of by the Government were formally restored to their original owners by an Executive Order dated August 8, 1865. . . . In certain instances the lines taken possession of were in so defective a condition that it was imperatively necessary to relay them, apart all together from any question of gauge. Lines which, though begun, were not finished, had to be completed; in others new lines had to be constructed throughout, or extensive sidings provided; so that

. . . we see that it was not then simply a question of the Federal Government taking possession of and operating an existing complete and efficient system of railways. . . . Reviewing the general situation at this time [General McCallum, military director of railroads] . . . says in his report: ‘The attempt to furnish an army of 100,000 men and 60,000 animals with supplies from a base 360 miles distant by one line of single-track railroad, located almost the entire distance through the country of an active and vindictive enemy, is without precedent in the history of warfare.’ . . . To meet the various conditions which had thus arisen, McCallum was authorised by the Federal Government to create two distinct departments, destined to bring about a still further development in the application of rail-power to war by establishing precedents which the leading countries of the world were afterwards to follow more or less completely, according to their own circumstances and requirements. The departments were known respectively as the ‘Transportation Department,’ embracing the operation and maintenance of all the lines brought under use by the army of the North; and the ‘Construction Corps,’ which was to repair the damage done by wrecking parties of the enemy, maintain lines of communication, and reconstruct, when necessary, railways captured from the enemy as the Federals advanced. . . . One expedient resorted to by the Federal Government, on finding they could not procure from the manufacturers all the rails they wanted, was to pull up the railway lines that were not wanted for military purposes and use their rails for relaying those that were. . . . These details may convey some idea of all that was involved in the utilization of rail-power in the American Civil War under such development of railway construction as had then been brought about.”—E. A. Pratt, *Rise of rail-power in war and conquest, 1833-1914*, pp. 16-17, 19-20, 22-23.

ALSO IN: D. C. McCallum, *United States military railroads*, House Executive Document, no. 1, 39th Congress, 1st Session.—F. H. Dixon and J. H. Parmelee, *War administration in the United States and Great Britain*.

1862-1911.—United States.—Development of railway mail service.—“The assorting of mail while in transit was begun in this country in 1862, when William A. Davis, who was then chief clerk in the mailing department of the post office at St. Joseph, Mo., fitted up the first railway postal cars. These cars were run on the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad, and were put in service to facilitate the prompt forwarding of the overland mails westward from St. Joseph, an important distributing point at which the mails were then transferred from the railroad to the ‘overland stages.’ The advantages of having the mails reach the distributing point assorted ready to be forwarded without delay to their several destinations were quickly recognized, and the traveling post office was soon established on the principal lines of railroad. . . . The mail service over a particular route is generally an adjunct of the passenger service until a weight of 50,000 pounds is reached for a single mail, and when that weight is exceeded fast mail trains are put into service. . . . A change in the organization of the railway mail service was made in 1911 by the establishment of terminal railway post offices at the railway stations of the large cities. By handling at these post offices a part of the mail formerly sorted in the post-office cars a large reduction was made in the car space and the number of railway postal clerks needed. The terminal post office makes possible

the use of labor-saving devices which could not be installed in cars, and also brings about the elimination of much of the rehandling of mail matter. . . . In accordance with the act of Congress passed in 1873 the pay to the railroads for carrying the mails is based upon the weight of the mail carried, the distance the mail is transported, and the number of full-sized postal cars operated by the railroad. The actual rate of pay, as fixed by the act of 1873, was reduced 10 per cent in 1876. Another reduction of 5 per cent was made in 1878, and in 1907 a reduction was made on all weights in excess of 5,000 pounds. . . . The daily weight of mail carried by the railroads over the various routes is ascertained by weighing the mails once in four years for not less than 90 successive working days. . . . There has for a number of years been a controversy over the present method and rates of payment to the railroads for the transportation of the mails. The Postmasters General of the last two administrations have maintained that the railroads have been paid too much, while the railroad companies have protested that they have received too little."—E. R. Johnson and T. W. Van Metre, *Principles of railroad transportation*, pp. 231-237.

1869.—United States.—First regulation of railroads by state commissions.—"The first commission of the advisory type was created by Massachusetts, in 1869; and the other States that adopted commissions of this kind were largely influenced by the provisions of the Massachusetts Law. The commission created by Massachusetts consisted of three men appointed by the Governor with the consent of the State Council; the term of office was three years, one man being appointed each year. The commission was given authority (a) to ascertain whether the railway companies were living up to the terms of their charters and were obeying the laws; (b) to supervise the roads with reference to the security and accommodation of the public; (c) to investigate the railroads either upon the commission's own motion or upon complaint of some shipper or traveler; (d) to prescribe and enforce a system of keeping accounts; (e) to act as a board of arbitration to settle disputes between the corporations and the public; and (f) to make an annual report, with recommendations, to the Legislature. It will be seen that the Massachusetts commission had no authority to issue orders or to enforce its decisions. The theory of the law was that the railroads would be regulated by the force of public opinion and by enactment of such laws as the Legislature might think necessary."—E. R. Johnson, *Elements of transportation*, pp. 133-134.

ALSO IN: F. H. Dixon, *State railway control. 1869-1910.*—United States.—Growth of railroads.—Transcontinental lines.—"The means of transportation and communication were developed upon an unprecedented scale during twenty years after the Civil War. Railroad building was checked during the war, but only temporarily, and the decade saw the number of miles almost doubled—from 30,635 in 1860 to 52,914 in 1870. . . . Railroad extension was again interrupted by the crisis of 1873 [see U.S.A.: 1873], which was largely caused by the too rapid railway construction and the intense speculation accompanying it, but by 1879 it began to revive, and the end of the decade saw the number of miles again almost doubled; by 1880 there were 93,206 miles of railroad in the United States. This increase of almost 75 per cent. in ten years far outran the growth in population, which was only 30 per cent. in the same period. Most of the new construction took place

in the northwestern States and afforded an outlet for the grain supplies which these States were beginning to pour into the world's markets; considerable was built also in the South and Southwest. The building of the railways, too, both facilitated, and was demanded by, the enormous immigration which now began to fill up our western territory. During this same decade the population in the Northwest increased 44 per cent. and that of the Pacific States 114 per cent. By 1880 there was one mile of road completed to every 571 of the population, as against every 1087 in 1860. The people of the United States were already better supplied with railroad facilities than were those of any other country. . . . The idea of a transcontinental railroad had been advocated as early as 1834, and the gold discoveries in California had revived the demand for it, but nothing tangible was done in this direction until 1862. Then the political and military necessity of uniting the Pacific States with the East, and of securing better means of communication with the Southwest, induced Congress to aid several companies to build lines across the western plains. The Union Pacific railroad, which constructed its line from Omaha to Ogden, received 12,000,000 acres of the public lands, and the Central Pacific, which built eastward from Sacramento to connect with the Union Pacific, received 8,000,000 acres. [The two lines met at Ogden in 1869 and were joined by a golden spike.] The Northern Pacific was granted over 10,000,000 acres. Additional grants to the Kansas Pacific and other corporations brought up the total to 33,000,000 acres. In addition to these grants of land three of the companies mentioned received large loans of money from the Federal government. During the twenty-one years between 1850 and 1871, at which time land grants were discontinued, more than 159,000,000 acres were placed at the disposal of railroad corporations by the Federal government and 55,000,000 acres by the State governments, to which the land was previously given for this purpose by the Federal government."—E. L. Bogart, *Economic history of the United States*, pp. 348, 350-351.—Other conquests of continents by railroad engineers were achieved by the completion of the Canadian Pacific in 1886 (see below: 1871-1910), and the Trans-Andean railroad in 1910.—See also U.S.A.: 1865-1872; ARIZONA: 1864-1883; DAKOTA TERRITORY: 1871-1876; IDAHO: 1880-1889; IOWA: 1873-1874; 1874-1898; KANSAS: 1859-1866; NEBRASKA: 1863-1921; NEVADA: 1860-1913; NEW MEXICO: 1879-1885; OKLAHOMA: 1872; OREGON: 1870-1887; WISCONSIN: 1856-1893; 1873-1907.

ALSO IN: F. A. Talbot, *Railway conquest of the world*.—J. B. Sanborn, *Congressional grants of land in aid of railroads*.—J. P. Davis, *Union Pacific railway*.—E. R. Johnson and T. W. Van Metre, *Principles of railroad transportation*, ch. 3.—J. Moody, *Railroad builders (American chronicles)*.—S. Daggett, *History of the Southern Pacific*.

1870-1876.—United States.—Granger legislation for railroads.—"Railroads and settlers both moved too far west; and ran heavily into debt to do it. . . . These roads were dependent upon the wheat crop for their revenue. The price of wheat, which for some years had been high, was at last affected by the extension of production and the change of conditions. With transportation charges at their previous figure, the farmers could no longer pay their debts. With transportation charges reduced, the railroads could not pay theirs. There was a loss to be divided, instead of a profit. It was beyond the power of any law to divide this loss in such a way as to give a profit

to both parties. . . . Where there was but one railroad, it charged all that it could extort. When the farmer had once settled so far from any market, he was at the mercy of the railroad, which furnished his sole means of transportation. But where there were two competing roads they brought rates down to a point where they only paid operating expenses, and not any share of the fixed charges. The resulting discriminations were enormous; and these discriminations seemed to be the reason why farming did not pay. . . . Too often, in the treatment of the farmers, the railroad agents added insult to injury. A state of feeling was developed through the community which only wanted organization to become all powerful. It found this organization in the Granges. In Illinois the constitutional convention of 1870 made an important declaration concerning State control of rates, on the basis of which a law was passed in 1871, establishing a system of maxima. This law was pronounced unconstitutional by Judge Lawrence. The result was that he immediately afterward failed of re-election, solely on this ground. The defeat of Judge Lawrence showed the true significance of the farmers' movement. They were concerned in securing what they felt to be their rights, and they were unwilling that any constitutional barriers should be made to defeat the popular will. They had reached the point where they regarded many of the forms of law as mere technicalities. They were dangerously near the point where revolutions begin. But they did not pass the point. The law of 1873 avoided the issue raised by Judge Lawrence against that of 1871. Instead of directly fixing maxima, it provided that rates must be reasonable, and then further provided for a commission to fix reasonable rates. Similar laws were passed by Iowa and Minnesota almost immediately afterward. The Legislature of Wisconsin went even farther, fixing, by the so-called Potter Law, the rates on different classes of roads at figures which proved quite unremunerative. The railroads made vain attempts to contest these regulations in the courts. They were defeated again and again, and finally, in 1877, the Supreme court of the United States sustained the constitutionality of the Granger laws. In the second year of its operation, no Wisconsin road paid a dividend; only four paid interest on their bonds. Railroad construction had come to a standstill. Even the facilities on existing roads could not be kept up. Foreign capital refused to invest in Wisconsin; the development of the State was sharply checked; the very men who had most favored the law found themselves heavy losers. These points were plain to every one. They formed the theme of the Governor's message at the beginning of 1876. The very men who passed the law in 1874, hurriedly repealed it after two years' trial. In other States the laws either were repealed, as in Iowa, or were sparingly and cautiously enforced. By the time the Supreme Court published the Granger decisions, the fight had been settled, not by constitutional limitations, but by industrial ones."—A. T. Hadley, *Railroad transportation*, pp. 130-136.—See also U.S.A.: 1873-1874.

ALSO IN: S. J. Buck, *Granger movement*.

1870-1910.—United States.—Increase of railroad mileage.—"Twenty years down to 1890, at which time 5,000 miles was about the maximum length of a single railroad, cover the second period in the development of the larger transportation units. The Pennsylvania first attained the length of about 4,000 miles in 1880. Two years later the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern absorbed its

parallel line, the Nickel Plate road. Then, when in 1885 the New York Central picked up the West Shore, the Vanderbilt system under common control first attained sizable proportions. Even west of Chicago, the Vanderbilt interest was already strong in the Chicago & Northwestern, which by 1886 had about 3,500 miles of line. Some 1,500 miles more were soon added in subsidiary properties. By 1889 the Union Pacific owned 2,000 miles of line and controlled nearly 4,000 more. Whether the Act to Regulate Commerce of 1887 (see U.S.A.: 1887: Interstate Commerce Act) appreciably affected the growth of large units or not is entirely obscured in face of the more important direct effects of general prosperity or stagnation. Single systems comprising as much as 10,000 miles of line appeared for the first time after 1890. The Pennsylvania rapidly increased in size to a mileage greater than 7,000. And the interchange of business attendant upon close working agreements and community of ownership between the trunk lines and roads west of Chicago, foreshadowed even closer relationship in future. . . . The spread of consolidation, especially since 1900, has been so marked that there has been an actual decrease in the number of independent operating roads. During the decade to 1910, 300 more railroads came into being; but the number independently operated fell from 847 to 829."—W. Z. Ripley, *Railroads, finance and organization*, pp. 456-457.—See also CAPITALISM: 19th century: United States; DELAWARE: 1868-1869; FLORIDA: 1876-1884; MICHIGAN: 1850-1880; 1885-1895; MINNESOTA: 1877-1888; NEBRASKA: 1880-1907: Railroads as a factor in the development of the state; NEVADA: 1907-1913: Railroad commission; NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1870-1905; NORTH DAKOTA: 1880-1892; SUPREME COURT: 1882-1898; U.S.A.: 1908 (April-November).

ALSO IN: F. L. McVey, *Railroad transportation, some phases of its history*.—E. R. Johnson and T. W. Van Metre, *Principles of railroad transportation*, ch. 3.

1871-1910.—Canada.—Canadian Pacific railroad.—Its amalgamations.—"Years before Confederation, such far-seeing Canadians as William M'Dougall and George Brown had pressed for the annexation of the British territories beyond the Lakes. . . . The decisive political factor came into play in 1870, when British Columbia entered the federation. Its less than ten thousand white inhabitants—deeming themselves citizens of no mean country, and kept to their demands by the urging of an indefatigable Englishman, Alfred Waddington—made the construction of an overland railway an indispensable condition of union, and Sir John Macdonald courageously accepted their terms. . . . These factors, then, brought the question of a railway to the Pacific on Canadian soil within the range of practical politics. . . . During the parliamentary session of 1871 the government of Sir John Macdonald decided that the road should be built by a company, not by the state, that it should be aided by liberal subsidies in cash and in land, and, to meet British Columbia's insistent terms, that it should be begun within two, and completed within ten, years. The Opposition protested that this latter provision was uncalled for and would bankrupt the Dominion, but the government carried its point, though it was forced to hedge later by a stipulation—not included in the formal resolutions—that the annual expenditure should be such as not to press unduly upon the Dominion's resources. The first task was to survey the vast wilderness between the Ottawa valley and the Pacific, and to find, if possible, a feasible

route. . . . The man chosen for the task of achieving this impossibility was Sanford Fleming. Appointed engineer-in-chief in 1871, he was for nine years in charge of the surveys, though for half that time his duties on the Intercolonial absorbed much of his energy. . . . Back to Ottawa the pilgrims came, and there on October 21, 1880, the contract was signed by Charles Tupper for the government and by George Stephen, Duncan McIntyre, James J. Hill, John S. Kennedy, Morton, Rose and Co. of London, and Cohen, Reinach and Co. of Paris. . . . When parliament met in December 1880 the contract was laid before it. The terms were princely. For constructing some nineteen hundred miles the syndicate were to be given free and complete the seven hundred and ten miles under construction by the government, \$25,000,000 in cash, and 25,000,000 acres of selected land in the Fertile Belt. They were promised exemptions from import duties on construction materials, from taxes on land for twenty years after the patents were issued and on stock and other property for ever, and exemption from regulation of rates until ten per cent per annum was earned on the capital. Assurance was given that for twenty years no competitive roads connecting with the western states would be chartered: 'no line of railway south of the Canadian Pacific, except such line as shall run southwest or to the westward of southwest, nor to be within fifteen miles of latitude 49°.' Ten years were given to complete the task, and a million dollars were deposited as security. . . . The financial policy adopted by the Canadian Pacific was unique in the records of great railway enterprises on this continent. It was simply to rely entirely on stock issues, to endeavour to build the road without incurring any bonded debt. Not until the last year of construction, 1885, were bonds based upon the security of the road itself issued for sale. It was doubtless desirable, if possible, to avoid the reckless methods by which so many American roads had been hopelessly waterlogged by excessive bond issues. . . . The men behind the Canadian Pacific proved themselves possessed of courage and determination such as will always win them honour. At more than one critical stage they staked their all to keep the work going. But the fact remains that the bulk of the resources utilized in the original building of the road were provided or advanced by the people of Canada. The Canadian Pacific is as truly a monument of public as of private faith. . . . In the Eagle Pass, at Craigellachie, on November 7, 1885, the eastward and westward track-layers met. It was only a year or so before that the Northern Pacific had celebrated the driving of the last golden spike by an excursion which cost the company a third of a million, and heralded the bankruptcy of the road. There was no banquet and no golden spike for the last rail in the Canadian Pacific. William Van Horne had announced that 'the last spike would be just as good an iron spike as any on the road,' and had it not been that Donald A. Smith happened along in time to drive the spike home, it would have been hammered in by the navy on the job. Six months later the first passenger train went through Montreal to Vancouver. The longest railway in the world was open from coast to coast, five years before the end of the time required by the original contract."—O. D. Skelton, *Railway builders*, pp. 114-117, 141-143, 155, 159, 166.—The process of absorbing other roads into this great trunk line soon began. In the west the Canadian Pacific acquired the Winnipeg to Manitou, in 1882, the Manitoba South Western, the Manitoba and North

Western, the North West Central, the Qu'Appelle, Long Lake and Saskatchewan, the Crow's Nest Pass, the Calgary and Edmonton, the Columbia and Kootenay. In the east many of the smaller lines were amalgamated with the Canadian Pacific, among them the North Shore, the Ontario and Quebec, the New Brunswick railway, and the St. John and Maine railway. In the United States the company secured control of the Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Sault Ste. Marie, the Wisconsin Central, the Duluth South Shore and Atlantic railway, thus forming a vast system of transportation aggregating 10,543 miles, in 1910.—See also CANADA: 1880; BRITISH COLUMBIA: 1886-1888.

ALSO IN: H. A. Innis, *History of the Canadian Pacific railroad*.—W. Vaughn, *Life of Sir William Van Horne*.—F. A. Talbot, *Railway conquest of the world*.—E. B. Biggar, *Canadian railway problems*.

1872.—England.—Third class established on all trains.—In 1872, the Midland railways announced that third class passenger coaches would be carried on all trains. The service in the third class was gradually improved, and two years later the second class was discontinued, and the first class rates for passengers reduced.

1872-1912.—South America.—Trans-Andean railroad. —Arica-La Paz railroad. —In South America railroad development went forward with notable constructions. "The inception of the Transandine line dates back to 1872, when Messrs. Juan and Marteo Clark secured a concession from the Argentine government for the building of a railway from Buenos Ayres to Mendoza and the Argentine boundary, and shortly afterward a concession from the Chilean government for a line from Los Andes to the Chilean boundary. The line to Mendoza was finished in 1886, and in January, 1887, the construction of the extension toward the Chilean frontier was taken in hand. . . . The construction was divided into three sections, the first of which, from Los Andes to Juncal, a distance of 32 miles was opened for traffic in February, 1906. . . . Section two is that between Juncal and Portello, which lies in an exceptionally mountainous district. This second section of the Transandine Railway was opened in January, 1908, well within the specified time. It is, however, in the last part of the third section, viz., that from Los Andes and La Cumbre, or the dividing line between Chile and Argentina, that the great spiral tunnel, perhaps one of the longest of its kind and most difficult of construction in the world, has been made. The summit tunnel has a length of 9,906 feet, and in addition there are short lengths of artificial tunnel at each end, viz., 105 feet on the Chilean side and 338 feet on the Argentine side. . . . As Buenos Ayres is the main gate on the Atlantic coast of the completed road, so is Valparaiso the gate on the Pacific side."—F. C. Coleman, *Transandine railway and tunnel* (*Scientific American*, Jan. 27, 1912).—Another feat of railroad building is the Arica-La Paz line. From Arica on the Chilean Pacific coast this remarkable railway extends 267 miles to La Paz, the lofty capital of Bolivia. The line was built in accordance with agreements entered into by the Chilean and Bolivian governments in 1904, though actual construction work did not commence until 1909. The road was opened in 1912, the total cost of construction reaching \$12,000,000 or over \$45,000 a mile. The work was performed by a firm of British engineers. One of the noteworthy achievements was the laying of twenty-eight miles of rack railroad, which constitute the longest uninterrupted stretch of cog and wheel construction in the world. The Arica-La Paz road taps the rich copper regions of Bolivia

and forms a link in a transcontinental system across Chile, Bolivia and Brazil.—See also ARGENTINA: 1909; Mitre law: CHILE: 1909-1910; 1909-1912.

ALSO IN: *Pan American Union, Bulletin*, Aug., 1912.—F. M. Halsey, *Railway expansion in Latin America*.

1872-1916.—Japan.—First railroads.—Government and private construction.—Nationalization.—The first railroad line in Japan was opened between Tokio and Yokohama in 1872. Two other short lines were built in the next five years. In 1883 the Grand Trunk railway from Tokio to Kyoto was begun. Although the first ten years of railway enterprises were characterized by state monopoly, during the decade of 1881 to 1891, the Nippon Railway Company and twelve other private companies were established. The government undertook larger projects in 1892. "Japan decided on the nationalization of her railways in 1906. Her principal railways have since been purchased by the government and placed under sole management of the Board of Railways, so that of the total length of railways in Japan proper, aggregating 6,500 miles, the government railroads reached 5,650 miles [in 1916]."—*Japan Financial and Economic Magazine*, Jan., 1916, p. 10.—These lines are being linked to the mainland of Asia by car floats, where, as part of her Chinese policy, Japan has been acquiring practical control of the railways in Korea and Manchuria by managing Chinese-owned lines, and by securing concessions for new lines by diplomatic pressure.—See also JAPAN: Map.

ALSO IN: E. C. Baker, *Port in Northern China (Trans-Pacific, July, 1921)*.—P. Milyukov, *Russia to-day and to-morrow*, ch. 10.—T. F. Millard, *Our Eastern question*.

1876-1921.—China.—Early railroads.—Peking-Mukden line.—Railway concessions to rival European powers.—Russia's aggression for the Trans-Siberian railway.—Japan's encroachments.—"In 1876, the first railway in China was laid by a foreign firm from Shanghai to Wusung, where the bar on the Shanghai river interrupts the traffic. It was well patronized, paid a dividend at once, and after running sixteen months, was purchased by the Chinese authorities, who no sooner came into possession of it than they tore it up and shipped the materials to Formosa."—H. Norman, *People and politics of the Far East*, p. 308.—"The next line to be started was one which, though unambitious in its scope, became ultimately a part of the important line from Peking to Mukden. In 1877 permission was obtained by the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company to build a railway from its mines at Kaiping to a canal at Hsukuchuang, a distance of six miles. It had not been the intention of the Government that the cars should be drawn by steam, but in fact the engineer in charge managed to construct and operate a steam locomotive which received the name of 'The Rocket of China.' The use of this engine was acquiesced in, and in 1886 permission was obtained to extend the line southward to Tientsin, which extension was completed in 1889. In 1891, the further extension of this line northward to Shanhaikuan was authorized. A few years later the ownership of the road was acquired by the Imperial Government and its operation placed in the hands of the Chinese Imperial Railways Administration. In 1894, the line was again extended from Tientsin to Peking. After the Sino-Japanese War a loan of £2,300,000 (16,000,000 taels) was obtained from the British banks for extending the line to Mukden. the loan agree-

ment bearing date of October 10, 1898. The conditions of this, one of the first of China's railway loans, need to be summarized, as they show the character of the 'control' provided for, and also furnished a model for a number of later loans. The loan was made 'a first charge upon the security of the permanent way, rolling stock, and entire property, with the freight and earnings of the existing lines between Peking and Shanhaikuan, and on the freights and earnings of the new lines when constructed.' Undertaking was given by the Chinese Government that the roads, buildings, rolling stock, etc., would be kept in good condition. If the construction of branch lines or extensions connecting with the lines concerned should be later proposed, the British and Chinese Corporation was to be applied to for loans if foreign capital was needed."—W. W. Willoughby, *Foreign rights and interests in China*, pp. 526-527.—"In the 'Battle for Concessions' the private speculator in railways appeared on the scene to worry the Chinese Government, but behind him, in addition, was the whole diplomatic force of his country. Later, the bankers, encouraged by their governments to finance railway construction in those regions which the latter had marked out as their sphere of political influence or of pecuniary interest, secured for the money market the issues of loans, and for the trade of their respective countries orders for the materials required. . . . When our troops were defeated by the Japanese in the autumn of 1894, the policy of the Powers with respect to China was consequently changed. Russia headed the way and prepared to play an important part in the Far East by the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railway. [See TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY.] Long before the Chino-Japanese War, Russia had cherished the idea of constructing a railroad from the Urals to the Pacific coast, with the object of strengthening her strategical position and political influence in the Far East. Russia's first attempt was to seize one of the Korean ports, free from the grip of ice, as a terminus, but this attempt failed owing to England's objection. In May, 1891, the Siberian Railroad was officially started at Vladivostok. The Chino-Japanese War had given Russia the opportunity to secure an ice-free port in the territory of China. France was not inactive in demanding something for her services to China. On June 20, 1895, a treaty with France was signed by China, stipulating, besides the extension of the frontier between China and Indo-China and the exploitation of mines situated in the Province of Hunnan and other resources, that the military railways already built between Phulathuang and Langson in Tongking, or other railroads to be constructed in Annam might, after a mutual understanding, be extended into Chinese territory. . . . Great Britain now wanted to act in her turn. On February 4, 1897, she made a treaty with China, in which, besides many privileges granted to her, China allowed an important modification on the Burmese frontier. At the end of the same year, China, having been obliged to liquidate the Japanese War Indemnity, negotiated a loan with some British financial agents. The security of the loan was to be the native and maritime customs, the salt tax and Likin (an internal merchandise tax). But the British Government was not satisfied with this ample and sufficient security and demanded certain concessions in addition. These included the railway from Burma to Yunnan, a guarantee of the non-alienation of the Yangtze region to any other Power, greater freedom of internal trade with the aboli-

tion of Likin on foreign goods in the treaty ports, and finally the opening of Talienwan and Nanning to foreign trade. . . . The recognition of the occupation of Kiaochow and the concessions of railways and mines to Germany accelerated the aggressive actions of the other covetous Powers. Russia made a more significant advance from North Manchuria and on March 27, 1898, secured a twenty-five years' lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan, and compelled the Manchu Court to permit the Chinese Eastern Railway Company to extend a branch line from a certain point (Harbin) on the main line to these two ports. . . . The Trans-Siberian Railroad as originally projected was entirely within Russian territory and followed the bank of the Amur River from Stetinsk to the Ussuri—a wide useless detour. When Russia secured this concession the section on the north bank of the Amur River was abandoned for a Trans-Manchurian Railroad which leaves a station near Chita and enters Manchuria at Manchouli to rejoin the original line at Nikolskoi, about 67 miles from Vladivostok—thus shortening the distance by about 500 miles. The line running across Manchuria towards Vladivostok covers a distance of about 960 miles in Chinese territory. In the Spring of 1897, work of construction was started and in the same year the city of Harbin was founded and made the headquarters of construction. This was the first step toward what has been called Russia's 'pacific conquest' of China. . . . The construction of the whole system was pushed on very rapidly. In the fall of 1901 the entire Chinese Eastern Railway connecting the Trans-Siberian line with Vladivostok across Manchuria and the line south from Harbin to Port Arthur were completed. This system in Manchuria in all measured about 1,600 miles. The estimated cost of construction of the whole system was about Rbs. 422,292,547. After the Russo-Japanese War the Southern section of the railway from Kuangchengtze to Dairen (Japanese spelling of Talien) was surrendered to Japan. The Chinese Eastern Railway system . . . has a total mileage of only 1,078 miles; the Manchouli (via Harbin) to Sufenho (Pagonitchnaia) section forms the Manchurian section of the Trans-Siberian Railway with a branch to Kuangchengtze . . . ports. . . . And thus we see that the four systems of railway, i.e., the Russian system in Manchuria, the German system in Shantung, the French system in Kuhnán and Kwangsi, and the British system connecting Burma with Yunnan and Szechuan all owe their origins to political and strategical rather than commercial aspirations. . . . Up to the middle part of the year 1900 the Russian, French, Belgian, and American syndicates pushed on in surveying or in constructing their respective roads with considerable vigor and energy. The British concessionaires, however, were very inactive and backward in carrying out the work on their concessions, most of which were only in preliminary arrangement and by no means promising of anything definite. This was first due to the political intrigues which had influenced the Government to oppose British enterprises and support the Franco-Belgian group of capitalists backed by Russian diplomacy, and secondly due to the outbreak of the Boer War which had made it for a time impossible to raise capital in the London money market to finance projects. The securing of concessions for building railroads and working mines by foreign syndicates supported by their respective governments or by the combination of several governments the energetic but dangerous action

exhibited by the aggressive foreign ministries and navy and army cliques in robbing territories and seizing political and commercial privileges, and the subsidizing of China by foreign capital stirred up an anti-foreign feeling among the people. In June, 1900, the Boxer movement originating in the Province of Shantung, burst over North China. Its results were the further humiliation of China and the retardation of the constructional work on railways."—M. C. Hsu, *Railway problems in China* (Columbia University studies in history, economics and public law, pp. 27-32, 44, 54-55).—Out of the period of "the battle of concessions" have grown the economic problems, which formed so vital a part of the Far Eastern question discussed at the Washington conference, which President Harding called in November, 1921. The Far Eastern republic of China, which at that time controlled the Chinese Eastern railway, was refused admission to this peace conference. Because of the international complications of this famous railway, the United States had proposed its internationalization in 1916, but the idea was rejected by Japan, Russia, and France.—See also CHINA: 1898 (February-December); 1899 (March-April); 1904-1909.

ALSO IN: J. O. P. Bland, *Recent events and present policies in China*.—L. D. Froelich, *Building China's railroads* (Asia, Mar., 1917).—T. F. Millard, *Our Eastern question*.

1880-1882.—United States.—Abuses in railroad construction.—"In the three years 1880-1882 . . . 29,000 miles of railroads [were built in the United States], an addition of thirty-four per cent. to the railroad mileage of the country. Not more than one third of these were justified by existing business. Another third, perhaps, were likely to be profitable at some future date, or at any rate to be of real service to the community; but not now. Of the remainder, some were built to increase the power of existing systems, where they were not needed and not likely to be needed on their own account. Some were built to put money into the hands of the builders, as distinct from the owners. Some were built to sell, as a black-mailing scheme against other roads. To make money out of the building of a railroad, it was only necessary to subscribe the small sum requisite for obtaining a charter, with the right to issue first-mortgage bonds. The original subscribers would then have at their disposal whatever funds the bondholders might furnish. They could pay themselves a good commission for selling the bonds. They could then organize as a construction company, and contract to pay themselves a high price for building the road. These are but two means among many which afforded them an opportunity of transferring the bondholder's money to their own pockets in their double capacity as directors and contractors. This was not the worst. When the money came out of the bondholders' pockets, the bondholders were in some sense responsible for being duped. Sometimes the money came out of the pockets of the stockholders of rival roads, who were in no sense responsible. Some roads were built because they could so injure existing roads by competition as to force those roads to buy them out. The system of receiverships, originally intended as a protection to investors, has been carried to a point where it tends to the furtherance of schemes like these. Such was the character and purpose of many of the recent railroad projects."—A. T. Hadley, *Railroad transportation, its history and its laws*, pp. 52-53.

ALSO IN: F. L. McVey, *Populist movement*.—J. B. Crawford, *Credit Mobilier*.—Mr. Blaine and Mulligan letters (reprinted from *Congressional Record*).—W. Larrabee, *Railroad question*.

1882-1905.—Great Britain.—Government regulation.—Railway and canal commission.—Subsequent legislation.—“Railway commission legislation was introduced [in Great Britain] regularly between 1882 and 1886. In 1885 the nine principal railways submitted bills to Parliament embodying a general classification and a rearrangement of their maximum rates. But the protests of the traders led to the withdrawal of these measures. . . . In 1887 a regulative measure, which in some respects resembled the legislation of the following year, passed the House of Lords. So far as the form of the Commission is concerned the most important changes introduced by the legislation of 1888 were the court organization of the Commission and the limitation of the right of appeal. . . . The new legislation provided for a Commission of five members, composed of two lay and three ex-officio members. The ex-officio members are superior court judges, one for England, one for Scotland, one for Ireland. The active Commission at any one time has a membership of three, the two lay commissioners presided over by the designated superior court judge of the country in which the Commission is sitting. . . . The Act of 1888, while it repealed portions of the railway regulative acts already in existence, did not codify the portions remaining. Consequently there are still in effect sections of the Railway Clauses Consolidation Act, 1845, the Railway and Canal Traffic Act, 1854, the Regulation of Railways Act, 1868, and the Regulation of Railways Act, 1873. Since 1888 jurisdiction in regard to actual rates has been given by an Act of 1894; while, under a law of 1904, the powers of the Commission in regard to private sidings have been made more definite by an interpretation of the ‘reasonable facilities’ clause of the Act of 1854. While the jurisdiction given by the Act of 1888 embraces a variety of functions, the most important of which are undue preference, facilities for traffic, traffic on steamboats, through rates, rate books, terminals, legality of rates, provisions relating to private branch sidings, and references under the Board of Trade Arbitrations Act, 1874, the most important matters from the standpoint of the traders are (a) terminals, (b) reasonable facilities, (c) through rates, (d) undue preference, (e) control over actual rates.”—S. J. McLean, *English railway and canal commission of 1888* (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Nov., 1905).

1887-1906.—United States.—Federal regulation of railroads through Interstate Commerce Commission.—Elkins Act.—Hepburn Act.—“How our system of [federal railroad] regulation has grown up is illustrated by the way in which from time to time powers have been conferred on the Interstate Commerce Commission. . . . The act to regulate commerce went into effect in 1887. [It was known as the Cullom Act from the report of Senator Cullom’s committee.] There had been prolonged, widespread and well-founded complaints of rebating and other forms of unfair discrimination in rates, and the law was passed mainly to abolish these practices. It prohibited rebating and other forms of unfair discrimination, and forbade rates to exceed reasonable maxima. There was apprehension lest the pools of traffic and earnings which had been formed by various groups of competing lines would cause rates to be

made and kept excessive, and therefore pooling also was prohibited. The Interstate Commerce Commission was created to enforce these provisions. It understood it was authorized to prescribe and put into effect maximum reasonable rates; but the Supreme Court of the United States held otherwise. During the twenty years following the creation of the commission the question of rates, and especially the rebating phase of it, continued to absorb public attention; and regulation, state and national, dealt mainly with this question. Several minor amendments to the Interstate Commerce law, all dealing with rate matters, were passed, and in 1903 the Elkins law was enacted, strengthening the provisions against rebating. In 1906 was passed the Hepburn act, specifically authorizing the commission, when it found rates unreasonable, to fix maximum reasonable rates.”—S. O. Dunn, *Interstate Commerce Commission and the railroads* (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Jan., 1916).—“The original Interstate Commerce Bill, introduced by Mr. Reagan, absolutely prohibited ‘less for the long haul.’ The Senate amended by adding ‘under similar circumstances and conditions,’ and the Interstate Commerce Commission has held that ‘water competition’ makes dissimilar circumstances and thus legalizes it. And in this connection it may be added that the other Senate amendment to the Reagan bill, creating an Interstate Commerce Commission, was, next to the above amendment, the wisest measure of the bill. It forms a body of experts whose opinions and decisions must gradually educate the public, on the one hand, to a better understanding of transportation problems, and restrain the railroads, on the other, from many of the abuses incident to unchecked competition among them.”—E. P. Alexander, *Railway management* (*American Railway*, p. 173).—“The result of twenty years’ operation under the interstate commerce act of 1887, passed to restrain abuses of unjust discrimination and unreasonableness of rates, was that the railroads came to regard the action of the commission it created as of no importance. The delays, due to the necessity of resorting to the courts to try out the merits of every order of the commission, before it became effective, made the remedy of the complaining shipper or locality so slow and burdensome that in contested cases it was no remedy at all. The commission was not, under the old act, authorized to fix reasonable rates. It could only say that a particular rate was unreasonable and order a railroad to change its rate and make it reasonable. The railroad might fix a new rate at anything less than the rate declared to be unreasonable, and if the reduction made was not sufficient, a new action had to be brought to decide that the new rate was also unreasonable. . . . Made aware of the moribund condition of railway regulation under the old law and of the widespread abuses which prevailed in railway management, President Roosevelt, in his message of 1904, recommended that the powers of the commission be largely increased; first, by enabling the commission to fix rates, and second, by making its order effective against the carriers without resort to courts to compel performance. He asked that it be made an administrative tribunal with real power. This was done by the passage of the [Hepburn] Rate Bill, in June, 1906. The new act enables the commission to fix rates and gives efficacy to all of its orders by providing that they shall go into effect thirty days after they are made, unless suspended by an order of court, and

failure to comply with them is punishable by a fine of \$5,000 a day during the delinquency. Express companies, sleeping car companies, and oil pipeline companies are brought under the jurisdiction of the commission as common carriers. The act gives the commission power to fix rates for the various incidental services performed by railroads at terminals and on the journey and to require them to be performed for every shipper. By withholding such services from one, and extending them to another, and by imposing varying charges for them, companies have been able in the past to make them a convenient instrument for discrimination. The new law requires the publication of rates charged for such incidental services. Railroads are compelled to furnish cars without discrimination for the movement of traffic. After . . . [two years] they are confined in their business strictly to transportation by a provision forbidding them . . . to transport for themselves anything but what is intended for their use as common carriers. Experience has shown that the railroads can not be trusted to deal fairly in matters of transportation between themselves and their competitors in an outside business. The new law makes radical changes in the matter of the publication of rates. Under the old law, by means of what was called the 'midnight tariff,' a railroad company gave favored shippers advance information of a contemplated reduction of rate and immediately restored the old rate when these shippers had profited by it. 'Thirty days' notice is now required of any change in the rates unless the commission, for good cause, modifies the requirement. Again, the law enables the commission to prescribe a uniform system of accounting for railroads. Under the old law the commission could call for a report of the railroads and might ask questions of railroads, but it had no way to compel a compliance with its request, and no penalty was provided in the law for failure to make the full report. Under the new law, annual reports must be made under oath, and penalties are prescribed for failure to file them with the commission within a certain time. The commission can call for monthly or special reports. It may prescribe the bookkeeping methods of the carrier and has access at all times through examiners to the carrier's books. The carrier is forbidden to keep any other books than those prescribed. . . . Never before was there such a united opposition by the railroad interests to any National measure as they instituted against the Rate Bill. . . . [The main objection urged against it was that it would] be unwise because it was a departure from the *laissez-faire* doctrine of as little government as possible, and was a long step toward socialism and Government ownership."—W. H. Taft, *Present day problems*, pp. 156-159.—See also COMMODITY CLAUSE OF THE HEPBURN ACT; U.S.A.: 1887: Interstate Commerce Act; TRUSTS: United States: 1903-1906; 1904-1909.

ALSO IN: H. C. Adams, *Administrative supervision of railroads under the twentieth section of an act to regulate commerce* (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, May, 1908).—F. Frankfurter, *Cases under Interstate Commerce Act (to 1915)*.—K. K. Gartner, *Commentaries on Interstate Commerce Commission Reports*, v. 1-41.—W. Z. Ripley, *Railroads, rates and regulations*.—H. T. Newcomb, *Force and effect of the orders of the Interstate Commerce Commission*.—E. R. Johnson and G. G. Huebner, *Railroad traffic and rates*.—F. H. Dixon, *Railroads and the government*.—S. O. Dunn, *American transportation question*.

1887-1907.—Beginning and development of electric railways. See RAILROADS, ELECTRIC: Interurban electric railways; ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric locomotives: 1847-1899.

1890-1902.—United States.—Sherman anti-trust law applied to railroad combinations.—Four types of great railroad systems in the United States.—As it finally passed the two houses of Congress and was approved by the president, July 2, 1890, the much discussed and much litigated piece of legislation, known as the Sherman Act, embodied its purpose in the first two sections, which read as follows:

Sect. 1. Every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, is hereby declared to be illegal. Every person who shall make any such contract or engage in any such combination or conspiracy, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

Sect. 2. Every person who shall monopolize, or attempt to monopolize, or combine or conspire with any other person or persons, to monopolize any part of the trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments in the discretion of the court.

The test case as to whether or not this law was applicable to railroad monopolies came when the suit of the United States against the Trans-Missouri Freight Association, the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad Company, and others, was brought for the dissolution of an association or combination alleged to be in restraint of trade, and in violation, therefore, of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. It was tried originally in November, 1892, before United States District Judge Riner, of the Kansas district, who ruled that the law did not apply, and dismissed the case. On appeal it was tried again with the same result the next year before Circuit Judge Sanborn and District Judges Shiras and Thayer. Judges Sanborn and Thayer affirmed the judgment of the District Court, while Judge Shiras dissented. The question then went for final adjudication to the Supreme court, where it was argued on December 8 and 9, 1896, and decided on March 22, 1897. The opinion of the court, delivered by Justice Peckham, reversed the judgment of the courts below, affirming that the Anti-Trust Act applies to railroads, and that it renders illegal all agreements which are in restraint of trade. The case was accordingly remanded to the Circuit Court "for further proceedings in conformity with this opinion." Justices White, Field, Gray, and Shiras dissented from the opinion of the majority. The relation between the Interstate Commerce Act and the Sherman Anti-Trust law was pointed out by the Industrial Commission in its report of 1902: "It is of peculiar interest to note that this leading case was decided, not upon interpretation of the interstate commerce act itself, but under the provisions of the Sherman anti-trust law of 1890. . . . Two questions were plainly before the court: First, whether the Sherman Anti-Trust law applied to and covered

common carriers by railroad; and secondly, whether the Trans-Missouri Freight Association violated any provision of that act by being an unreasonable restraint upon trade. The court itself acknowledged that it was doubtful whether Congress originally intended to include railroads under the prohibitory provisions of the anti-trust law. Counsel for the carriers showed, it would seem conclusively, that an amendment proposed by Mr. Bland to include railroads in the prohibition was rejected. The dissenting Supreme Court justices maintained that in the absence of a specific application of the anti-trust law to railroads, inasmuch as the anti-trust law was a general act, while the act to regulate commerce, antedating it by three years, was specific, the latter exempted the railroads, in any case, from the drastic provisions of the Sherman Act against combinations in restraint of trade. The court refused to consider other than mere questions of law, holding that if pooling were excepted it was the province of Congress to take appropriate action. . . . It has very frequently been asserted that a primary cause of the notable tendency toward railroad consolidation since 1898 was the definitive prohibition of all varieties of traffic contracts or agreements by the Trans-Missouri Freight Association decision of 1897. This decision, as has already been indicated, was rendered upon the basis of the Sherman Anti-Trust law, without contemplation of the prohibitive provision of the Act to regulate commerce of 1887. According to the opinion of many jurists, in fact, the latter act could not reasonably have been construed to prohibit many of the traffic agreements which have been customary between carriers. It has been urged with great force that coöperation among the railroads having been finally adjudged illegal, it became necessary to have recourse to a more drastic remedy, namely, consolidation in some of its various forms. . . . The first difference to be noted between pooling and consolidation is that the latter is much more comprehensive in its scope. . . . Agreements for the division of traffic constitute but the mere machinery by which a certain result is to be attained. . . . Experience has abundantly shown that it is possible for railroads to maintain a large part of their identity, even reserving to themselves the power to make rates independently, under a pool, in exceptional cases, without thereby entirely nullifying the steadying influences of such traffic agreements. Consolidation, however, necessarily involves the unification of all interests as between railroads. . . . In brief, pooling may still permit competition in respect to facilities. It may merely eliminate the ruinous phases of competition in rates, leaving still in force the healthful influences of reasonable rivalry. Consolidation proceeds to the uttermost to stifle competition of all kinds, whether in respect of rates or of facilities. . . . A second point to be kept in mind as between the effects of consolidation and pooling lies in the fact that consolidation can never hope to accomplish the steadying influence upon rates which is claimed for railroad pools, until such time as every railroad within a given competitive territory shall have been bought up and absorbed. . . . A division of territory into a number of specific groups, each absolutely monopolized by one interest, seems to be the only logical outcome of the consolidations which have been already accomplished."—*Final Report of the Industrial Commission*, 1902, pp. 338-348.—"It seems fairly well established, however, that the [anti-trust] law does not prevent the consolidation of lines which

are not parallel and which do not directly compete with one another, and this kind of consolidation is going on all the time. . . . The Hawley group of roads . . . embraces the Chicago & Alton; St. Louis & San Francisco; Missouri, Kansas & Texas; Chesapeake & Ohio; Toledo, St. Louis & Western; Minneapolis & St. Louis; Iowa Central; Texas Central, and the Kansas City, Mexico & Orient, with a total extent of between 14,000 and 15,000 miles. It is possible to distinguish more or less clearly four types of railroad consolidations in the United States. . . . The kind of consolidation exemplified by the major Harriman lines, the Pennsylvania system or the Vanderbuilt roads, may be described as strong, since it has been brought about by actual majority ownership of the capital stock of the properties represented. This majority ownership may be vested in any one, or in two or three of the roads embraced in the group. . . . A weak combination, or one controlled through minority ownership, is represented in the Hawley roads. No one of these roads and no single corporation or individual owns or holds actual control of the stock of all the rest of them; but the same group of capitalists has a good-sized minority interest in all of them; and, in the absence of any organized opposition by the majority stockholders, this serves well enough for the purpose of securing temporary control of the executive committee of each road by persons representing the same party. In the specific case of the Hawley roads there exists a mixture of the strong and the weak forms of combination, since one of the properties has been made a holding company for actual control of three of the others. By far the largest proportion of the system mileage, however, is outside the specific grasp of this little holding company. The Hill roads furnish an example of a different type of combination. The Northern Pacific, the Great Northern, and, to a certain extent, the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, are all of them to a greater or less degree parallel and competing lines within the apparent meaning of the anti-trust law. Yet these three lines are operated under conditions of the utmost harmony, and they adhere to a common and consistent line of general policy. In this case, strong or actual control of the Burlington is held through joint bonds issued by the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific. The Great Northern and the Northern Pacific have not a single director in common, and are operated by different officers. Yet James J. Hill . . . directed the general policy of both roads quite closely for a great many years, and harmony between them is established partly through family ownership of securities, and partly through the workings of a minority party of capitalists, somewhat in the fashion of that shown in the formation of the Hawley system. . . . The form of control exercised in the case of the Gould lines is different from any of these; it may be described as being primarily a strong or majority control exercised by the members of a single family, the descendants of Jay Gould, who actually have majority stock of the various component parts of the system locked up in their strong boxes. This statement is not exhaustive; the control of the Western Pacific by the Denver & Rio Grande, for example, is direct and proprietary, without any third party intervening. But the actual control of such roads as the Texas & Pacific and the St. Louis Southwestern is supposed to be distributed throughout the Gould family, individual owners in this case performing the same function that is often exercised by a

holding company."—R. Morris, *Railroad administration*, pp. 257-260.

1892-1922.—United States.—Organization of railroad employees.—Strikes. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION: United States: 1888-1921; LABOR LEGISLATION: 1862-1920; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911; 1880-1900; 1922: Strike of railway shopmen; U.S.A.: 1894: Strike at Pullman; 1898 (June); 1913 (June); 1917 (March); New railway strike; 1919 (August-November); NEW YORK: 1891-1893; YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1868-1910.

1893-1910.—United States.—Era of depression.—Period of railroad consolidation.—Second period of dissolution.—Harriman combinations.—"The period of depression of 1893-'97 retarded for some time the growth of railroad systems. In fact, dismemberment of a number of important properties took place in connection with bankruptcy and reorganization. The Atchison lost the 'Frisco'; and the Union Pacific was bereft of the Oregon Short Line. This second system, in fact, was entirely dismembered. The Erie was about the only important property which underwent the disrupting tendency of financial readjustment. Low-water mark in consolidation occurred in 1898 when only 174 miles of line changed hands. It was during these years of depression that the rubbish was cleared away for the constructive work of consolidation which characterized the ensuing decade. A striking example is the Southern Railway, which already in 1900 aggregated almost 40 smaller railroads in a system comprising about 7,000 miles of line. Preliminary to this work, however, was a complete breakup and reconstruction of the Richmond and West Point Terminal. Such occurrences are typical of the decade of the '90s. The working out of the higher strategy in railroad consolidation was the most significant feature of American transportation history in the decade to 1910.—Within this brief period what now promise to become more or less permanent financial and operating groups, evolved out of the competitive chaos of large units of depression of 1893-'97. Nor was the growth of large units confined to railroading alone. In fact, the rapid rise of great banking units undoubtedly had much to do with the activity in this direction in the railroad field. All the various event of the period naturally dovetail together. Rising freight and passenger rates; growing interest in governmental control; hostility to continued favoritism and personal discrimination; the growth of the trusts; it is difficult to determine the order of causation. Combination in every department of commerce was in the air. It was the spirit of the time. But undoubtedly the intimate association of railroads with great banking houses in New York favored, if it did not actually bring about, many of the great combinations. Moreover, the return of railroad securities in large volume from Europe as a result of the panic of 1893, afforded a unique opportunity to great financiers to acquire control of properties and thereafter to shift them bodily from hand to hand as inclination and opportunity dictated. Speculation in earlier years was more largely confined to sales of stocks and bonds; now it became common to buy and sell entire railroads through transfer at one time of controlling portions of their shares. As one witness in an important transaction put it, 'We bought the Louisville & Nashville just as you would buy a box of candy. It was wrapped up and delivered to us, and we paid \$50,000,000 for it. That was all there was to it.' Popular atten-

tion was to some degree focused upon the course of consolidation by reason of this highly accentuated control by bankers or stock-exchange houses, with the attendant speculative activity on a large scale to which attention has already been called. The suddenness of the outbreak of combination with the return of prosperity about 1898 may be judged from the statement of the Interstate Commerce Commission that 'disregarding mere rumors and taking account of well-authenticated statements, there were absorbed in various ways between July 1, 1899, and November 1, 1900, 25,311 miles of railroad. There are in the whole United States something less than 200,000 miles of road; more than one-eighth of this entire mileage was, within the above period, brought in one way and another under the control of other lines.' The Rock Island was a leading instance. With 3,800 miles of line in 1901, its length rose within less than five years to a total in excess of 15,000. The highest flight of railroad combination occurred . . . in the final exploits of the late E. H. Harriman in 1906, in investing the proceeds of his speculative operations with Union Pacific funds in the stocks of other railroads all over the United States. Absolutely controlling nearly 25,000 miles of line, the Union Pacific stock holdings powerfully influenced over 30,000 miles in addition; while other Harriman alliances indirectly affected some 16,000 miles over and above this. A stupendous and top-heavy pyramid was thus erected comprising perhaps one-third of the railway net of the United States. . . . There is every indication that the combination movement was brought to a close by a process of financial exhaustion. In how far the size of the resultant unit conformed to the demands of operating efficiency seems open to question. For a time it seemed as if the railroad groups were so firmly established and well-defined by mutual agreements of the parties in interest, that they might be regarded as more or less permanent. Even the new and undeveloped territory appeared to be partitioned off by treaty and alliance. The shifting panorama of years of struggle for supremacy promised to be succeeded by a sort of stable equilibrium. Something akin to the balance of power in Europe was indicated; whereby any wholesale readjustment of relationships within a single system might entail too great results upon other financial or operating groups to be permitted to occur. But prophecies to this effect failed to reckon with two human and political certainties. Foremost among these was the frailty of man's existence. The deaths of Harriman in 1909 and of Morgan three years later removed the [personal] main-springs of constructive effort in the direction of consolidation. And the rising hostility of the public to monopoly was exemplified in increasing pressure by public authority under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. And then again, all of the financial excesses of the frenzied years of speculation came home to roost along about 1910. In response to all of these influences, certain of the great consolidations . . . began to go to pieces. The Gould system died of inanition; the Rock Island, of internal corruption; and the Union Pacific and New England monopolies by mandate of the Federal Department of Justice."

—W. Z. Ripley, *Railroads, finance and organization*, pp. 456-462.

Also in: S. Daggett, *Railroad reorganization*.

1895.—South Africa.—Cape-to-Cairo railroad.—Cecil Rhodes' achievements in Rhodesia.—"That the Cape-to-Cairo Railway, as the plan first took form in Cecil Rhodes' mind, was to be an

'All British route' was, perhaps, its principal reason for being. It was to be a long steel artery, so to speak, reaching from one end of the continent to the other, from which the long line of British colonies and protectorates, beginning at Egypt and ending at Cape Colony, should draw vigour for their growth and development. . . . He [Rhodes] realised that the first thing to be done, . . . was to get the railway itself under way; the matter of the 'All Red' route, he always believed, could be arranged later. The Rhodes Cape-to-Cairo plan—indeed, the one which has been followed undeviatingly down to this day—was to utilise the 2,000 miles of lake and riverway which occur almost exactly upon a straight line drawn between the two termini [Cape Town and Cairo] and to build the intervening railway links, totaling 4,000 miles in length, as rapidly as the financial and engineering difficulties could be overcome. . . . The magnet of the diamond mines had taken the railway to Kimberley; . . . the gold mines of the Rand had drawn it on to Johannesburg; and the efforts of the Chartered Company of Rhodesia carried it on to Bulawayo, Matabeleland, in 1895. Beyond stretched the 1,000 miles or more of the almost unexplored wilds of Northern Rhodesia which must be crossed to make the connection with Lake Tanganyika that Rhodes had set himself to establish. . . . Rhodes decided that Bulawayo must be reached [in two years]. . . . Large forces of natives were whipped up; and by superhuman effort what was apparently impossible was achieved—492 miles being laid in five hundred working days. . . . Construction on the line from Bulawayo to Victoria Falls was started by the Rhodesian Company before the outbreak of the Boer War, but the disturbed condition of the country preceding and during that struggle made it difficult to make much headway. . . . Rhodes turned in his need to the financial giants of Lombard Street and, partly through the generosity of the late Alfred Beit in heading the list with £500,000, but principally through the force of his own indomitable personality, had the whole £4,400,000 he needed subscribed within a week. Construction was started anew in Rhodesia, but before the railway reached Victoria Falls the hand which was driving it forward relaxed, and grew cold in death. The last words of the Imperial Dreamer, 'So much to do, so little done!' are believed to have referred chiefly to his dearest scheme, the Cape-to-Cairo Railway."—L. R. Freeman, *Rhodes's "All Red" route* (*World's Work*, Jan., 1916).—See also CAPE-TO-CAIRO RAILWAY; DELAGOA BAY ARBITRATION; RHODESIA: 1908; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: Constitution.

1898.—Switzerland.—State-owned railways.—After fifty years' experience with railroad problems as private enterprises and government subsidies, Switzerland, in 1898, decided to put into effect a system of state-owned railroads. Accordingly, the Central, the Northeastern and the United Swiss lines were acquired in 1901, the Jura-Simplon in 1903, and finally the St. Gothard in 1909. Furthermore the hydro-electric developments of Switzerland have progressed as a federal monopoly and furnished the principal motive power of the federal railways and their branches.

1899-1916.—Germany.—Berlin to Bagdad railway, a center of European conflicts in the Near East.—Construction prior to World War.—Germany's ambition to control the trade of the Near East through the construction of a great rail route reaching from Berlin to Constantinople, and from Skutari across Asia Minor, through Adana,

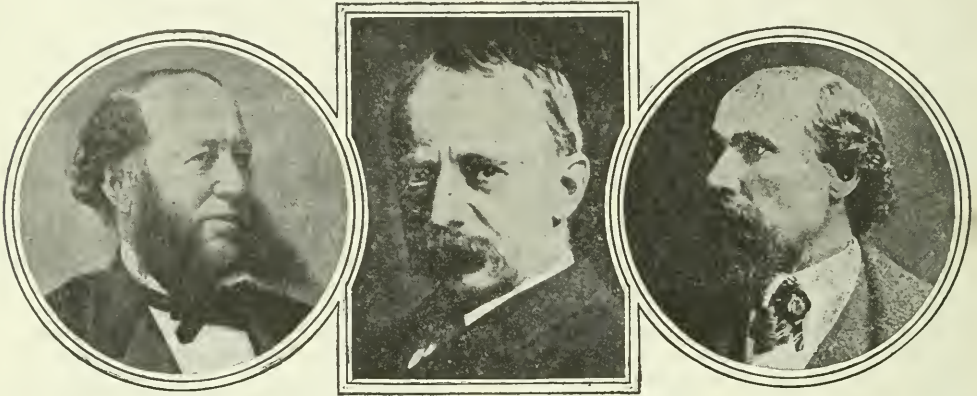
Aleppo and Mosul, to Bagdad,—thus connecting the Baltic Sea with the Persian gulf,—was attempted in 1899, when a concession to build a railroad across Asia Minor from Kinieh to Basorah, was obtained from the sultan. The other governments of Europe vigorously protested against this Pan-Germanic scheme, and in November, 1903, an agreement was made among them, whereby the Germans were to control forty per cent of the capital, the French, twenty, the British, thirty and the Turks, ten per cent. The significance of this railroad in the commercial rivalries back of the World War is patent. "The first section of the line from Konieh via Eregli and Bugurlu (in Asia Minor) was constructed—and well constructed, too—to the length of 124 miles, the railhead being reached some time in 1904, or about five years after the work was begun. The next section taken in hand was shorter, about 105 miles, from Bugurlu to Aleppo. To carry out this portion of the work a separate small company was formed in Switzerland with German capital, the head offices being situated in Glarus. The progress made subsequently was very remarkable, work proceeding simultaneously in three different directions—the first from Adana eastward to Amanus, the second from Adana westward to the Taurus Mountains, and the third from Bugurlu eastward to the Taurus mountains. But the section eastward from Adana to Bugurlu has since fallen into abeyance although the original plans called for its construction early in 1909."—*Bagdad railway* (*Scientific American*, Apr. 7, 1917, supplement).—Sections of the construction work were pushed to completion after the outbreak of the World War, but the line never reached its prospective terminus at the head of the Persian gulf. By the latter part of 1916 further work was out of the question and the future course of the road is at present an uncertainty.—See also BAGDAD RAILWAY.

ALSO IN: L. R. Freeman, *Bagdad railway and European war* (*Railway Age Gazette*, Mar. 10, 1916).

1899-1919.—Canada.—Canadian Northern railroad.—Its history and nationalization.—"The third transcontinental railroad, known as the Canadian Northern, began as an amalgamation to take over a couple of small Manitoba railways. . . . Under the direction of two ambitious railroad builders, Messrs. Mackenzie and Mann, the company leased several other short lines in Manitoba and formed the nucleus of a system [in 1899]. In 1902 power was obtained to build eastward toward Ottawa and Montreal, and westward, by Edmonton and the Skeena River, to the Pacific Coast. Thus, while the Grand Trunk Railway was maturing plans to build into the rich and rapidly developing agricultural areas of the West, the Canadian Northern Railway was planning to secure Eastern outlets. Although the logical outcome of this state of affairs should have been a fusion of these interests, unfortunately this did not take place. The Grand Trunk railway, however, secured the financial support of the Canadian Government at the price of agreeing . . . to a national Grand Transcontinental line to Canadian maritime ports. In spite of this the Canadian Northern did not relinquish its design to build eastward, though for ten years the history of the road largely centered around its feverish construction activity in the West. To a large degree excellence of roadbed and equipment was sacrificed in the determination to preempt rail facilities into new territory opening for settlement. As a result of this policy the company has over five

thousand miles of line in operation in the prairie Provinces apart from its outlet to the head of navigation at Port Arthur on Lake Superior. In British Columbia it has pushed through the Rocky Mountains at Yellowhead Pass and has completed its line from that point to Vancouver. In the meantime control was obtained of certain lines in Eastern Canada. This paved the way for building the connection link in the system between Montreal and Port Arthur, and in 1911 guarantees were secured from the Dominion Government for a bond issue that enabled this section of the line to be built. . . . The Canadian Northern Railway system . . . extends from Quebec to Vancouver, and taps Duluth, Toronto, Ottawa, and Montreal, covers the prairie Provinces with a large number of branches, and has the Halifax and Southwestern Railway in Nova Scotia."—D. A. MacGibbon, *Railway rates and the Canadian Railway Commission*, pp. 48-49.—Operated by this continental system of railways are the Canadian Northern steamships on the Great Lakes, and a fleet of ships giving service between Montreal and Bristol, England. In 1919, the Dominion took over

Hill. Realizing the necessity of connecting the western frontier with the eastern markets, Mr. Hill "cast his entire fortune into the balance, and with the assistance of several associates, took over the property [of the St. Paul and Pacific railroad], and with it its enormous debt of over \$33,000,000. James J. Hill . . . had bought a property that was bankrupt and was described as 'two streaks of rust reaching out into the desert'; but in this bold beginning was the germ of the great railroad system which, under the name of the Great Northern, was to bring him fame and fortune in the years to come. . . . Mr. Hill extended his railroad to the Red River and connected with the government line from Winnipeg. By this extension the rich lands of Minnesota were opened to immigrants, and the great wheat-lands of the Northwest were connected with the markets of the United States. . . . Ten years later, in 1893, Mr. Hill began actively to carry out his plan of extending his railroad from Helena to the coast. It is hard to realize the tremendous difficulties which faced him. On the one hand, the Rocky Mountains seemed to block his path; on the



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the ownership of this great railroad, the first addition to the government lines in the merger known as the Canadian National railways.

1900-1913.—Great Britain.—Beginning of consolidation of railway lines.—In the first decade of the twentieth century, the railways faced a decline in their revenues, due to increased operating expenses, and competition with electric trams, lines and motors. As a solution of this situation, the principle of coöperation, rather than competition was resorted to by the railways. The London and North Western made an agreement [in 1908] to pool all competitive traffic, and in 1918, the Lancashire and York road entered this combination. A little later the Great Northern, the Great Central, and the Great Eastern consolidated. The Great Western and the London and South Western followed their example. Consolidation was therefore in practice before the war, and made the transition to government control, as a war emergency, a less difficult adjustment.

ALSO IN: E. A. Pratt, *Railways and their rates*.—E. R. Johnson and T. H. Van Metre, *Principles of railroad transportation*.

1901-1905.—United States.—Hill system and Northern Securities case.—The great network of railroads embracing the Hill system was developed by the pioneer railroad builder, James Jerome

other, a financial panic made the obtaining of the money necessary for the project seem almost an impossibility. But he was undismayed; every obstacle was overcome, the road was built, and the empire again extended its boundary, this time to . . . the Pacific. Following the completion of the Great Northern, as the consolidation of his various railroads was now called, to Puget Sound, Mr. Hill began his struggle to obtain control of other railroads in order to combine them all into one vast coherent system. The Northern Pacific Railroad was the first to be added, and then the Burlington System was secured and incorporated into the vast development of his plan. Fifty years before, the penniless country boy had left the small village of his birth to seek his fortune; and now, after this life of usefulness, he found himself able to pay in cash over \$200,000,000 for the Northern Pacific Railway System."—J. Husband, *Americans by adoption*, pp. 110-113.—This colossal investment is bound up with the story of the famous Northern Securities case. When it became apparent that the Hill interests were buying up all the stock of the Northern Pacific, E. H. Harriman, representing the Union Pacific interests, went into the stock market and started to outbuy his rivals, in order to gain the controlling vote in the Northern Pacific railroad. This raid

on the market, which resulted in the Northern Pacific panic, brought about a compromise between Hill and Harriman, from which issued the Northern Securities Holding Company, incorporated in 1901 under the laws of New Jersey. The specific plan of operation was set forth in a circular issued by the Northern Securities Company, on November 22, 1901, to holders of the stock of the Great Northern Railway Company, which said: "The Northern Securities Company . . . has acquired from several large holders of stock of the Great Northern Railway Company a considerable amount of that stock. A uniform price has been paid of \$180 per share, in the fully paid stock of this company, at par. This company is ready to purchase additional shares of the same stock at the same price, payable in the same manner, and will accept offers made on that basis if made within the next sixty days." "It seems that the capitalization of \$400,000,000 was fixed at that figure in order to cover approximately the combined capital stock of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern at an agreed price apparently based upon earning capacity. The par value of the outstanding capital stock of the Great Northern was \$123,880,400, and that of the Northern Pacific amounted to \$155,000,000. The Northern Securities Company purchased about seventy-six per cent. of the former and ninety-six per cent. of the latter, on the basis of \$115 per share of \$100 of Northern Pacific and \$180 per share of \$100 of the Great Northern."—B. H. Meyer, *History of Northern Securities case* (*Bulletin of University of Wisconsin*, no. 142).—From the standpoint of public interests, the combination looked dangerous to the northwestern states, as being a suppression of competition and a creation of monopoly in railway transportation, and it was quickly announced that the Governor of Minnesota had determined to invite the governors of states affected by the transaction to a conference, for the purpose of considering "the best methods of fighting the Northern Securities Company's propositions in the courts and by new legislation, if necessary." The result of the conference was a suit undertaken by the State of Minnesota, at first in the Supreme Court of the United States, where it was found to be impracticable, but finally begun in the United States Circuit Court. This state action was soon followed by proceedings taken by the Federal government. Attorney-General Knox was asked by the President [Theodore Roosevelt] for an opinion as to the legality of the procedure involved in the formation of the Northern Securities Company, and replied that, in his judgment it violated the provisions of the Sherman Act of 1890. The President then "directed that suitable action should be taken to have the question judicially determined." Suit was begun accordingly on March 10, 1902, by the United States, in the United States Circuit Court at St. Paul, against the three companies—Northern Securities, Great Northern, and Northern Pacific. Testimony was taken in St. Paul and New York, and the case was argued in March, 1903, at St. Louis, before a special trial court, composed of four circuit judges. The decision rendered by this court, the four judges concurring, declared the transaction illegal, and enjoined the Northern Securities Company from performing the acts that it was intended to perform. This decision was contradicted, however, by one given at about the same time in the suit of the State of Minnesota, which had its trial in the United States Circuit Court for the district of Minnesota. There the legality of the forma-

tion of the Northern Securities Company was affirmed. Appeals from both decisions were taken to the Supreme Court, and that of the special trial court, in the suit of the Federal Government, which declared the procedure involved in the formation of the Northern Securities Company to be in violation of the Sherman Act, of 1890, was fully sustained by a majority of the Court, in March, 1904. In the opinion of the majority of the justices, "if Congress has not, by the words used in the Act, described this and like cases, it would, we apprehend, be impossible to find words that would describe them." The court below was authorized accordingly to execute its decree against the Securities Company. A little later the Supreme Court decided in the Minnesota State suit that it had no jurisdiction, and sent the case back, to be remanded to the state court from which it had been originally removed. With this case nothing further was done.

ALSO IN: J. G. Pyle, *Life of James J. Hill*.—J. J. Hill, *Highways of progress*.—H. Lewis and S. I. Miller, ed., *Economic resources of the Northwest* (T. L. Kibler, *Rail transportation*, pp. 446-490).

1901-1909.—United States.—Harriman system.—In 1901, when Edward H. Harriman, as director of the Union Pacific railroad, entered into competition with James J. Hill for the control of the Northern Pacific, his name was little known to the general public. At his death in 1909 he was said to be absolute director of 75,000 miles of railroad. "The rejuvenated Union Pacific and Southern Pacific will always stand as monuments to his genius. . . . He was not an Empire Builder in the sense that James J. Hill has been. . . . He did not originate any of these roads but he rebuilt them so that they were completely transformed. The Union Pacific was a government aided road, and the debt owing to the government had to be repaid. . . . Mr. Harriman and his syndicate arranged for the payment of the full amount [\$53,000,000]. His ability to handle large sums of money was never more forcibly shown than in 1901 when he sought to wrest control of Northern Pacific from the Morgan-Hill people . . . thereby bringing on the famous Northern Pacific corner. . . . In this purpose he was defeated. . . . He accepted the decision that a holding company should be formed, namely, the Northern Securities Co. . . . Before his death he succeeded in getting a system of lines running from ocean to ocean. . . . In recent years Mr. Harriman had the hostility of the government to contend with. Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Harriman had previously been close friends, but now all the powers of the national government were employed to crush Mr. Harriman. The Interstate Commerce Commission began to probe into the affairs of the Harriman roads. . . . It may be said he triumphed even against the government inasmuch as the government was unable to bring up anything that reflected on him."—*Mr. Harriman as a constructive force* (*Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, Sept. 11, 1909).

ALSO IN: G. Kennan, E. H. Harriman.—O. H. Kahn, *Our economic and other problems*.

1902.—Abyssinia.—French projects. See ABYSSINIA: 1902.

1904-1909.—Canada.—Railway Commission.—Its establishment and powers.—"The history of the Railway Commission since its establishment in 1903 has been one of constantly expanding jurisdiction. The original act conferred powers greatly in excess of those enjoyed by the Railway Committee, and by the Legislature and judicial

decisions since that time the jurisdiction of the Board has been extended and confirmed until as an executive and judicial body it now exercises a quite unique authority. The act of 1903 created a Board of three commissioners appointed by the Governor-in-Council, to hold office for a period of ten years. Unless disqualified by age, commissioners might be reappointed. One commissioner was to be Chief Commissioner of the Board, and a second Deputy Chief to act in the former's absence. To the Chief Commissioner was given the power of determining any question which in the opinion of the commissioners was a question of law. An amendment to the act in 1908 increased the number of commissioners to six and provided for an Assistant Chief Commissioner. The office of Chief Commissioner was limited to a judge of a superior court or an advocate or barrister of ten years' standing. . . . Being a statutory tribunal the Board of Railway Commissioners must rely for its authority upon the Canadian Railway Act. A warrant must be found in the act for its orders or they are null and void. . . . The powers of the Board as exercised fall into three broad divisions: the initial location and construction of a line; regulations covering safety and convenience in operation; and the regulation of tariffs and tolls."—D. A. MacGibbon, *Railway rates and the Canadian Railway Commission*, pp. 84-85, 88-89.—In June, 1909, the commission gave a decision as momentous as any since its activities began in 1904. In the case of the Dawson Board of Trade against the White Pass Railway Company (an English corporation) the commission decided that its jurisdiction extended to all railways in Canada, whether or not they originated in the United States.

1904-1921.—Canada-Ontario's venture.—Temiskaming and Northern Ontario railway.—The province of Ontario in 1904 undertook the building and operation of a railroad on its own responsibility, without any Dominion aid. The railroad was built at a cost of \$22,000,000. In 1921 it had not yet been nationalized, though it connected with the government railways a Cochrane.

1905-1909.—Switzerland.—Simplon Pass tunnel.—Purchase of St. Gothard railway by Swiss government.—The tunnel piercing the Simplon Pass, between Brigue, Switzerland, and Iselle, Italy, was finished February 24, 1905, after seven years' work and at a cost of \$14,000,000. It is twelve miles long,—two and three-quarters miles longer than the St. Gothard tunnel. It opens direct railway communication between Paris and Milan. The St. Gothard tunnel and railway were built under an agreement with the Swiss government under which the latter reserved the right of buying the St. Gothard within thirty years, and the price arranged was twenty-five times the amount of the net profits of the line during the last ten years of working. The right was exercised in the spring of 1909, and thus the last of the principal Swiss lines passed into the possession of the government.

1905-1914. — Manchuria. — South Manchuria railway.—Control by Japanese. See MANCHURIA: 1905-1914; PORTSMOUTH, TREATY OF.

1905-1921.—China.—Peking-Hankow railway.—Chinese built railways.—Hukuang loan and consortium of Great Powers.—President Taft's policy.—Nationalization.—"From the very beginning the United States has pursued a very righteous course in dealing with China. She always maintained fair play which has been greatly appreciated by China. Her 'open door' policy, made known through her wise Secretary of State, Mr.

Hay, has saved China from serious humiliation. Even during the stormy period of the Battle for Concessions China had great confidence in her. This can be proved in the case of the Canton-Hankow concession, which the Chinese Government intrusted to the American syndicate, with full power to control the expenditure of loan funds and the management of the road, while, on the contrary, she held these to herself in the case of the Belgian concession for the Peking-Hankow road."—M. C. Hsu, *Chinese railway problems* (Columbia University studies in history, economics, and public law, pp. 49-54).—"American financial interests were the first to become interested in the construction of [the Peking-Hankow] line, which has now become the most profitable of all the Chinese lines, and a survey was made under the authority of United States Senator Washburn. When, however, it came to the matter of a contract for the construction of the line, a Belgian company, the Société d'Etudes de Chemins de Fer en Chine, representing Belgian, French and Russian financial interests, obtained the contract. This it did, however, only by offering to the Chinese terms which afterwards the company found so liberal that it had to ask of the Chinese Government that they be modified—a request which, it may be observed, was backed by diplomatic pressure. . . . The line was opened to traffic in 1905."—W. W. Willoughby, *Foreign rights and interests in China*, p. 535.—"Feeling that their country was dominated by foreigners and fired with the laudable ambition to furnish from their own pockets the capital required for the building of railways in their own provinces, the prominent merchants and gentry of the several provinces started a 'sovereign right campaign.' . . . Mr. Chang Yu-nan of Fukien, who made his fortune in Java, was the first Chinese merchant who started the first purely Chinese railway enterprise. . . . The Chaochow and Swatow Railway Co. capitalized at \$3,303,303 Mex., was the first distinctly Chinese railway organization which has succeeded in constructing and operating a road. . . . In 1906, we find construction work begun on four other private roads, viz., the Hsinning Railway in Kwangtung province, the Kiangsi (Kiukiang-Nanchang) Railway in the Province of Kiangsi, the Anhui (Wuhu-Kuangtchow) Railway in the province of Anhui and the Chekiang-Kiangsu (Shanghai-Hankchow-Ningpo) Railway. In 1907, work on the Fukien (Changchowfu to Amoy) Railway in the Province of Fukien and the Tsitsihar Light Railway in North Manchuria was started by natives. In 1910, the rails of the Tungkuang-Honanfu (Lotung) Railway in the Province of Honan and the Szechuan-Hankow Railway were laid from their respective terminals. . . . The construction of the Peking-Kalgan section was commenced from Peking in October, 1905. Nine months later, the Nankow Pass was reached, a distance of 32 miles, and by the end of 1909 the whole line was completed. Its total length is about 130 miles, extending to Ta-tungfu in the Province of Shansi. There are many weighty facts of construction, including tunnels, at the Nankow Pass, where a gradient of 1 in 30 for five miles has been introduced. Mr. Jeme Tien-yow, a Yale graduate, was appointed as the Chief Engineer to undertake the construction work. When the construction of the line was first proposed many people believed that the Nankow Pass would present insuperable difficulties from the engineer's standpoint. When Mr. Jeme succeeded in completing this important work he was hailed throughout the world as the 'father' of

Chinese railway engineers, and honors were heaped on him by his fellow countrymen and by his Government. The line was built entirely under Chinese supervision and from the surplus profits of the Peking-Mukden Railway."—M. C. Hsu, *Railway problems in China* (Columbia University studies in history, economics, and public law, pp. 89-91, 104-105).—"In June, 1906, the building of the [important Canton-Hankow] road was turned over to merchants of the provinces through which it was to pass—Kwangtung, Hunan, and Hupeh. Under private auspices some 10,000,000 taels was spent with but thirty-five miles of poorly constructed and poorly-equipped line to show for it. It became evident that the Imperial Government would have to reassume control of the project and again to solicit foreign financial aid. This the Peking Government did, and began negotiations with the French, German, and British banks, whereupon the American Government asserted that it possessed a right to participation in the proposed [Hukuang] loan—a right based upon promises dating from 1903 and 1904, made by the Chinese Government. In pressing this American claim to participation, the American President, Mr. Taft, took the step, extraordinary from the diplomatic point of view, of communicating personally and directly with the head of the Chinese Government, Prince Regent Chun. In a telegram, dated July 15, 1909, to Prince Chun, President Taft said: 'I am disturbed at the report that there is certain prejudiced opposition to your Government's arranging for equal participation by American capital in the present railway loan. To your wise judgment it will of course be clear that the wishes of the United States are based not only upon China's promises of 1903 and 1904, confirmed last month, but also upon broad national and impersonal principles of equity and good policy in which a regard for the best interests of your country has a prominent part. I send this message not doubting that your reflection upon the broad phases of this subject will at once have results satisfactory to both countries. I have caused the Legation to give your minister for foreign affairs the fullest information on the subject. I have resorted to this somewhat unusually direct communication with Your Imperial Highness, because of the high importance that I attach to the successful result of our present negotiations. I have an intense personal interest in making the use of American capital in the development of China an instrument for the promotion of the welfare of China, and an increase in her material prosperity without entanglements or creating embarrassments affecting the growth of her independent political power and the preservation of her territorial integrity.' . . . However, on May 23, 1910, an agreement was reached in a conference held at Paris between the representatives of the British, French, German and American banks, for American participation in the Hukuang loan, and on May 20, 1911, the loan agreement with China was signed by the four banking groups."—W. W. Willoughby, *Foreign rights and interests in China*, pp. 550-553.—Russia and Japan insisted upon participation in these financial negotiations with the Chinese empire, and their entrance into the consortium was effected, so that the Hukuang loan was finally distributed among the Six Powers. The imperial government began to carry into effect a program for nationalizing the railways of China, under the administration of Sheng Hsuan-huai, minister of communications. His policy was to have the state take over all railways under private

construction, and to have all trunk lines constructed and built by the state. In the same year the revolution broke out in China in the Province of Szechuan, which finally resulted in the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of the republic, and which was taken as a protest against the imperial government's negotiation with foreign governments to finance nationalization of China's railways.—"The agitation was not against railway 'nationalization,' which the most intelligent leaders of Chinese public opinion recognized as desirable, but against the manner in which it was carried into effect. Sheng Kung Pao, the Minister of Communications, upon the signature of the Hukuang Loan Agreement took steps to repurchase the rights of the provincial companies in accordance with the 'nationalization' plan. Incidentally, it is reported on the best authority, he bought up the major portion of some of the provincial bonds, and offered to redeem them at par. He did not acquire control of the Szechuan bonds, and therefore offered only 60 on their face value. Hence the riots."—W. Straight, *Loan negotiations* (*Journal of Race Development*, Apr., 1913).—Under the republican government established in 1911, a railroad commission was formed to make a thorough study of transportation conditions in China. An American expert on transportation problems, Henry Carter Adams, formerly of the United States Interstate Commerce Commission, acted as adviser to this commission, and directed a uniform system of accounting for the Chinese railroads. A consortium of western bankers, modified by the absence of Germany and Russia, negotiated a loan to China in 1920, to take the place of the 1911 Hukuang loan interrupted by the World War. The United States participated in this international contract, following the Washington conference on disarmament in November, 1921, which passed the Root resolution to ensure the maintenance of the 'open door' in China, and the territorial integrity of that nation.—See also CHINA: 1905-1909; 1920: Growth of the railway system; Railroad map; SIBERIA: 1917-1919; WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

ALSO IN: M. J. Bau, *Foreign relations of China*.—T. Bennett, *Americans in Eastern Asia*.—J. W. Jenks, *New financial consortium in China* (*Economic World*, Oct. 16, 1920).—T. W. Lamont, *New consortium in China* (*Eastern Commerce*, May, 1920, pp. 33-34).—J. E. Baker, *China's railway conditions in a nutshell* (*Millard Review*, Nov., 1919).—W. W. Willoughby, *China at the peace conference*.

1906-1920.—Mexico.—Limantour's policy of nationalization of railroads.—Their ruin during revolution.—"One of the most remarkable acts of original and courageous statesmanship in the administration of President Diaz is represented by the great railway merger through which the Mexican Government has protected the Mexican nation against the perils of a railway trust or monopoly such as at one time seemed to threaten even the highly developed, experienced, and hard-headed people of the United States. As the development of railways in Mexico began to approach the present proportions of 15,000 miles, the Diaz administration, always on the alert against influences tending to overshadow or lessen the control of Mexicans in their own affairs, became aware of the fact that one of the mightiest railway systems in the United States . . . was attempting to buy control of the Mexican Central Railway, which was financially embarrassed and likely to be unable to pay the interest on its bonds. There could

be no doubt that this would be the first step in the economic conquest of Mexico by foreigners, a conquest that must eventually invade the domestic politics, and ultimately the government, of the republic. With the great trunk lines in the hands of foreign corporations, and the connecting railways at the mercy of the central monopoly,—the industry and agriculture of Mexico would be in the grip of aliens. Already, in 1903, the government had prevented a merger of the Mexican National and the Mexican Central lines by buying the stock control of the Mexican National. But in 1906 the signs of a proposed conquest of Mexico, through a giant monopoly were again formidable. . . . With the hearty approval of President Díaz, Mr. Limantour [Mexico's brilliant minister of finance], supported by the Congress, prepared a plan through which the nation might be saved from the threatening foreign railway despotism and Mexico kept open and free for both native and foreign investors in agriculture, mining, and manufactures; for it was clear that if a railway trust could hamper and frighten a nation with such courage, energy, and individual powers of resistance as the people of the United States, the engulfing and controlling force of such a combination would be all the more terrible in a partly developed, languid, and easy-going people like the Mexicans. The result of Mr. Limantour's labors was a merger of the following lines, with the stock control in the hands of the Mexican Government: . . . National Railways of Mexico, 6,166,456 miles; Inter-oceanic Railway of Mexico, 733,837 miles; Mexican Southern Railway, 292,043 miles; Texas-Mexican Railway, 161,853 miles; Pan-American Railroad, 284,276 miles; Vera Cruz and Isthmus Railroad, 292,043 miles; total, 7,930,508 miles."—J. Creelman, *Díaz, master of Mexico*, pp. 391-393.—During the revolution of 1910-1920, the Mexican railroads suffered from destruction of property by bandits, and suspension of operation. Rail transportation was paralyzed, though the small lines were privately operated in oil regions, and an attempt was sometimes made to restore government lines.—See also MEXICO: 1898-1900; 1923 (February).

ALSO IN: T. W. Osterheld, *Debt of United States of Mexico and national highways*.—P. H. Middleton, *Railway supplies in Mexico*.—L. J. Bekker, *Plot against Mexico*.—W. F. McCaleb, *Public finances in Mexico*.

1907.—United States.—Regulation of railroads by the states.—"Never in the history of railroad legislation have our transportation systems run counter to a campaign so comprehensive, widespread, and disturbing as the general trend of 'regulation' in almost every State Legislature in session during 1907. . . . Thirty-five States, in all, attempted to enact laws reducing freight or passenger rates, establishing railroad commissions, increasing the powers of existing commissions, regulating car service, demurrage, safety appliances, block signals, free passes, capitalization, liability for accidents to employees, hours of labor, black-listing, strikes, etc. . . . Uniformity was sought without discrimination or foresight. Railroads in densely populated districts and those in sparsely settled rural localities were given alike a two-cent rate. Worse than this: roads of different earning power in the same State were assigned a level rate. The prosperous and well-established road and the struggling pioneer were bracketed,—to sink or swim. But all of their work was not wasted. Real constructive legislation was enacted in many States in regard to corporate control, safety appliances,

block signals, working hours, rights of employees, railroad mergers, valuation, capitalization, publication of rate schedules, etc., while in the States of South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Wisconsin the rate question was given fair and temperate consideration. . . . An analysis of the general results shows that passenger fares were either actually reduced or affected in twenty-one States: Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. Two-cent rates now prevail in Arkansas, Indiana, Illinois, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin; and in Ohio, since 1906; two-and-one-half-cent rates in Alabama and North Dakota. North Carolina has established a two-and-one-quarter-cent rate; West Virginia, a two-cent rate for railroads over fifty miles in length; Iowa, a sliding scale of from two to three cents per mile; Michigan, a two, three, and four-cent rate; Kansas, Maryland, and Mississippi, two-cent rates for mileage books; the railroad commissions of Georgia and South Dakota have been authorized to establish a two-cent and a two-and-one-half-cent rate, respectively; and Oklahoma specifies in its new constitution a maximum charge of two cents for passenger fare. Virginia's Corporation Commission has adopted a two-cent rate for trunk lines, a three-cent rate for minor roads and a three-and-one-half-cent rate on one or two lines. Freight charges were lowered in many States. The Commodity Freight Rate law of Minnesota is probably the most scientific and equitable, and is being used by many Western roads as a basis. Commissions in other States have adopted it as a model. Laws prohibiting free passes were enacted in Alabama, Indiana, Kansas, Maine, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New York, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, and Texas. Eleven States created railroad commissions: Colorado, Indiana, Michigan, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Vermont. Sixteen others gave increased power to existing commissions, apart from rate regulation: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Carolina, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Washington and Wisconsin."—R. E. Iretton, *Legislatures and the railways (Review of Reviews, Aug., 1907)*.

ALSO IN: G. G. Huebner, *Five years of railroad regulation by the states (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, July, 1908)*.—S. Sterne, *Railways in the United States*.

1907-1921.—Great Britain.—Railroad strikes. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1913-1921; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1900-1914; 1911.

1907-1922.—United States.—Investigation of freight classifications.—In 1907 the Uniform Classification Committee, consisting of five representatives of the railroads from different parts of the country began a long series of sessions to investigate the conditions of freight traffic in the United States, and to devise means of simplifying the conflicting classification of freight rates. This committee reported the following conditions: In "1907, the railways of the United States reported a total freight tonnage of 1,796,336,659. This, however, was a greater number of tons than was actually shipped on the railroads, because of the fact that much of the freight was handled by two or more railroads, each of which reported its

entire tonnage. After making the subtractions needed to eliminate duplications, it is found that 977,489,440 tons were actually turned over to the railroads by shippers. . . . To handle this traffic 41,337 freight and switching locomotives and over two million freight cars were used. Over one half (53.39 per cent) of this great volume of traffic was made up of minerals mainly coal and iron ore. In no other country of the world is the mineral traffic so great as in the United States, and as this traffic must be carried at low freight rates, the average earning of the railroads for carrying a ton of freight one mile is less in the United States than elsewhere. Manufacturers make up somewhat more than one seventh of the total tonnage (15.41 per cent), products of the forest include one ninth (11.38 per cent), and agricultural products one twelfth (8.62 per cent). These four commodities include eight ninths of the total traffic, the other one ninth being made up of animal products, general merchandise, and miscellaneous articles. In these few groups of commodities more than ten thousand distinct kinds of articles are included. It is obvious that it would be impossible for the railroads to make a rate for each of the ten thousand articles; hence it is necessary to group the articles into a small number of classes, and to make rates vary with classes instead of by articles. Furthermore, it is desirable that the railroad should give lower rates on commodities when they are shipped in carloads than when they are handled in less than carload quantities. . . . Prior to the passage of the Interstate Commerce Act in 1887, nearly every large railroad had its own classification, but in that year these various classifications were consolidated into three. One of these, the official classification applies in the territory north of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers and east of the Mississippi River. This originally grouped articles into six numbered classes, but these six classes have been raised to fourteen; nominally there are six classes, but their number has really been increased by grouping certain articles as one and a half, twice, or two and a half, etc., first class. South of the Ohio and Potomac, and east of the Mississippi, the southern classification is in force. It groups commodities into fourteen classes. West of the Mississippi the western classification prevails. It groups articles into ten classes. The class to which an article is assigned depends upon the value of the article, the expense of transporting it, the value of the service to the shipper, and many other factors. Inasmuch as the rate which an article pays is determined by the class to which it is assigned, the forces which control rates also control the classification. . . . Not all articles of freight are included within the classification. Coal, live stock, lumber, grain, cement, and many other bulky commodities that are invariably handled in carload quantities are each given what is called a commodity tariff rate. Such commodities are 'ex-class freight.' Taking the country as a whole, the number of commodities thus designated is relatively large—between one thousand and two thousand—but they are less numerous than those within the classification."—E. R. Johnson, *Elements of transportation*, pp. 67-69.—The committee of 1907 found the practice of rate-making under the three systems of classification, according to region, so complex that it recommended a gradual standardizing of freight rates in order to keep business stable. So the three classification systems remained in effect until revised in 1922, under the Transportation Act of 1920.

ALSO IN: W. Z. Ripley, *Railroads, rates and regulations*.—L. G. McPherson, *Railroad freight rates*.—E. R. Johnson and G. G. Huebner, *Railroad traffic and rates*, v. 1.—L. D. Brandeis, *Revenues of mail carriers in official classification territory (Report as counsel for Interstate Commerce Commission, Docket, 5860, 1914)*.—S. O. Dunn, *American transportation question*.—L. F. Loree, *Railroad freight transportation*.—H. T. Newcomb, *Reasonable maximum rates*.—R. McFall, *Railway monopoly and rate regulation*.—W. H. Chanler, *Express service and rates*.—H. Vanderblue and K. F. Burgess, *Railroads, rates, services, management*.

1908-1909.—United States.—Commodity clause of the Hepburn Act applied to anthracite railroads of Pennsylvania.—In May, 1908, the commodity clause of the Hepburn Act became operative (see COMMODITY CLAUSE OF THE HEPBURN ACT), and soon thereafter its constitutionality was challenged by certain Eastern railroads. This famous clause was introduced into the Hepburn Bill, in 1906, by Senator Elkins. Hence it is sometimes known as the "Elkins Clause." With an especial view to dissolving the monopolistic combination by which a group of railroads operating in Pennsylvania had established control over the mining and marketing as well as the transportation of anthracite coal, the clause declared it to be unlawful "for any railroad company to transport from any State to any other State or to any foreign country any article or commodity other than timber manufactured, mined, or produced by it, or under its authority, or which it may own in whole or in part, or in which it may have any interest, direct or indirect, except such articles or commodities as may be necessary and intended for its use in the conduct of its business as a common carrier."

Since 1874 the constitution of Pennsylvania had declared that "no incorporated company doing the business of a common carrier shall, directly or indirectly, prosecute or engage in mining or manufacturing articles for transportation over its works; nor shall such company directly or indirectly engage in any other business than that of common carrier, or hold or acquire lands, freehold or leasehold, directly or indirectly, except such as shall be necessary to carry on its business." But this constitutional prohibition had not sufficed to restrain the owners of the railways which tap the anthracite coal district from acquiring practical ownership of so large a part of its mines as to be able, by combinations and understandings among their managers, to monopolize the market of that most important commodity. It was thought that the power vested in the Federal government to regulate the commerce in coal between Pennsylvania and other states might be brought into exercise against this anthracite monopoly with more effect. In the trial in the United States Circuit Court for the eastern district of Pennsylvania . . . the government met defeat. Two of the three judges of the court, namely Gray and Dallas, filed opinions against the constitutionality of the enactment, their colleague, Judge Buffington, dissenting. The case went then on appeal to the Supreme Court, and there, by a judgment so nearly unanimous that Judge Harlan alone dissented on a single point, the decision of the Circuit Court was reversed and the constitutionality of the law upheld. The following summary of its opinion was given out by the Supreme Court at the time of the announcement, May 3, 1909:

"(1) The claim of the government that the provision contained in the Hepburn act, approved June 29, 1906, commonly called the Commodities Clause, prohibits a railway company from moving commodities in interstate commerce because the company has manufactured, mined, or produced them, or owned them in whole or in part, or has had an interest direct or indirect in them, wholly irrespective of the relation or connection of the carrier with the commodities at the time of transportation, is decided to be untenable. It is also decided that the provision of the commodities clause relating to interest, direct or indirect, does not embrace an interest which a carrier may have in a producing corporation as the result of the ownership by the carrier of stock in such corporation irrespective of the amount of stock which the carrier may own in such corporation, provided the corporation has been organized in good faith.

"(2) Rejecting the construction placed by the government upon the commodities clause, it is decided that that clause, when all its provisions are harmoniously construed, has solely for its object to prevent carriers engaged in interstate commerce from being associated in interest at the time of transportation with the commodities transported, and therefore the commodities clause only prohibits railroad companies engaged in interstate commerce from transporting in such commerce commodities under the following circumstances and conditions: (a) When the commodity has been manufactured, mined, or produced by a railway company, or under its authority, and at the time of transportation the railway company has not in good faith before the act of transportation parted with its interest in such commodity: (b) When the railway company owns the commodity to be transported in whole or in part: (c) When the railway company at the time of transportation has an interest direct or indirect in a legal sense in the commodity, which last prohibition does not apply to commodities manufactured, mined, produced, owned, etc., by a corporation because a railway company is a stockholder in such corporation.

"Such ownership of stock in a producing company by a railway company does not cause it as the owner of the stock to have a legal interest in the commodity manufactured, etc., by the producing corporation.

"(3) As thus construed the commodities clause is a regulation of commerce within the power of Congress to enact. The contentions elaborately argued for the railroad companies that the clause, if applied to preëxisting rights, will operate to take property of railroad companies and therefore violate the due process clause of the Fifth Amendment, were all based upon the assumption that the clause prohibited and restricted in accordance with the construction which the government gave that clause, and for the purpose of enforcing which prohibitions these suits were brought. As the construction which the government placed upon the act and seeks to enforce is now held to be unsound, and as none of the contentions relied upon are applicable to the act as now construed, because under such construction the act merely enforces a regulation of commerce by which carriers are compelled to dissociate themselves from the products which they carry and does not prohibit where the carrier is not associated with the commodity carried, it follows that the contentions on the subject of the Fifth Amendment are without merit.

"(4) The exemption as to timber, etc., contained in the clause is not repugnant to the Constitution." Six railway companies, namely, the Delaware and Hudson, the Erie, the Central of New Jersey, the Lackawanna, the Pennsylvania and the Lehigh Valley, were involved in the test suit on which this decision was given; but the ruling affected all roads engaged in coal mining. Justice Harlan dissented from that part of the decision which relates to the ownership of stock in a producing company; otherwise the opinion, announced by Justice White, was the opinion of the entire Bench. ALSO IN: T. W. Kibler, *Commodities clause*.

1908-1918.—Australasian colonies.—Railroads as state enterprises in Australia.—Rapid extension of roads.—Transcontinental line.—"The most conspicuous instance of railways being constructed by the state because private enterprise refused to undertake the task, is to be found in the Australasian colonies of Great Britain. . . . Speaking broadly, the seven separate States which make up . . . Australasia have among them [1920] over 20,000 miles of railway owned and worked by the respective governments."—W. M. Acworth, *Historical sketch of government ownership of railroads in foreign countries*, p. 20.—The growth toward this mileage has been rapid. "At the end of 1908 New South Wales was first in mileage with 3472 miles, followed by Victoria, 3401 miles, Queensland 3359 miles, South Australia, 1279 miles, and West Australia, 1830 miles, but in 1912 Queensland was at the head of the list with 4143 miles, New South Wales, 3799 miles, Victoria, 3543 miles, South Australia, 1460 miles, and West Australia, 2471 miles. The figures show that Queensland and West Australia are building more rapidly than the older colonies of New South Wales and Victoria. Queensland's increased mileage comes chiefly in the construction of two entirely new lines, one of 454 miles along the coast, and one of 1200 miles across the Western portion of the colony. . . . With the rapid development of the Australian colonies, in recent years came the desire to link up the railways of the eastern side of the continent with those of West Australia. . . . Western Australia in particular had long desired connection with the chief centers in the east, but unaided, was unable to finance so great a scheme."—E. Protheroe, *Railways of the world*, pp. 718, 723.—In 1912 surveyors inspected and reported on a route from Perth to Brisbane. Work on one section was begun at once, but the war delayed construction and the entire line was not finished until in the latter part of 1917. "For the first time through railroad connection from the east to west of the island continent was an accomplished fact. To-day it is possible to travel by rail from Perth, the capital of western Australia, right away to Brisbane, Queensland's leading city, passing en route through Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney, a route joining up the capitals of the five states of the commonwealth, representing a total journey of 3,895 miles. . . . The work has occupied five years and demanded an expenditure of \$35,000,000. . . . The railroad . . . [reduces] the time of the journey from Perth to Melbourne from five to two days, and . . . [brings] the eastern cities of the island continent much nearer the mother country, for it is proposed to convey the mails by the new route and not by boat as hitherto. Incidentally, too, it brings western Australia's capital nearer the United States."—*Scientific American*, Mar. 9, 1923, pp. 221-223.—See also AUSTRALIA: 1907-1920; WESTERN AUSTRALIA: 1913.

ALSO IN: V. S. Clark, *Australian railways* (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, v. 22, pp. 399-451).

1909-1910.—France.—Purchase of Great Western railroad.—Strikes.—Social insurance legislation. See FRANCE: 1906-1909: Presidency of Armand Fallières; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1906-1910; SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: France: 1909.

1910-1916.—United States.—Commerce court created by Mann-Elkins Act.—Bureau of valuation.—Increase of powers of Interstate Commerce Commission.—“The Mann-Elkins Act of June 18, 1910, . . . turned out to be a very important piece of legislation. [See U.S.A.: 1910 (March-June).] Its provisions were directed mainly to two ends: expedient appeals from the Interstate Commerce Commission, and increasing the Commission's powers. The congestion and delay in appeal proceedings called for remedy. At the President's suggestion, the law provided a new tribunal, composed of five circuit judges selected by the Chief Justice, and known as the Commerce Court. This court was to sit continuously at Washington for the purpose of hearing appeals from the rules and acts of the Commission. Appeals from its judgments might be carried to the Supreme Court, with precedence over all save criminal cases. The powers of the Commission were increased in several ways. (1) Jurisdiction was extended to interstate and foreign telegraph (including wireless), telephone, and cable companies, and the term ‘railroad’ was broadened to include appurtenant bridges and ferries. (2) The Commission was authorized to suspend newly announced tariffs for a period of from four to ten months, pending investigation. (3) It was empowered to proceed against a carrier at any time, and on its own initiative. (4) The ‘long and short haul’ clause was revived in full vigor. The original bill forbade issues of railway stocks and bonds unless approved by the Commission. In the Senate this was stricken out, and the measure as passed merely authorized the President to appoint a commission to investigate the subject and report upon it. Under the terms of the new law the Commerce Court was organized in December, 1920, with Martin A. Knapp, former chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, as presiding judge. The tribunal never gained popular confidence, and in 1912 Congress in effect abolished it by cutting off its appropriation. This action was perhaps influenced by the impeachment and removal, in 1912, of a member of the court, Robert W. Archbald, on the charge of using his position to enhance his personal fortunes. The remaining members of the court were continued as ordinary circuit judges; and appeals from the acts and rulings of the Commission were thereafter lodged with the federal circuit courts of appeal throughout the country, as before 1910. The promising idea of a central court of review was thus abandoned. Physical valuation as a basis for rate-making had long been growing in favor. Beginning with Texas in 1893, more than a dozen states passed laws on the subject; and while in most cases the main object was taxation, the effect on rate-making was always kept in mind. When the Hepburn bill was before Congress, Senator La Follette urged nation-wide valuation; and a valuation clause narrowly escaped insertion in the Mann-Elkins law. The Interstate Commerce Commission favored the plan, and the special Securities Commission, in a report of November 1, 1911, supplied fresh impetus. A Valuation Act

was signed by President Taft March 1, 1913, making it the duty of the Interstate Commerce Commission to ‘investigate, ascertain, and report in detail,’ within five years, the original cost to date, the cost of reproduction new, and the cost of reproduction, less depreciation, of every piece of property owned or used by common carriers subject to the Interstate Commerce Act. The Commission organized a Division of Valuation, and appointed a staff of engineers to take charge of the inventory in each of five great sections of the country; the railroads set up a bureau to co-operate; appraisals began in 1914; and the first tentative reports appeared in 1916. Judicial decisions after the passage of the Hepburn Act tended to exalt the regulative power of the federal government and of its agents, the Interstate Commerce Commission. In the Minnesota Rate Cases, decided June 9, 1913, the Supreme Court took new ground in asserting that state regulation of interstate rates was exclusive only until Congress acted, and that Congress might regulate such rates as against state control whenever it wished, for the reason that intrastate rates indirectly determined interstate rates. In the Texas-Shreveport Case, decided June 8, 1914, the court held not only that the federal government could regulate intrastate rates, but that the Interstate Commerce Commission already had the necessary authority. The Minnesota cases were primarily a test of the rate-making powers of the states; and the court ruled that the states had full power to fix rates on railroad traffic within their borders, except where the use of such power would interfere directly with the regulation of commerce beyond their borders, or amount to confiscation. This was a disappointment to the railroads, which within ten years had developed a preference for federal, as against state, rate-making control; yet there was promise of relief in the new reaches of the federal authority. Other decisions specially fortified the Interstate Commerce Commission. In *Interstate Commerce Commission vs. Illinois Central Railroad*, decided January 10, 1910, the Supreme Court fully discussed judicial review and made clear its purpose to hold the acts of the Commission subject to judicial authority. But it announced that review on grounds of reasonableness would be applied only when the Commission's acts were regarded as so unreasonable as to violate a constitutional provision, or to be confiscatory ‘beyond any just or fair doubt.’ The court asserted that it would not pronounce illegal an order or a statute merely because it considered such order or statute unwise or inexpedient; in short, it disclaimed intent to encroach upon the Commission's administrative functions. Furthermore, in *United States and Interstate Commerce Commission vs. Kansas City Southern Railway*, decided December 1, 1913, the Supreme Court affirmed in sweeping language the power of the Commission to regulate not only rates, but the internal administration of railroad companies.”—F. A. Ogg, *National progress*, pp. 52-57.

ALSO IN: F. H. Dixon, *Railroads and government*.—A. W. Lane and L. H. Wall, ed., *Letters of Franklin K. Lane*.

1910-1920.—Germany.—Modern railroads.—Great extent of mileage.—Nationalization.—Financial effect of nationalization.—“In 1910 Germany possessed greater railway mileage than that of any other country in Europe. Of the 37,586 miles only about 2700 miles were worked by private companies. The Prussian state rail-

ways continued to exemplify the best features of railway operation in Germany. All the German state railroads were nationalized on April 1, 1920, at a fixed valuation. The several states were permitted to decide whether the purchase price should be determined by the capital invested or the arithmetical mean between the invested capital and the earning capacity plus any deficits on the state railroads since 1914. The financial effect of the transfer of the state roads to the nation was unfavorable. No time limit . . . [was] fixed for the transfer of the private railroads acting as common carriers. Railroads of the third-class and street railways . . . [were to] remain the property of the several states. These enterprises . . . [were] affected most by the social and economic revolutions in Germany. Many private roads . . . [were] in danger of bankruptcy and financial collapse."—M. von Völker, *German transportation and communication* (tr. by E. M. Fogel, *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Nov., 1920).—See also GERMANY: Map.

ALSO IN: W. H. Edwards, *Die Reichseisenbahnfrage*.

1912-1914.—United States.—Steamship and railroad lines severed.—Volume of freight traffic.—On August 16, 1912, Congress passed a bill empowering the Interstate Commerce Commission to sever the connections of steamship lines owned or operated by railroads, where competition existed between such carriers "through the Panama canal or elsewhere." This section of the Panama canal tolls legislation became effective in July, 1914. In that same year it was estimated that the freight business of the United States had reached the proportion where the railroads of the country were hauling annually twelve tons for every man, woman, and child in the United States, making an annual freight bill for every individual of about \$22.50.

ALSO IN: S. Daggett, *Panama canal and the railroads* (*Journal of Political Economy*, v. 23, p. 953).

1912-1915.—United States.—Flagler's "oversea railroad" to Key West.—The opening of Mr. H. M. Flagler's "oversea railroad" to Key West on January 22, 1912, marked the achievement of the apparently impossible and brought Cuba several hours nearer the United States. The official title of this unique piece of railroad construction is the Key West Extension of the Florida East Coast railway. The February (1912) Bulletin of the Pan American Union states briefly the details of the work, from which it is learned that "all construction work of the ordinary railroad kind had to be abandoned, new methods and new principles had to be introduced, and a unique system had to be devised before accomplishment was assured." This new system involved "the erection of the track on stone arches whose foundations were the bed of the sea, and the continuance of that substantial trestle-work into the open ocean, at one place even out of sight of land." The entire extension from Homestead, a point twenty-eight miles south of Miami, is 156 miles in length and its approximate cost was \$18,000,000. Key West has by this construction become the railroad terminus nearer to Panama than any other American port. In 1915 the final link was completed in the system that will enable a freight-car loaded in any part of the United States to be unpacked in Havana. A ferry-steamer, especially designed and constructed, receives cars at Key West and after a hundred-mile ocean trip lands

them at Havana on the Cuban railway system.—See also FLORIDA: 1885-1915.

ALSO IN: R. M. Harper, *Completion of the railroad across Florida Keys* (*Bulletin of the American Geographical Society*, v. 44, no. 1, 1912).

1912-1922.—South America.—Need of railroads to develop its resources.—Pan-American railroad projected.—Though considerable railroad construction was undertaken by the republics of South America during the decade of 1912 to 1922, there was still an amazing lack of rail transportation on the continent, which must be supplied before the immense resources of the country can be utilized. "Venezuela, Colombia and Ecuador, although their combined area is equal to one-third of the area of the United States, have between them less than 1,500 miles of railways, and yet these republics have vast resources of almost every description. . . . Peru, lying directly south of Ecuador, has a coast line which equals the distance from Maine to Georgia. Its arid coastal lands, a short time ago looked upon as almost a worthless desert, have been found to contain oil and petroleum in paying quantities. . . . No great distance inland from . . . [the large port of] Chimbote], an extensive coal deposit has been found; into these coal fields a railroad could readily be built, there being but one real engineering difficulty along the route. Although the mines of Peru have been worked since before the days of Julius Caesar, there are still vast quantities of minerals on the plateaus and slopes of the Andes. Inducements are being offered to promote more railway construction, so that the country may be further opened up. . . . Better railway facilities than in the past, and the actions and enterprise of an enlightened government, are placing the wealth of this vast yet thinly settled republic within reach of foreign markets. . . . Chile, extending as it does from the boundaries with Peru to stormy Cape Horn, has a coastline equal in length to the distance from St. John's, Newfoundland, to the northern boundary of Brazil. . . . Its greatest wealth is in its nitrate fields, although copper, iron and other minerals abound. The Tofo iron mines, about to be developed by the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, contain, it is estimated, upward of 185,000,000 tons of 60 per cent. ore, which, it is stated, can be placed aboard ship at a cost of less than 20 cents a ton. The Republic of Argentina stands today foremost among the South American countries. Although it is by far the best developed of the ten Republics and boasts of a larger foreign trade than the Empire of China, more capital will be needed from year to year to build new railways. . . . Uruguay, which is and which likely will continue to be, primarily a cattle country, wants meat product factories and refrigerating plants, and will doubtless need additional railway lines in the future. Paraguay, heretofore, spoken of as a country behind the age, has fully awakened to its possibilities and in consequence is beginning to move forward by leaps and bounds. The Republic, tiny as it looks on the map, is larger than California and Ohio combined. It has direct rail and river communication with Buenos Ayres and will soon be connected by rail with the Brazilian seacoast. . . . Brazil, . . . the largest Republic in South America, . . . is, in fact, larger than the United States, excluding Alaska. The great wealth of Brazil, at present developed, lies in two products, coffee and rubber; five-sixths of the nation's exports being made up of those two commodities. [Yet her railway facilities are quite inadequate.]

... One enterprise which will involve the continent as a whole and which is still more or less a dream of the future has for a long time attracted attention. The so-called Pan-American Railway is projected to form an all rail route from New York to Buenos Ayres. At the present time a number of sections of this future through line are in operation or under construction. These sections are of such a variety of gauges, however, as to be practically useless for the purpose of through communication. The completion of this line will place New York within a little more than two weeks' journey of Argentina;—it is questionable, however, if many persons will have the endurance to make the trip. The route proposed passes through the United States, Mexico, Central America, Panama, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia and Argentine. If this railway, or rather combination of railways, serves no other purpose, it will at least do much to foster Pan-Americanism."—F. M. Halsey, *Railway expansion in Latin America*, pp. 153-157.—See also PAN-AMERICAN RAILWAYS; AMAZON RIVER: Its course; AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902; ARGENTINA: Railroads; BOLIVIA: 1913 (May); 1919; ECUADOR: 1921; CENTRAL AMERICA: Map.

ALSO IN: M. Wilcox, *Encyclopedia of Latin America*.—J. Warshaw, *New Latin America*.

1914-1918.—Great Britain.—War administration of railways.—Efficiency of service.—Problems of traffic.—Financial conditions of roads.—"A series of parliamentary acts, extending from 1842 to 1888, had laid the foundation for the governmental authority under which the railways [of England] were taken over in 1914. . . . The requirement thus laid upon the British government by law was met . . . by means of a mutual agreement between the government and the railways, the principal features of which were as follows: 1. It was agreed by the railways that their organization should be placed without reserve at the disposal of the military authorities, for the transportation of troops, guns and munitions, military equipment and supplies, when, where, and under whatever conditions needed. For purposes of military transportation any railway or group of railways would virtually be commandeered for exclusive military service whenever the occasion demanded, all other traffic being sidetracked or restricted until the exigency has passed. 2. It was mutually agreed that no money would pass from the government treasury into that of any railway for any specific movement of troops or supplies. 3. The government treasury agreed to pay to each railway, at certain periodic intervals, such sums of money as would bring its net income for the period to the level of the last corresponding period before the outbreak of the war. . . . If a railway should suffer a deficit, . . . the government agreed not only to pay over such amount of money as would make up the deficit, but also to add enough to its payment to place the road in the same relative condition (as regards net income) as before the war. Conversely, if any railway should be so favorably situated . . . as to earn more than its normal net income, it would be required to turn the excess into the treasury. 4. It was agreed that the normal net income for each road would be considered as the net income actually earned during the calendar year ended December 31, 1913, which was the last full year under peace conditions. . . . However, there was at first one important qualification. It was mutually agreed that if the net income of any railway for the first seven months of the

calendar year 1914 (January to July, inclusive) showed increases or decreases as compared with the net income of the corresponding seven months of 1913, the payments of the government to that railway for the last five months of the year (August to December, 1914), would be such as to bring the net income of those months relatively as much above or below the net income of the corresponding five months of 1913 as the normal seven months' net income of 1914 was above or below the net income of 1913. This qualification was discarded after January 1, 1915, and 1913 became in fact the yardstick, or test year . . . [a year that was a record breaker for the British railways]. The first great test was the hasty mobilization of the Expeditionary Force for passage to France in August, 1914. . . . Under the mobilization schedules prepared years before the war, trains were operated at fixed intervals and came into Southampton every 12 minutes for 16 hours of every day, or from dawn until dark. The regulations provided that if a train were over 12 minutes late, it should lose its turn on the schedule and should be sidetracked until the whole troop movement was completed. Not a single train lost its turn. In fact, most of the trains arrived at Southampton from 20 to 30 minutes ahead of schedule. This one movement of the first Expeditionary Force called for 1,500 trains. . . . [The] military transportation work [of the railways] throughout the whole war . . . [was] of the same high order. They contributed thousands to the colors, many of whom served in France in the construction, reconstruction, or operation of war railways. They loaned equipment to be shipped cross-channel, and contributed bridges and even rails and ties from out their own roadbeds. In fact whole branch lines were in some cases torn up and transported bodily to France. They loaned skilled men to munitions works and other branches of war industry. Skilled boiler makers from some of the railway shops were detailed to service in naval dockyards. Many of their docks and harbors, and half of their 200 and more steamers were turned over to the Admiralty and the War Office for transport or other services. Companies undertook car building and repairing in their own car shops for the Admiralty and the War Office, the result being that the building of new equipment for railway purposes was materially curtailed. Normal repair work was greater than usual, owing to the pressure of war traffic on the equipment; in addition, the roads were called upon to adapt much of their rolling stock to the unusual demands of war transportation, such as by the adaptation of freight cars to carry horses, cavalry, artillery equipment, and the like. Some roads supplied telephones and power, others handled naval repairs in their marine shops, while still others undertook various forms of work for the government, entirely separate from their transportation activities. Many of the large roads fitted up ambulance and hospital trains for service both in France and England, stretcher cars, hospital ships, rest rooms for soldiers and other conveniences of the kind; the larger part of this work was done in their own shops. . . . What the government paid the railways was from five to ten per cent of what might be regarded as their normal revenues under conditions of peace. Whether the government traffic represented a greater proportion of total railway traffic than five to ten per cent, records do not show; but in view of the tremendous movement of government munitions and supplies and of troops, it would seem unques-

tionable that such movement has represented a much greater share of the total railway movement than ten, or possibly even twenty or thirty per cent. Differently stated, this seems to indicate that the British government has been enjoying an unusually low rate on the transportation business it has furnished to the railways, and that it drove a good bargain, even on the basis of the peak year 1913. . . . Railway stocks . . . [fell] considerably in market value, even in the face of fairly well maintained dividends. Whether the same phenomenon would have occurred under a different arrangement, or would have occurred to the same extent is a moot question, but one hardly worth discussing. It is safe to assume that under any conditions of operation the railways could hardly have competed with other industries that were making tremendous war profits. The same competition was going on simultaneously in the United States between the railways and other industries, and in all cases the railways failed to be successful in earning the same rates on investment as industry in general, or in securing capital on the same terms as war favored industries. Yet it is not unlikely that the fall in prices of British railway stocks reflected the uneasiness of the investing public as to the future of the railways." —F. H. Dixon and J. H. Parmelee, *War administration of the United States and Great Britain*, pp. 83-86.

ALSO IN: E. Pratt, *British railways and the Great War*.

1914-1920.—Alaska.—Federal railroad authorized.—Transportation problems. See ALASKA: 1914; 1919-1920; INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF THE, UNITED STATES.

1914-1920.—Africa.—Development.—New projects. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914; Summary of European occupation: Modern railway and industrial development; 1914-1920; BELGIAN CONGO: 1914-1916; SOUTHWEST AFRICA, PROTECTORATE OF: 1914; SUDAN: 1914; TANGANYIKA TERRITORY; TOGO LAND; UGANDA: Uganda railway.

1914-1921.—Turkey and Arabia.—Provisions of Treaty of Sèvres.—Extent. See TURKEY: 1914; Map of Asia Minor; CONSTANTINOPLE: Map of the Dardanelles, etc.; SEVRES, TREATY OF (1920): Part XI: Ports, etc.: Railways; ARABIA: 1916.

1916.—United States.—Adamson law.—The Adamson eight-hour day law, enacted, September, 1916, was recommended to Congress by President Wilson during the strike crisis of that year. By this piece of Federal legislation, the eight hour day for work and wages of railway employees engaged in interstate or foreign commerce was established. —See also ADAMSON LAW; ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1888-1921; SUPREME COURT: 1917; U.S.A.: 1916 (August-September).

1916-1920.—United States.—Federal control of railroads during World War.—Railroads' War Board.—Director-general of railroads.—Policy and organization.—War time coöperation.—Conditions after armistice.—"In the Army Appropriation Act of August 29, 1916, was contained a provision to establish a Council of National Defense 'for the coördination of industries and resources for the national security and welfare.' This act directed the Council of National Defense, which consisted of six cabinet officers, to nominate, and the President to appoint 'an Advisory Commission consisting of not more than seven persons, each of whom shall have special knowledge of some industry, public utility, or the de-

velopment of some natural resource, or be otherwise specially qualified' for the performance of duties assigned by the commission. The duties of the Council, which were specifically mentioned in the act, were numerous and of large significance in the great campaign of preparedness upon which the country was entering. The first of these prescribed duties was 'the location of railroads with reference to the frontier of the United States so as to render possible expeditious concentration of troops and supplies to points of defense; the coördination of military, industrial and commercial purposes in the location of extensive highways and branch lines of railroad; the utilization of waterways.' As the transportation expert who should be responsible for the development and use of railway facilities, the President appointed Daniel Willard, President of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and he was made chairman of the Committee on Transportation and Communication, and later chairman of the Advisory Commission. Upon the initiative of Mr. Willard, the executive committee of the American Railway Association met on February 16, 1917, and elaborated plans for the more complete coöperation of railways in the scheme of national defense."—F. H. Dixon and J. H. Parmelee, *War administration of the railways in the United States and Great Britain*, p. 17.—The railroad authorities "in turn created an Executive Committee of five presidents of leading railroads: Fairfax Harrison, President of the Southern Railroad; Samuel Rea, President of the Pennsylvania Railroad; Julius Kruttschnitt, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Southern Pacific Railroad; Hale Holden, President of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad; and Howard Elliott, President of the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad. Mr. Willard, as Chairman of the Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defense and of its Committee on Transportation and Communication, was requested to act with this Committee as an *ex officio* member, and the Interstate Commerce Commission was invited to designate one of its members to act in a like capacity. This Executive Committee was popularly known as the Railroads' War Board. It is important to note that although it worked in close coöperation with the Council of National Defense and by many was mistakenly considered as one of the subordinate units of that organization, it was a committee constituted by and representing the railroads and not the Government. This Committee opened headquarters at Washington and organized a large staff, the entire expenses of which were defrayed by the railroads. The members of the Committee themselves gave practically their entire time to the work of the Committee without remuneration from the Government. There can be no question regarding the loyal and effective work done by this Committee. In scores of ways it took action looking to the more effective utilization of cars and railway facilities generally, the reduction in the number of trains, the reciprocal use by the roads of each other's tracks and terminals."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 170-171.—In May, 1917, the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission were increased by the passage of the Esch Car Service Act giving the commission control over the movement, distribution, exchange, interchange, and return of cars, a necessary expansion of its authority to meet the war conditions of traffic. "In view of the fact therefore that [the] important service in

the war for the year 1917, at least, was to consist in an adequate output and an efficient distribution of food supplies and raw materials of manufacture, quite as much as a prompt handling of military traffic, some additional power in the hands of the Executive seemed urgently needed. Accordingly, on August 10, 1917, Congress passed the Priority Law, under which the President was authorized during the continuance of the war to direct that carriers, whether by rail, water or otherwise, shall give preference in transportation to such traffic as in his judgment is essential to the national defense. He may issue his orders direct or through such person as he may designate for the purpose, or through the Interstate Commerce Commission. . . . Robert S. Lovett, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Union Pacific Railroad, was appointed by the President August 18 as Director of Priority Shipments, . . . [and was later] made chairman of the so called Priority Board, which has broader functions than those relating to transportation merely. With Judge Lovett's approval, it was arranged that the Railroads' War Board should accept orders on behalf of all carriers. The railways individually signed an agreement authorizing the War Board to accept service, and pledging themselves to consider such orders as legal and binding upon them. . . . On October 6, the War Board announced that the railways had moved to date approximately 720,000 soldiers from their homes to training camps or embarkation points. All but 32,500 men in the first five per cent of the National Army required special train service, involving 13,500 passenger cars, including 1,500 Pullman and tourist sleepers, 2,000 baggage cars, and 4,500 freight cars. In the handling of materials for camp construction, the railways . . . [showed] the same efficiency. Within thirty days from the date that the government placed its first order for cantonment materials, the railways had delivered more than 12,000 carloads of lumber and other building materials to the sixteen cantonments, and they had built many miles of extra trackage at their own expense for the local handling of government freight. Shipments of food and materials . . . [continued] uninterruptedly, the number of cars of material of all kinds arriving at army camps having reached on December 1, 1917, a total of 128,350."—F. H. Dixon and J. H. Parmelee, *War administration of the railways in the United States and Great Britain*, pp. 42-51.—The federalization of the railroads took place December 28, 1917, when President Wilson, under the authority granted him by the Army Appropriations Act of August 29, 1916, took possession of the railroads of the United States, and appointed as their director-general, William G. McAdoo, secretary of the treasury. Complete control of railroads by the government came as a war measure, and was aimed to meet the acute labor situation, and the difficulties of unified administration under the Railroad War Board. The Federal Control Act was passed by Congress on March 21, 1918, as the necessary legislation to sanction the action of the President. A feature of the Federal Control Act "was that providing for what was designated as a Revolving Fund. This Fund was created in the first instance by the appropriation of \$500,000,000. To this Fund would be also carried any funds available from any operating income of any road. From the moneys thus accumulated the Railroad Administration was directed to pay the expenses of Fed-

eral control and the compensation to roads agreed upon in so far as such payments could not be made from the income of the roads themselves; to provide additional terminals, rolling stock, and other equipment; to make advances to roads with which to make such capital expenditures at such a rate of interest and subject to such conditions of repayment as the President might fix; and to purchase securities issued by the roads as authorized by the President for the purpose of meeting these obligations. Express authorization was also given for the utilization of this Fund for the operation of canals or for the purchase, construction, or use and operation of boats, barges, and other transportation agencies on the inland canal and coastwise waterways. Finally, the Act authorized the President during the period of Federal control to initiate rates, classifications, regulations, and practices by filing the same with the Interstate Commerce Commission, which rates, regulations, and practices should immediately enter into force and continue until modified or set aside by the Interstate Commerce Commission after a full hearing. In reaching its decisions the Interstate Commerce Commission was directed to give due consideration to the fact that the roads were being operated under a unified and coordinated national control and not as competing units. The Act, however, further provided that if the President certified to the Commission that such changes in rates, classifications, regulations, and practices were necessary in order to provide the operating revenues necessary to meet expenses of operation and other obligations, the Commission, in determining the reasonableness of such rates, classifications, etc., should take into consideration such certification of the President and such recommendation in relation thereto as he might make."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 178-179.—"But, with all the emphasis placed upon matters of finance and their effect upon the pressing problems of enlargement, upon labor unrest, and upon the coordination of facilities, other reasons were in the background. One of the great obstacles to complete coordination of facilities under voluntary agreement among the railroads was law-made rather than railroad-made. The things which the United States Railroad Administration at once set about to do were the very things that the railroads as private corporations were forbidden to do by the anti-trust and anti-pooling laws. What the Railroads' War Board had done in voluntary unification was directly contrary to those laws, and the executives knew that they might be held personally liable. There were no informal 'understandings' that under the emergency conditions the Department of Justice would overlook the situation. On the contrary, there were positive indications by official inquiries that the Attorney General was keeping himself informed of every move. The laws obliged railroads to compete; they prohibited the pooling of facilities and earnings. Under the war conditions the maximum of transportation production depended to a large extent upon effective coordination, which required the pooling of resources. This phase of the situation undoubtedly had weight in the government's decision to take over the railroads. The President's proclamation of December 26, 1917 directed Mr. McAdoo, as Director General of Railroads, to take possession of and control, operate, and utilize 'each and every system of transportation and appurtenances thereof,' and to perform the duties im-

posed upon him through the boards of directors, receivers, officers, and employees of said systems of transportation. 'Until and except so far as said director shall from time to time by general or special orders otherwise provide, the boards of directors, receivers, officers, and employees of the various transportation systems shall continue the operation thereof in the usual and ordinary course of the business of common carriers, in the names of their respective companies.' The Director General's first general order . . . directed that 'all officers, agents, and employees . . . may continue in the performance of their present regular duties, reporting to the same officers as heretofore and on the same terms of employment.' Under this order the president of a railroad company acted as agent of the Director General and at the same time continued as the chief executive of the corporation—a form of organization which was continued until after the passage of the Federal Control Act, approved March 21, 1918. That Act provided the terms of compensation to the corporations and otherwise established the relations between the Director General as the lessee of the railroads and the individual companies as lessors. Immediately after the passage of the Control Act an attempt was made to draw a fairly sharp line between railroad activities which were purely corporate and those which were federal. For example, on March 30, 1918, Circular No. 17 outlined a policy under which the salaries and expenses of officers and employees engaged primarily in work for the corporation would be paid from corporate funds if the corporation desired to continue their services, and under which the government would pay the salaries and expenses of such officers and employees only as were necessary for the federal operation of railroads. This circular was aimed at such corporate officers as chairmen of the Board, general counsel, and executive financial officers such as the New York corporate organizations of western and southern railroads. This action was followed on May 21 by a fundamental change in organization. Instead of continuing the chief executive of a railroad company as the agent of the government, the Director General ordered that there should be a distinct cleavage between federal and corporate activities. To that end he required that a federal manager, to act for the Director General, should be appointed for each railroad or for each group of railroads in the cases where some of the small roads were operated as parts of larger systems. Federal managers were obliged to sever all connection with the railroad companies. They were to represent the government exclusively. In most cases the president or the operating vice president was chosen as federal manager. Thereafter there were two sets of officers and employees. The first, the federal organization, included as its principal officers a federal manager (on a few of the larger systems there was also a general manager), a federal auditor, a federal treasurer, a federal counsel, and other officers necessary under governmental operation. The second set of officers looked out for corporate interests and consisted of a president, secretary, corporate auditor, corporate treasurer, and others necessary to serve the interests of the company while the roads were under federal control. This action, designed to remove the possibility of conflict of interest and of loss to the government by the former plan of dual responsibility, was precipitated by a few cases in which the Director General did not receive the

measure of support which he believed was necessary. In announcing the new policy Mr. McAdoo said: 'Inasmuch as "no man can serve two masters," and the efficient operation of the railroads for winning the war and the service to the public is the purpose of federal control, it was manifestly wise to release the presidents and other officers of the railroad companies, with whose corporate interest they are properly concerned, from all responsibility for the operation of their properties. . . . All ambiguity of obligation is thus avoided. Officers of the corporation are left free to protect the interests of their owners, stockholders, and creditors, and the regional and operating managers have a direct and undivided responsibility and allegiance to the United States Railroad Administration.' Mr. McAdoo asserted that the government saved large sums by the change and much publicity was given to the 'fancy salaries' paid railroad presidents and others who were by this action transferred to the corporate pay rolls and paid from corporate funds, or who, as federal managers, were paid lower salaries. The majority of the officers who accepted the higher positions in the regional and central organizations received smaller salaries than they had received as officers of railroad companies, but the number was not as large among federal managers. A very few of them were benefited financially. With this change in the relations between the Director General and the companies, the organization of the United States Railroad Administration assumed the form which continued without substantial alteration during the entire period of federal control. The unit of organization was the federal manager of a road or a small group of roads. The country was divided into seven regions—Eastern, Allegheny, Pocahontas, Southern, Northwestern, Central Western, and Southwestern. Each region was in charge of a regional director, assisted in some cases by district directors. The regional directors had control over all activities within their respective regions, but in functional matters their work was coordinated by the several directors of the central administration. . . . In theory the regional directors, controlling the several federal managers, were intended to be supreme in their respective regions, and were to be responsible directly to the Director General. It was the intention that the central organization should work through the regional directors. In practice, however, there was much 'short-cutting' between officers of the central administration and the federal managers, federal auditors, federal treasurers, and other officers subordinate to federal managers. There was some feeling on the part of the regional directors that they should not be held responsible for actions over which they had no direct control. Yet on the whole, considering the size of the organization and the lack of time in which to work out and publish a *Manual of Organization* with a clear definition of authority and responsibility, the confusion was relatively small. Inasmuch as the motives of practically every one in the official organization were in harmony with the controlling desire to operate the railroads at the highest pitch of efficiency for war purposes, it was just as well that the order of procedure was not so bound up by rigid rules as to substitute army 'red tape' for a reasonable degree of personal initiative in short-cutting where the circumstances justified."—W. J. Cunningham, *Railroads under government operation* (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Feb., 1921).—"A feature

of this system of Federal administration of national transportation agencies deserving special mention is that it embraced navigable waterways as well as railroads. One of the serious defects in our internal transportation system has been the failure to correlate these two agencies of transportation. This failure the Railroad Administration sought to correct by the development of means of water transportation and by providing for their utilization alone or in connection with the railroads. On February 16, 1918, the Director-General appointed an Inland Waterways Committee, headed by Major-General W. M. Black to consider the whole problem of the development and more effective utilization of the waterways of the country. On April 11, 1918, the President issued a proclamation taking over the four principal Atlantic coastwise steamship lines and placing their operation under the Railroad Administration. By this action the Railroad Administration was placed in a position in which it could route freight either by rail or water as the exigencies of the situation might render advisable. A few days later the Railroad Administration announced its intention of constructing and operating barges on the Erie Canal. On July 22, 1918, the President by proclamation took over and placed under the Railroad Administration the Cape Cod Canal. Another important act of the Railroad Administration was the consolidation and unification of the express business of the country. As a first step in this direction the Director-General in May, 1918, authorized the four leading express companies, the Adams, American, Wells Fargo, and Southern, to effect a consolidation under the name of the American Railway Express Company. This done, he entered into a contract with this new Company to handle for the Railroad Administration all of its express business. On November 16, 1918, the President by proclamation took over this Company and placed it under the direct administration of the Railroad Administration. The Pullman Company had previously been taken over. The result of these several steps was to bring under a central control practically all of the internal transportation agencies of the country."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 180-181.—The port of New York is an example of the radical policy at times followed by the war administration in the interests of transportation. "Railroads formerly furnished free lighterage to all parts of the harbor and included the cost in the line haul charge. The Federal Railroad Administration changed this and ordered separate charges to be made for lighterage service. This change has brought to the front the necessity of substituting direct rail connection for the outworn plans used in New York harbor ever since the days of sailing vessels."—*Mechanical devices for up-to-date ports* (Americas, Mar., 1919).—"Important economies . . . [were] realized in the consolidation of ticket offices in the larger cities; the elimination of passenger- and freight-soliciting agents; the reduction of advertising expenses; the discontinuance of insurance through private companies; the reduction of unnecessary trains; the common use of terminal facilities, cars, and other facilities; the standardization of locomotives and equipment; the routing of freight so that commodities may be forwarded by the shortest route or those best situated to handle the business; the reduction of salaries; and in scores of other ways too numerous to mention. Immense service . . . [was] ren-

dered in directing capital expenditures. Instead of each road considering its own interests alone, the interests of the country as a whole . . . [were] given first place. The Revolving Fund . . . enabled the Government to make advances for the improvements most urgently needed. . . . Notwithstanding the great increase in rates, the roads under Government operation . . . far from earned the money necessary to pay the compensation due them under the terms of the agreements entered into between them and the Government. The deficit at the end of 1918 amounted to \$202,135,602, and each month since then . . . [saw] this sum greatly increased. This deficit . . . [had] to be met out of the general funds of the Treasury raised by general taxation."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 189-190.—"From the date of the passage of the Federal Control Act in March, 1918, until the latter part of October, a large part of the time of the Director General and his legal and other advisors was taken in framing a standard contract between the government and the companies. While this contract was based on the provisions of the Act, its terms were so hurriedly drawn that many complications were apparent when the attempt was made to express them in a formal contract. The negotiations were long drawn out and the contract as finally approved by Mr. McAdoo represents many compromises, most of them from the side of the committee representing the railroad companies. Considerable difficulty was experienced in coming to an agreement with many of the companies, so that up to January 1, 1919 contracts had been executed by but 23 of the 160 or more Class I railroads. At the end of federal control 147 contracts had been executed and 83 were still under consideration. Of these, 49 had agreed with the Director General as to compensation, while 15 had declined to accept the compensation offered and filed applications with referee boards to fix compensation. Six roads had declined to make contracts and seven had never made application therefor. . . . The twenty-six months of federal control may be divided into two distinct periods in which the conditions differed fundamentally. The first period was from January 1, 1918 to the signing of the armistice. During that period and until January 11, 1919, Mr. McAdoo was Director General. The second period was from the signing of the armistice until the end of federal control on February 29, 1920. During that time (except for the first two months) Mr. Walter D. Hines was Director General. The first period was one of intensive military activity. The sole thought was to administer the railroads as an effective agency of the army and navy. Officers and employees were spurred by motives of patriotism. The public cheerfully accepted limited railroad service and cordially cooperated with the Administration in its efforts to produce the maximum of the kind of transportation most needed in the war. The fact that the railroads were functioning effectively and were breaking all records of transportation efficiency compensated the shipping and the traveling public for their sacrifices, and encouraged railroad officers and employees to do their utmost. Wages had been raised substantially; the high cost of living was not yet as disturbing a factor as it became later; and the general morale of the service was fairly satisfactory. Almost immediately after the signing of the armistice, there came a marked slackening. The spur of patriotism disappeared. The common

motive to excel was lacking. The game was over. The war had been won. The minds of both officers and men turned to their personal interests. Early in January, 1920 the first of the protracted hearings on the return of the railroads was held by the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce. Then began a country-wide discussion of the railroad problem and the formulation of the many 'plans' for its solution. To add to the confusion the lid was lifted from the cauldron of dissatisfaction on the part of shippers and travelers. With the conclusion of military activity there came an insistent demand for a resumption of pre-war service and pre-war shipping privileges. A natural reaction set in against governmental administration. The states began to assert their rights and the shippers' organizations became active in their criticism. An agitation was started to restore the rate-making power of the Interstate Commerce Commission and a Congressional bill designed to bring it about failed only because vetoed by the President. Coupled with these disturbing factors, the cost of living continued to mount. Railroad employees had expected prices to drop. . . . The appeal of patriotism could no longer be invoked, and the general feeling of discontent with economic conditions in all lines of business seriously undermined the morale of railroad service."—W. J. Cunningham, *Railroads under government operation* (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Feb., 1921). —It is of interest to contrast the policy of the United States Government with that of Great Britain in assuming control over the railroads of the country for war purposes. The British Government left the roads in the possession of their owners and merely designated them as its agents, in return for which it guaranteed to them an income at least equal to that which they had enjoyed in 1913. The United States Government, on the other hand, assumed full possession of the roads and their direct operation under an arrangement whereby it stood to gain or lose according to the financial results obtained, and the roads themselves were guaranteed an income equal to the average income enjoyed by them during the three-year period ending June 30, 1917. For all practical purposes the Government while in possession could operate the roads as if it were their owner. It could thus make capital expenditures for improvements, in which case it would be entitled to a fair interest return on the sums so expended."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 177-179.—See also U.S.A.: 1917-1919: Effect of the war.

ALSO IN: J. Bernhardt, *Railroad Labor Board* (*Monograph of Institute for Government Research*).—R. Morris, *Railroad administration*.—E. R. H. Seligman, *Government control of railroads*.—F. H. Dixon, *Government and railroads*.—S. O. Dunn, *Railways in peace and war*.—I. L. Sharfman, *American railroad problem*.

1917-1918.—United States.—American transportation service in France.—"An American railway Commission, made up largely of militarized civilians, was dispatched to France in mid-May, 1917, shortly after the declaration of war. Curiously enough it was not instructed to look into the needs of our own army that was to follow, but rather to pass upon the propriety of the requests of Great Britain and France for immediate assistance in the way of railway troops and material. Having accomplished this purpose by the middle of the ensuing month, shortly after the arrival of General Pershing in France, the Commission was disbanded, and one of its members, who re-

mained at the request of the Commander-in-Chief to deal with transportation matters, soon realized that to him had fallen the lot of visualizing the transportation needs of an army of undetermined size, destined to fight in a sector as yet unselected, and calling for an unknown weight of supplies per man per day. . . . The Americans gave only limited assistance in carrying out these projects, their construction forces having arrived rather slowly. In fact, outside of their great yards and great warehouse terminals (in connection with which they laid 2400 kilometers of track), they only built the second track through Nantes and the alternate line leaving the Bourbonnais line at Challuy (half way between Saincaize and Nevers) and connecting at Harlot on the Nevers-Chagny line. This connecting line which crossed the River Loire on a long trestle kept out of the yard at Nevers traffic between Bourges, Saincaize, Cercy-la-Tour, Montchanin, Chagny and Perrigny. Commenced at the beginning of 1918, it was opened for traffic October 23. It was a double track line 8.7 kilometers in length. At the same time the French railroads had to meet the requirements of a traffic over 40% in excess of that of 1913, with 17% fewer employees, 5% fewer locomotives and 9% fewer cars. They were therefore unable to furnish the 1,700 locomotives, the 26,000 freight cars of 30 tons capacity, the 2,500 coaches for soldiers, wounded and men on leave, and the 52,000 railroad men required in October 1918, for American transportation alone. And the requirements in May 1919 would have been more than double these figures. . . . To summarize in a concrete and striking way, the American Army in October 1918 unloaded in France, for every minute of the day and night, an average of seven men, two horses and seven tons of freight. During this month, on the P.O. system alone, the Americans loaded 31,000 cars, of which over 17,000 were loaded at the ports. The warehouse station at Gievres alone received 25,327 cars and reforwarded to the armies 15,183."—F. A. Le Henaff and H. Bornecque, *French railroads and the war* (tr. by G. T. Slade), pp. 5-6, 18, 26.

1917-1919.—Railroads in the World War.—Percentage of government-owned roads.—Railroad conditions in France and Russia.—"It was not in the United States alone, however, that the war made marked changes in governmental control. In Germany about 92 per cent of the 40,000 miles of railway was in 1913 classed as 'state lines,' but at the beginning of the war every mile of railway in the German Empire passed under governmental control, and this was true of Austria-Hungary, in which about 82 per cent of her 29,000 miles had been controlled by the government. About 65 per cent of the 40,000 miles of railway in Russia was government owned before the war and the remainder at the beginning of the war immediately passed under governmental control. In France at the beginning of the war only about 20 per cent of her 32,000 miles of railway was classed as 'state lines,' although most of the remainder was constructed under such terms that the government expected to finally become its owner and was able to immediately, when war was declared, take control of practically the entire system. In Italy about 83 per cent of her 11,000 miles of road was governmental and the remainder was readily controlled for war purposes when she entered the international struggle. Great Britain, in which all of her 24,000 miles of railway was privately owned, took temporary control of the entire system when the war began, while in Belgium, which had formerly controlled about 50 per

cent of her 5,500 miles of railways, the entire system, of course, was taken over by the German government. In the British Colonies, other than Canada, most of the railways were already under government control, in Australia and New Zealand 93 per cent, in India 85 per cent, in British South Africa 72 per cent and in Egypt, practically controlled by Great Britain even before the war, 79 per cent. In many of the neutral countries a large percentage of the roads were government-controlled, Norway 85 per cent, Sweden 32 per cent, Denmark 52 per cent, Netherlands 55 per cent, Switzerland 56 per cent, Mexico 78 per cent, Peru 61 per cent, Chile 50 per cent, Brazil 43 per cent and Japan 71 per cent. Argentina and Canada had, to a large extent, followed the plan of the United States, for only 17 per cent of the roads of Argentina were classed as 'state lines' and less than 10 per cent of those of Canada, though that country had advanced such large sums to aid certain of their railways as to give her a commanding voice in their management."—O. P. Austin, *Government transportation (Americas, Sept., 1918)*.—The destruction of railroads in the battle area of France intensified the problems of the campaign on the western front. After the war, France was faced with a shortage of supplies and of labor to reconstruct these roads. In Russia, the conditions of transportation during and after the war form a vital chapter in her revolutionary history. In 1914 Russia was on the eve of an extensive program of railway building, contemplating the addition of 27,450 versts of railway lines. "Perhaps few people abroad know that, in connection with all this, even at the beginning of the war the traffic of the Nicolaievskaya railway was more congested than on any other two-track railway in the world. The position was further complicated by the very important fact that, with the blockade of the Baltic, all imports of foreign coal and coke for the Petrograd region were stopped. The necessary coal had to be brought from the Donetz collieries, and that only by rail. Thus the railway lines connecting Petrograd with the South had to carry additional freights to the amount of over 400 million poods of coal, and that along the already congested route from South to North. . . . In the interior of the country there was now a constant stream of men coming from all parts of Russia to the West, and of course, by rail. . . . All [supplies] . . . had likewise to be gradually transported to the stores in the rear, and also created a stream of freights towards the West. . . . The shortage of labour, of implements . . . had a great influence on the reduction of repairs of rolling-stock. Owing to a variety of causes, the coal supplied to the railways by Russian collieries was of far lower quality than that used for firing locomotives before the war; this caused a reduction in the speed of traffic, etc. All this, taken together, slowly but steadily prepared the ground for the dreadful state of affairs which . . . brought the normal economic activity of Russia to an impossible condition, to the so-called disorganisation of transport. This disorganisation was growing during the whole period of the war, and was the consequence of the fundamental fact that there were not enough railways in Russia to carry on the war. . . . [In the revolution of 1917] the carrying industry suffered especially. There is no doubt that the policy of Nekrassov, the Minister of Ways and Communication, greatly conduced to this. In this industry everything is dependent on accuracy and on the harmony of action between the separate parts and workers. Therefore, it is absolutely necessary that the work should be directed from

one centre, and by persons possessed of considerable technical knowledge. And yet with the sanction of the new Minister, a duality of authority was introduced into railway affairs, a duality which had a ruinous effect on the government of the State. Elected committees were formed here likewise, both in the Ministry, and on the separate railway lines. They interfered in railway affairs, removed chiefs they did not like, appointed new ones at their discretion; and things reached such a pass that, for instance, the Kazan railway declared itself to be an independent republic, which refused to obey any orders from Petrograd. . . . The number of damaged cars and engines grew with alarming rapidity. Already in September, 1917, the official at the head of this branch expressed his opinion that, if this went on, by winter the railways would have to stop completely. There was hope of assistance from the United States, from whence cars and engines were expected to be sent. At Vladivostok special workshops were established for the purpose of assembling the railway stock. But this required time. And the general ruin of railways was advancing with gigantic strides, and with it the question of foodstuffs was getting worse and worse, not only in towns, but in whole districts. . . . But the railways are still there. The rolling stock, etc., has suffered to some extent. But there is nothing that cannot be remedied, and within a comparatively short period, too."—N. Nordman, *Peace problems: Russia's economics*, pp. 43-45, 73-74, 99-100, 125-126.—See also WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 2, i; 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 5; c, 6; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: V. Moving men and material: c, 1; c, 2; c, 2, ii; XI. Devastation: a; XIII. Reconstruction: a, 6; b, 1; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part XII: Section III.

ALSO IN: M. Bublikov, *Urgent problems of railroad construction in Russia*.—M. Peschaud, *Les Chemins de fer pendant la guerre*.—F. A. Le Henaff and H. Bornecque, *Les Chemins de fer français et la guerre*.—E. R. Johnson and T. W. Van Metre, *Principles of railroad transportation*.

1918-1919.—United States.—National Transportation Conference.—Problems of the return of the railroads after World War.—"The National Transportation Conference was called together in December, 1918, by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. . . . In calling this Conference the Chamber of Commerce recognized that every citizen throughout the nation is directly interested in securing good transportation and that each important interest affected by transportation should have a voice in determining what should be done with the railroads after the . . . emergency [of war administration]. The Chamber, therefore, invited prominent men belonging to each important interest to attend the Conference and take part in its deliberations. All of the important plans for the solution of the railroad problem were presented to the Conference either in the form of printed documents or by speakers who addressed the meetings or took part in the discussions."—R. Waterman, *National transportation conference, Washington, D. C., Oct., 1919 (pamphlet)*, p. 1.—Every interested group or organization had a plan to offer when it became evident that the government intended to discontinue Federal control. Besides the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, the Interstate Commerce Commission, the Association of Railway Executives, the National Association of Owners of Railway Securities, and the National Railroad Brotherhoods, all brought forward plans for the solution of the railroad problem. The consensus of opinion in the Transporta-

tion conference was for the consolidation of railroad lines into a permanent system, which was also the policy advocated by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The Railroad Brotherhoods proposed the most radical readjustment, namely the Plumb plan.—See also U. S. A.: 1918-1920.

ALSO IN: *Proceedings of Public Ownership Conference, Bulletin no. 14, Chicago, Nov., 1919.*

1919.—United States.—Plumb plan of railroad operation.—The plan offered by the Four Railway Brotherhoods for the operation of the country's railroads bears the name of Glenn E. Plumb, counsel for the Brotherhoods, who formulated the plan and explained it to the American public. This solution for the railroads was proposed to Congress in the bill introduced on August, 1919, by Representative, Sims, after having been endorsed by the American Federation of Labor. The Plumb plan provides: "That Congress shall create a corporation of the United States government, not for profit, but exclusively for service. That this corporation shall have no capital stock and shall issue no bonds. That it shall represent the public interest, the management of the railways and the classified employee of the railways. That its sole capital shall be the skill, efficiency and ability of those employed in the transportation service. That it shall be governed in the following manner: The administrative body is to be a board of directors; one-third of the members of which are to represent the public, one-third the management of the railroads, and one-third the classified employees. The government shall lease to this corporation all the lines and equipment and other railroad property of which it has acquired exclusive ownership by extinguishing private interests therein. The corporation shall operate the same and shall pay all operating expenses. It shall then pay to the government first such amounts each year as the Interstate Commerce Commission from time to time shall designate, for the proper maintenance and renewal of the existing plant, to pay interest on the bonds issued for the extinguishment of private interests and bonds issued to secure new capital for betterments and extensions, and to provide for the payment of the principal of all bonds as they become due. Rates are to be fixed at a level estimated to cover all costs of operation, plus all capital charges, as above described. Then, if, through efficiency or economy, those charged with the management and operation of the railroads should succeed in reducing costs of operation below the amount so fixed, one-half of the saving shall be distributed as a dividend to employees of both classes, based upon their several salaries or wages, and one-half shall belong to the public. If in any year the saving that goes to the public shall equal or exceed five per cent. of the gross operating revenue, the Interstate Commerce Commission must reduce rates so as to absorb the public's share. It will be noted that this is not a profit-sharing plan. It could not be, because profits have been eliminated. It is a savings-sharing plan. If the saving in any year amounts to ten per cent. or over, the public's share is distributed to those who pay transportation charges in the shape of lower rates. The consuming public will, therefore, be benefited in lower passenger rates and in lower prices for goods that they consume on account of the lower freight charges. After such a reduction of rates has been made, the saving for the next year, unless there be a further economy in operation, or an increase in efficiency, will be only half as great as it was the previous year. But every reduction in rates produces an increased volume of traffic, thus tending to reduce the cost of opera-

tion per unit of traffic; that is, provided that the railroads are equipped to handle the increased traffic. The portion of savings assigned to the public will be used for the betterment of plant and equipment, and will thus tend to maintain the capacity of the roads to handle increased traffic and to reduce the cost of handling. The building of extensions, paid for in part by assessment upon the sections or interests benefited, will further increase earnings. The retirement of bonds out of sinking funds will have a like effect. So that every tendency is in the direction of lower rates, until finally service will be rendered at the lowest possible cost, economically determined—or at absolute cost. Thus, the public will get the best possible service at the lowest possible cost, and those who do the work of transportation will get the full reward for their services, apportioned according to their respective contributions to the efficiency of the service. So that the plan of the railway employees satisfies the requirements of justice to the individual and to the community at large."—G. E. Plumb and W. G. Roylance, *Industrial democracy*, pp. 198-200.

1919.—Dutch East Indies.—Railroad equipment.—"Only Java and Sumatra are provided with railways. In addition to an extensive system of well-built vehicle roads, Java has over 3000 miles of railways. The main lines are owned and operated by the Government; the local lines are in private hands. The Government owned lines represent an investment of more than \$85,000,000. In Sumatra there are about 800 miles of railways: located on the west coast, near the Onibilin coal mines; at the east coast, in the tobacco and rubber districts near Medan, and in the southeast, near the port of Palembang, for which is expected a large future in coal, petroleum and agricultural products. In Borneo and Celebes, and even in all the other islands, there is up to this time not a single mile. . . . The Government has planned a large system of railroads in Borneo and Celebes, and it is expected that they will be developed by private interests with strong Government co-operation."—J. Van de Waerden, *America's interest in the Netherlands' East Indies* (Americas, Jan., 1919).

1920.—United States.—Esch-Cummins Act (Transportation Act of 1920).—The Esch-Cummins Act, known as the Transportation Act of 1920, was the solution of the railroad post-war situation finally arrived at by Congress (Feb. 28, 1920). It was not satisfactory to the American Federation of Labor, which asked President Wilson to veto the bill. "The House passed the so-called Esch bill (Nov. 17, 1919), which dealt largely with perfecting the existing machinery of regulation; the Senate passed the Cummins bill, which was a radical departure from existing regulatory legislation. The bill as it came out of conference and was enacted into law was largely a combination of these two bills, with some important modifications. . . . The outstanding feature of the Transportation act is that it is radically constructive. While there are many corrective features there are helpful features from the point of view of railroad operations. Its main purposes are to establish the credit of the railroads upon a basis which will not put too great a burden upon the users of the railroads, and to give to the Interstate Commerce Commission such powers as appear necessary in order to correct the faults inherently arising in independently operated railroads. The truly remarkable thing is that a comprehensive and properly articulating act has been constructed out of two bills so radically different as the Senate and House bills. The

conciseness and clearness of the language of the act is no less noteworthy. There is little ambiguity, except perhaps in the long and short haul provision, which was intended to be ambiguous. Although the act may not fully solve the underlying problem of the weak and the strong railroads, it is a mighty step in that direction and subsequent legislation will probably be merely supplementary."—E. J. Rich, *Transportation Act of 1920* (*American Economic Review*, Sept., 1920). —"The most important provisions of the [Transportation Act were]: (1) That on March 1, 1920, Federal operation shall cease and the railroads shall be returned to private operation. (2) That under a new rule of rate-making the railroads shall be assured adequate revenues; and adequacy shall be defined in the first two years as a net return of 5% or 6 per cent. on the fair value of the property as determined by governmental authority. (3) That during the transition period the Government shall aid in restoring the financial stability and the credit of the railroads: (a) by continuing the government guaranty of a standard return for six months after the roads are returned to their owners; (b) by creating a revolving fund of \$300,000,000 from which the roads may obtain under certain conditions short-term loans to meet their most pressing needs; (c) by extending the carrier indebtedness for capital expenditures made by the government during Federal control for a period of ten years with interest at 6 per cent.; and (d) by the creation of a reserve fund containing one-half of the excess earnings of those railroads whose net earnings exceed the 6 per cent. specified in the rule of rate-making. (4) That the rates and services of interstate carriers shall continue to be regulated by the Interstate Commerce Commission; that the commission shall be enlarged by the addition of two new members, making eleven in all; and that the commission shall have authority: (a) to make inquiry continuously concerning the transportation facilities and services of the whole country, and when and how they should be improved; the state of the credit of all common carriers; and the new capital which the public interest may require any carrier to secure; (b) to permit the consolidation of two or more carriers provided that such consolidation is in harmony with a comprehensive plan (previously adopted by the commission) for consolidating all of the railroads of the country in a limited number of strong competing systems, and also provided that, in the opinion of the commission, the proposed consolidation is in the public interest; (c) to fix interstate rates that shall be just, reasonable, and adequate; (d) to determine the valuation of railroad property; (e) to prescribe a uniform accounting system for all carriers; (f) to exercise exclusive jurisdiction over capital expenditures and the issuance of securities by carriers; (g) to prohibit the extension of present lines or the construction or acquisition of new lines by any carrier until it has obtained from the commission a certificate of public necessity and convenience; (h) to require the construction of docks and rail connections between rail and water carriers; (i) to provide when necessary for the redistribution of traffic and for joint use of terminal; (j) to exercise jurisdiction over the use, control, and supply as well as the movement, distribution, and interchange of locomotives and cars and also over the supply, movement, and operation of trains; and (k) to order a carrier to install automatic train-stop or train-control devices. (5) That the wages and working conditions of railroad employees shall be regulated by a Railroad Labor Board composed

of three representatives of the carriers, three representatives of the employees, and three representatives of the public; and that disputes between the carriers and their employees in regard to rules or working conditions may be referred to railroad boards of labor adjustment—local, regional, or national—voluntarily organized between the roads and their employees, or if such boards are not voluntarily formed, such disputes shall be decided by the Railroad Labor Board."—E. Hungerford, *Our railroads to-morrow*, pp. 66-68.—Federal control of railroads in the United States was terminated, on March 1, 1920, by the proclamation of the President, and on that day operation of the properties was resumed by the corporations. Under Section 209 of the Act of Congress, known as the Transportation Act of 1920, the Government guaranteed that for the period of six months, from March 1 to Sept. 1, 1920, the railway operating income of each carrier having a contract fixing its compensation under the Federal Control Act, shall not be less than one-half the amount named in such contract as annual compensation, provided that the carrier shall have accepted the provisions of said Section 209. "According to a report . . . by James C. Davis, Director general of railroads, . . . transmitted to Congress by President Harding, losses sustained by the government from war-time operation of railroads and its aftermath of earnings guarantees and damage settlements will total approximately \$1,800,000,000."—*Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, Feb. 17, 1923, p. 687.—See also ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1888-1921; LABOR LEGISLATION: 1862-1920.

ALSO IN: R. MacVeagh, *Transportation Act of 1920*.

1920.—Alaskan railroads.—Work of engineering commission.—The most vital piece of railroad construction in Alaska since the war period was completed in 1920 when the government engineering commission finished the link of the Alaska Northern railroad connecting the Metaunsa coal fields with tide-water, thus increasing mileage in the vast region which is greatly lacking in transportation facilities.

ALSO IN: J. Bernhardt, *Alaskan Engineering Commission*.—A. H. Brooks, *Development of Alaska by government railroads* (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, May, 1914).

1920.—British Columbia's provincial railroad, the Pacific Great Eastern.—As an exclusive enterprise of the province, British Columbia built the Pacific Great Eastern railway, which was opened in 1920 and extended fifty-three miles to Red Rock creek.

1920.—Canadian National railways, Canada's solution of her transportation problem.—Financial difficulties of early operation.—Extent of system.—By 1920 Canada had gone a long way in the solution of the railroad problem by nationalizing certain of her important railways, but the financial difficulties marked her program as still in the experimental stage. Taking as a nucleus the roads already owned by the Dominion, the Intercolonial, Prince Edward Island, National Transcontinental—the government purchased the Canadian Northern railway (1918), and the next year the Grand Trunk. The Grand Trunk Pacific was likewise taken over in a financially depleted condition. All expenses incurred in the operation of these roads were to be paid out of government revenues and in the event of a deficit in any one, the amount was to be made up out of the consolidated fund of revenues from the other roads. A heavy penalty was imposed for political

interference in the management of the government lines.—Based on *Moody's rating service*, 1922, p. 1563.—The great transportation system . . . [included] 22,375 miles of railways, 102,000 miles of telegraph lines, 10 hotels, 86 ocean vessels of a total tonnage of 393,000 tons, 11 car ferries, 4 lake vessels and five British Columbia coast vessels. It . . . [traversed] every province in Canada's dominion, directly serving the great seaports of Halifax, N. S., St. John, N. B., The Sydneys, N. S., Quebec, Que., Montreal, Que., Portland, Maine, Vancouver, B. C., Victoria, B. C., Prince Rupert, B. C., and Seattle, Wash., connecting at the above seaports with all ocean and coastwise steamship services."—M. Low, *History of Canadian National railways* (*Science et Industrie*, June, 1923).—"The year [1920] generally was the worst in the history of steam roads in Canada, the ratio of operating expenses to operating revenue being 97.17 per cent., as compared with 92.2 per cent. for 1919 and an average of 71 per cent. for the period 1900 to 1917, the range for these years having been from 67.4 to 74.4 per cent. Of the 56 roads reporting, 31 paid operating expenses and 25 had a deficit. Of these 31, after paying taxes, interest, rents, &c., 19 had a corporate income of \$36,581,437. The corporate losses sustained by the other 37 roads amounted to \$79,669,825, the larger items being as follows:

Canadian Northern.....	\$40,501,705
Canadian Govt. lines.....	9,432,054
Grand Trunk.....	4,519,809
Grand Trunk Pacific.....	17,456,359

"These lines with the exception of the Grand Trunk, were operated as part of the national system. It is significantly added that the loss on the Canadian Government lines—that is, on the Intercolonial and the National Transcontinental—does not include interest on funded and unfunded debt. The figures from the Canadian Northern, however, include interest. As has already been noted, the figures for the corporate loss on the Intercolonial and National Transcontinental do not include interest on the funded or unfunded debt. The official records for these roads show nothing more than the construction expenditure. The best expert opinion, however, estimates the fixed charges on the Intercolonial at no less than \$23,000,000, and those on the National Transcontinental at \$17,000,000. That is to say, if these were privately owned roads they would have had to earn \$40,000,000 more than they did or their corporate loss would have been approximately \$49,500,000 instead of \$9,432,000. This method of charging deficits and loans up to the National Treasury, and forgetting all about it, insofar as the roads were considered, and in addition making no allowance for interest charges, has given the people of Canada an entirely erroneous idea of the actual cost of rail transportation."—W. G. Gates, *Government railway operation in Canada* (*New York Annalist*, Sept. 5, 1921).—See also CANADA: 1920: Canadian National railroad; NEWFOUNDLAND: 1921.

1921.—United States.—Problems of consolidation.—Ripley plan.—On August 3, 1921, the Interstate Commerce Commission published a tentative plan for the consolidation of the railroads of the United States into nineteen systems. This plan was in substance the work of W. Z. Ripley, transportation expert of Harvard University. It was sent to the governors of all the states with the view of receiving the opinions* of all the transportation interests. At that time the railroad companies expressed considerable opposition to the

idea of consolidation. The Ripley plan is as follows:

"No. 1. New York Central System—New York Central lines, except Lake Erie & Western, Toledo & Ohio Central, Zanesville & Western, Kanawha & Michigan and Indiana Harbor Belt; Western Maryland, Fonda, Johnstown & Gloversville, Lake Erie & Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Chartiers & Youghiogheny, Monongahela, Boston & Maine, Maine Central, Bangor, Aroostook. Note: Boston & Maine, Maine Central and Bangor & Aroostook may be included in System No. 7 or in 7a. Professor Ripley rejects trunk line treatment of the New England roads, but the commission presents it alternatively to bring out discussion.

"No. 2. Pennsylvania System—Pennsylvania, Panhandle, Toledo, Peoria & Western, Lorain, Ashland & Southern, Lake Erie & Pittsburgh, Central Indiana, Pittsburgh, Chartiers & Youghiogheny, Monongahela.

"No. 3. Baltimore & Ohio System—Baltimore & Ohio, Reading, Central of New Jersey, Cincinnati, Indianapolis & Western, Chicago, Indianapolis & Louisville, New York, New Haven & Hartford, Central New York, New Haven & Hartford, Central New England, Lehigh & New England, Lehigh & Hudson.

"No. 4. Erie System—Erie, Delaware & Hudson, Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, Ulster & Delaware, Bessemer & Lake Erie, Buffalo & Susquehanna, Pittsburgh & Shawmut, Pittsburgh, Shawmut & Northern, Lorain, Ashland & Southern, Wabash lines east of Missouri River.

"No. 5. Nickel Plate-Lehigh Valley System—Lehigh Valley, New York, Chicago & St. Louis, Toledo, St. Louis & Western, Detroit & Toledo Short Lines, Lake Erie & Western, Wheeling & Lake Erie, Pittsburgh & West Virginia, Bessemer & Lake Erie.

"No. 6. Pere Marquette System—Pere Marquette, Detroit & Mackinac, Ann Arbor, Detroit, Toledo & Ironton, Boyne City, Gaylord & Alpena.

"No. 7. New England System—New Haven, Ontario & Western, Boston & Maine, Maine Central, Bangor & Aroostook, Lehigh & Hudson River, Lehigh & New England.

"No. 7A. New England-Great Lakes System—same as above, with addition of Delaware & Hudson, Lackawanna, Ulster & Delaware, Buffalo, Rochester & Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh & Shawmut, Pittsburgh, Shawmut & Northern.

"No. 8. Chesapeake & Ohio System—Chesapeake & Ohio, Hocking Valley, Virginian.

"No. 9. Norfolk & Western System—Norfolk & Western, Toledo & Ohio Central, Kanawha & Michigan.

"No. 10. Southern System—Southern Railway and affiliated lines, New Orleans, Great Northern, Alabama & Vicksburg.

"No. 11. Atlantic Coast Line-Louisville & Nashville System—Those two roads and subsidiaries, Western Railway of Alabama, Richmond, Fredericksburg & Potomac, Norfolk Southern, Atlanta, Birmingham & Atlantic, Winston-Salem Southbound, Roanoke to Winston-Salem branch of the Norfolk & Western, Florida East Coast, Carolina, Clinchfield & Ohio, Georgia & Florida, Gulf Mobile & Northern, Mississippi Central.

"No. 12. Illinois Central-Seaboard System—Illinois Central, Seaboard Air Line, branch of Norfolk & Western from Lynchburg, Va., to Durham, N. C.; Gulf & Ship Island, Tennessee Central, Carolina, Clinchfield & Ohio.

"No. 13. Union Pacific-Northwestern System—Union Pacific, Chicago & Northwestern, Lake Su-

perior & Ishpeming, Wabash lines west of Missouri River.

"No. 14. Burlington-Northern Pacific System—Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, Northern Pacific, Chicago, Great Western, Minneapolis & St. Paul, Spokane, Portland & Seattle. (Colorado & Southern may be included in System No. 16.)

"No. 15. Milwaukee-Great Northern System—Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul, Great Northern, Duluth & Iron Range, Duluth, Missaba & Northern, Green Bay & Western, Spokane, Portland & Seattle, Butte, Anaconda & Pacific.

"No. 16. Santa Fe System—Atchison, Colorado Southern, Denver & Rio Grande, Western Pacific, Utah Railway, Northwestern Pacific, Nevada Northern.

"No. 17. Southern Pacific-Rock Island System—Southern Pacific, Nevada Northern, Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific, Arizona & New Mexico, El Paso & Southwestern, San Antonio & Aransas Pass, Trinity & Brazos Valley, Midland Valley, Vicksburg, Shreveport & Pacific, Chicago, Peoria & St. Louis.

"No. 18. Frisco-Katy-Cotton Belt System—St. Louis-San Francisco, St. Louis Southwestern, Louisiana Railway & Navigation Company, Chicago & Alton, Missouri, Kansas & Texas, Trinity & Brazos Valley, San Antonio, Uvalde & Gulf. (Note—M., K. & T. may be included in No. 17.)

"No. 19. Chicago-Missouri Pacific System—Chicago & Eastern Illinois, Missouri Pacific, Kansas City Southern, Kansas City, Mexico & Orient, Kansas, Oklahoma & Gulf, Texas & Pacific, Fort Smith Western, Louisiana & Arkansas, Gulf Coast Lines, International & Great Northern, (Gulf Coast Lines indicate the New Orleans, Texas & Mexico and subsidiaries.)

"Subsidiaries of Canadian roads, such as the Soo Line, are not assigned, the commission remarking that they are portions of through transcontinental Canadian systems in active competition with the systems set forth."—*New York Times*, Aug. 3, 1921.

1921.—Great Britain.—End of state control.—In Great Britain government control of railways ended Aug. 15, 1921, with no guarantees for ensuing stages of operation, except that the railway tribunal was to fix rates sufficiently high to secure a "fair return." The carriers were required to submit by Jan. 1, 1923, their plans for mandatory consolidation into four systems of a non-competitive character, or submit to one imposed by government.

ALSO IN: W. A. Robertson, *Ministry of Transport Act.—Report of Ministry of Transport: Railway working, increase of rates, fares, charges.*—R. Morris, *Railroad administration.*

1921-1922.—Germany.—Denationalization of railroads.—Strikes. See GERMANY: 1921 (November-December); LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922; Germany.

1921-1923.—New England railroads, a unique problem.—"The railroad system of New England—into which the investing public has already poured the best part of a billion dollars, to which should be added annually \$25,000,000 more to keep it up-to-date—is its greatest single industry. . . . The roads of New England must either be grouped together or parceled out among the Western trunk-lines. The figures point to the latter course; but the powerful popular instinct, which has opposed this in the past, rests upon a sound (if somewhat inarticulate) foundation. New England railroads succeeded when they were local enterprises supported by the loyalty of New England. As they slipped from this basis, they began to fail, and they have now collapsed. . . . The freight-traffic

of New England is peculiar. Unlike that of our great Western states (or even that which the great trunk lines handle), the business of New England is largely in less than car-load lots. New England is, in fact, far more like Old England, and has properly been compared to a huge terminal."—P. Cabot, *Root, hog, or die* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Aug., 1921).—Under the Transportation Act of 1920, the Interstate Commerce Commission has met the critical situation of the New England railroads by placing "New England, with the other two subdivisions of Official Classification Territory, into the Eastern Group; and . . . [ordering] that freight rates in that group be raised 40 per cent. 'At that rate level the revenues of the carriers in Trunk Line and Central Freight Association territories would, it was asserted, exceed by 1.48 per cent what they would have received if they had been a separate group. It was estimated that the excess would be about \$25,000,000 annually. Substantially that amount (besides the additional revenue to be raised otherwise) was said to be necessary to meet the needs of the New England lines.'"—E. G. Buckland, *Three years of the Transportation Act* (*Yale Law Journal*, May, 1923).

ALSO IN: E. Hungerford, *Our railroads tomorrow.*—W. J. Cunningham, *Operation of railroads in New England* (*Railway Age Gazette*, June 2, 1916).

1922-1923.—Canada.—Progress of National railways.—The progress made by the Canadian National railways (or C. N. R. as the government lines came to be known) was encouraging after the initial financial strain of the years following consolidation. By 1923 the announcement was made "that the consolidated system showed for the year 1922 an operating surplus of approximately four million dollars, and this result was regarded as highly satisfactory. . . . The C. N. R. found itself in a strongly intrenched position in respect to competitive business. . . . It was well satisfied that the system secured almost exactly fifty per cent of the exported portion of the 1923 crops."—*Economist*, Mar. 31, 1923, pp. 677-678.—Sir William Thornton was appointed president of the Canadian National railways in 1923.

ALSO IN: *Canada's experience with its railways* (*Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, Nov. 25, 1922, pp. 2316-2310).—W. H. Moore, *Railway nationalization and the average citizen.*—E. B. Biggar, *Canadian railroad problems.*—Thomas and Carner, *Canadian Almanac*, 1923, pp. 168-172.—J. C. Hopkins, *Canada's annual review of public affairs.*

1923.—Great Britain.—Consolidation of railways into four systems.—"As a result of experience in railroad management gained during the war, all the railroads of Great Britain, except the London Urban lines, were amalgamated on January 1 into four great systems, to be known respectively as the Southern Railway, the Great Western Railway, the London Midland and Northern Railway and the London & Northeastern Railway. The size of these units may be judged from the fact that the London & Northeastern came into control of 7,000 miles and 2,000 stations, and was expected to carry 300,000,000 passengers and 183,000,000 tons of freight per annum."—*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1923, p. 867.

1923.—United States.—Status of railroads under Transportation Act of 1920.—Problem of total and individual valuation.—Freight classification.—Record of Labor Board.—One very interesting aspect of the post-war legislation known as the Transportation Act of 1920 (Esch-Cummins Bill) is that for the first three years of its admin-

istration the opinions of the Supreme Court judges construing the Act were unanimous. "The first important decision of the Commission under the Act was in *Ex Parte 74, Increased Rates, 1920*, in which, after an extended hearing, the Commission, in the absence of final values found under the Valuation Act, fixed the total value of the railroads at \$18,900,000,000, and the value of those in the Eastern group at \$8,800,000,000. It established four groups and increased the freight rates as follows: Eastern Group, 40 per cent; Southern Group, 25 per cent; Western Group, 35 per cent; Mountain-Pacific Group, 25 per cent, and increased passenger rates 20 per cent in all groups. It has made two general decreases, one of the hay and grain rates, effective January 1, 1922, 10 per cent, and the other a general decrease of 10 per cent in all groups, effective July 1, 1922. . . . [The body created by the Transportation Act and known as the Railroad Labor Board, in the three ensuing years] increased wages \$595,384,342.00, and decreased wages \$513,844,418.00, leaving a net increase of \$81,539,924.00, or 3.2 per cent. . . . In the course of the hearings before the Labor Board and decisions thereunder, questions arose as to the authority of the Labor Board to require carriers or employees to abide by its decisions. . . . This . . . [was] the first time that the United States Supreme Court construed the powers of the Labor Board under the Transportation Act, and in effect . . . [its construction] establishes it merely as a body of arbitrators, whose decisions have no force excepting that of public opinion."—E. G. Buckland, *Three years of the Transportation Act* (*Yale Law Journal*, May, 1923).—By 1923, in attempting to place a valuation on the individual railroads of the country, "the Government . . . [had] spent \$23,000,000 and railroads more than \$60,000,000 in the biggest single job of accounting ever attempted in the history of the nation, or probably of any other nation. The final cost will be far above \$100,000,000. . . . Between 800 and 900 railroads or railway systems are subject to valuation, and tentative valuations on less than 350 have been turned out . . . [by 1923], so there . . . [were] years of hard work ahead. Most valuations are based on the year 1914 or 1915. Only a few small roads have accepted the tentative valuations as satisfactory and thus permitted them to become final. All other valuations have been challenged by the individual carriers and thus under the law thrown open automatically to review and dispute by the roads. Each is a separate problem in itself. . . . The detailed history of the movement, the voluminous legal briefs, the hundreds of thousands of sheets of figures and the minutes of hearings, if gathered together in printed form, would fill a freight train. They would be as voluminous as the records of the World War."—W. L. Kiplinger, *Final rail valuations reopen the rate battle* (*New York Times*, Sept. 16, 1923).

See also COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1770-1921; COMMON LAW: 1846; RAILROADS, ELECTRIC.

ALSO IN: H. B. Vanderblue and K. F. Brown, *Railroads, rates, service, management*.—R. MacVeigh, *Transportation Act of 1920*.—T. W. Van Metre, and P. T. Moon, ed., *Railroads and business prosperity, a series of addresses presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Political Sciences*, New York, Apr. 28, 1922.—H. C. Adams, *American railway accounting*.—H. S. Haines, *Efficient railroad operation*.—I. L. Sharfman, *American railway problem*.—H. B. Vanderblue, *Railroad valuation*.—S. Thompson, *Railway statistics of the United States* (*Poor's Manual*).—Moody's rating service.—G. W. Anderson, *Three years of the Trans-*

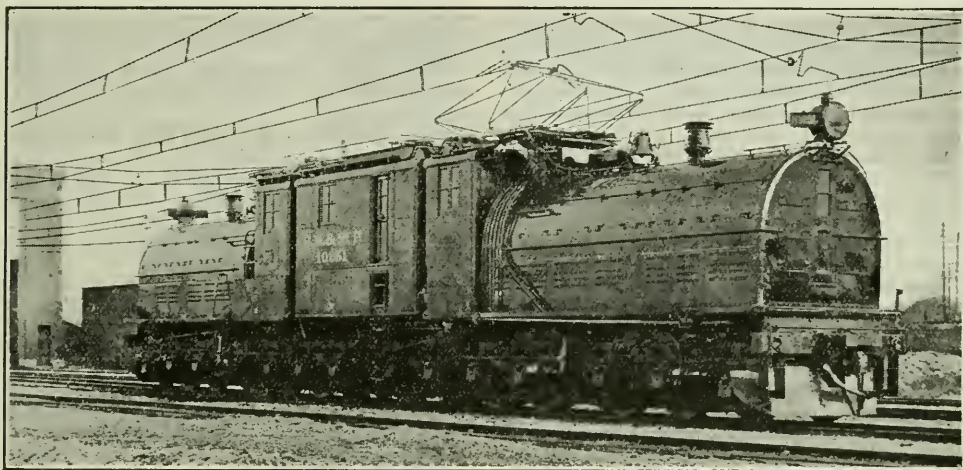
portation Act.—E. G. Buckland, *Three years of the Transportation Act*.—W. K. Cunningham, *American railroads: Government control and reconstruction policies*.—S. Daggett, *Chapters on the history of the Southern Pacific*.—F. H. Dixon, *Railroads and government: Their relation in the United States, 1910-1920*.—B. K. Elliott, *Treatise on the law of railroads*.—C. O. Fisher, *Use of federal power in settlement of railway labor disputes* (*Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics*, no. 303).—W. E. Hooper, *Plans for railroad consolidations*.—H. Hoover, *Some observations on the country's railroad problem as it now presents itself* (*Economic World*, Nov. 25, 1922).—A. Pomerene, *Our recent federal railroad legislation* (*American Law Review*, May-June, 1921).—R. E. Riegel, *Federal operations of southern railroads during the Civil War* (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, Sept., 1922).—T. W. Van Metre and P. T. Parker, *Railroads and business prosperity*.—N. Trotman, *History of the Union Pacific*.

RAILROADS, Electric: Interurban electric railways.—Critical situation of municipal trolley service.—Electrification of steam railroads.—Its progress.—The electric railway, or trolley, as it is utilized in the civilized countries of the world, is the product of fifty years experimentation [see ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric locomotives: 1847-1899]; "but the real beginning of the modern development is generally credited to the United States and to [Frank J.] Sprague in recognition of his work in building the system of Richmond, Virginia. For in place of the one or two-car roads previously operated, the Richmond contract, started in the spring of 1887, included 'the building of a generating station, erection of overhead lines, and the equipment of forty cars, each with two 7½ H.P. motors on plans largely new and untried.' . . . The development since 1887 is almost inconceivable. At the beginning of that year there were less than forty miles of electric railways and not more than forty cars in the United States. Ten years later about 20,000 miles of track were equipped, and 50,000 cars were in service, representing an investment of one and a half million dollars."—W. A. Durgin, *Electricity: Its history and development*, pp. 147, 150.—Within the next decade "interurban electrics . . . [were] most highly developed in the Central Western States—Ohio, Indiana, southern Michigan, Illinois, eastern Wisconsin, and eastern Missouri. It . . . [was] possible to travel by electric railway from Sheboygan, Wis., or Rockford, Ill., to Port Huron, Mich., Louisville, Ky., or Westfield, N. Y., with but one small gap in the continuity of the line. New England . . . [had become] a second home of electric interurbans. . . . Other special sections . . . [were] New York, in the Hudson and Mohawk valley and the region tributary to Buffalo; Pennsylvania, in the southeastern and northeastern and western valley regions, and the Pacific Coast, in Southern California and the regions adjacent to Portland, Spokane, and Puget Sound. . . . In some parts of England steam railroads have been driven to electrification of their lines by electric railroad competition, but thus far this effect has not appeared in the United States. The electrification of steam railways in this country has been chiefly in the services in terminals and tunnels, on mountain grades, and in regions of dense passenger traffic adjacent to large centers of population. There are instances where steam lines have been electrified chiefly to handle short-distance passenger traffic, such as the Rochester branch of the Erie Railroad, the main line of the West Shore Railroad between Utica and Syracuse,

and the West Jersey and Seashore line of the Pennsylvania Railroad, but the motive was to obtain the advantages of electric power, rather than to combat electric railway competition."—E. R. Johnson and G. G. Huebner, *Railroad traffic and rates*, v. 2, pp. 231, 248.—The same economic pressure which caused the steam railroads to face an increase of operation during and after the World War, and which culminated in the United States in the widespread railroad problems of the second decade of the twentieth century, brought the electric railway situation to a crisis. In cities throughout the country there arose the issue of the five-cent trolley fare. "Here we have a railway system—or series of systems—which in their capitalization amount to about a third as much as the steam railroads. They carry about 12,000,000,000 passengers a year. They collect \$700,000,000 revenue a year, and yet that industry for various reasons—has come to a position where it can hardly survive."—D. L. Wilcox, *Present street car crisis in America, and the way out* (*Proceedings*

any rate of fare which the public is willing to permit will be sufficient for that purpose."—P. H. Gadsden, *Electric railways* (*Address at the War Emergency and Reconstruction Congress of the United States Chamber of Commerce, Atlantic City, New Jersey, Dec. 3-6, 1918*).

"The use of electricity as a motive-power upon this country's so-called standard railroads (the electrical engineers like to call these 'heavy traction railroads') is no novelty. It began . . . [in 1895] when the Baltimore and Ohio railroad completed the electrification of its then new tunnels under the City of Baltimore. The move was made primarily to remove offensive smoke conditions, particularly in the main tunnel connecting Mount Royal and Camden stations, nearly two miles apart. . . . The obvious success of this early installation slowly led to its imitation elsewhere among the railroads of the land—a third-rail suburban plan on the New Haven from Bristol through New Britain to Hartford, Connecticut, and a branch of the same system down to Nantasket Beach,



Courtesy General Electric

3000 VOLT GEARLESS PASSENGER LOCOMOTIVE, ON THE CHICAGO, MILWAUKEE,
AND ST. PAUL RAILWAY

of Public Ownership Conference, Chicago, 1919).—"The condition of the electric railways, although generally typical . . . [was] somewhat more aggravated than that of other public utilities, . . . not only because relatively few roads have received adequate rate increases, but also because their difficulties have been enhanced by the action of the National War Labor Board. The decisions of that Board . . . [added] over \$100,000,000 annually to their greatly increased operating expenses. In every other industry, these additional labor costs have been promptly passed on to the consumer, that is, to the Government, in most cases during the war; but in the case of electric railways, the startling doctrine was announced by the National War Labor Board that it could not, and would not, take into consideration the financial condition of the companies, and that its award would not be influenced by the admitted inability of the companies to pay the increased wage scale. Without questioning the justice or propriety of that position, it is apparent that the result of it is that a wage scale has been imposed upon the electric railways which cannot be taken care of by the present five-cent fare, and a very grave question exists whether

Massachusetts. Yet the process was slow indeed. . . . It was not until . . . [1907] that electric installation of any considerable size came into being; the large suburban services that were created by the New York Central, the New Haven, and the Pennsylvania, coincident with the similar suburban services in Oakland, California, and in Portland, Oregon, and in some of the longer tunnels of the land; the Hoosac tunnel of the old Fitchburg, the tunnel of the Michigan Central under the Detroit River, and that of the Great Northern through the Cascades in Washington being notable instances of this last sort of installation. After these came the large installations of the Norfolk and Western through the Alleghenies and of the Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul. . . . And after this . . . [occurred] a great hiatus, the huge rise in material and construction costs of every sort, the war, and the . . . paralysis of our railroad development. . . . In 1918 . . . our steam locomotive consumed 163,000,000 tons of coal in addition to 45,700,000 barrels of oil. Reducing these last to their coal equivalent, we have a total fuel consumption expressed in terms of coal of 176,000,000. And when we measure that consumption

alongside the freight carried—1918 was one of the record years of our American railroads—it will be seen that for every thousand tons of freight that they moved one mile they burned 290 pounds of coal. Through any modern steam-generating electric station—the figures taken from the modern powerhouses of the few steam railroads that already have been progressive enough to install electric motive power—an even hundred pounds of coal may easily move more than 1600 tons of freight one mile—in the accurate phrasing of the railroaders themselves, 1600 ton-miles. In other words the same freight traffic moved by electricity through steam powerhouses would have required but a little over fifty million tons of coal. From 120,000,000 to 130,000,000 tons of coal would have been saved—a saving roughly expressed in money at between three-quarters of a billion and a billion dollars, which of itself would be a 4 or 5 per cent. dividend upon the total capitalization of our American railroads. In the saving that we have just shown we have presupposed an absolutely universal substitution of electric for steam power all the way across the land. This, however, is not practical to-day; nor is it likely to be practical in any day to come, for every mile of our 275,000 miles of American railroad system. On the other hand this huge estimate of national saving is based entirely upon the coal-consumption basis. The most impressive savings . . . are those accomplished by our lines which have bended water-power, hitherto wasted, to the movement of their trains. I have stood upon the brink of Niagara Falls and there seen train after train arrive and depart, each hauled by a steam locomotive. And all the while I knew that the force and power of that mighty cataract was lighting the homes and driving the street cars of Toronto and of Syracuse—by land, respectively one hundred and 150 miles distant. What a travesty upon efficiency!"—E. Hungerford, *Our railroads to-morrow*, pp. 135-139.—"Most of the leading countries in Europe have announced plans either to increase the present mileage of electrified steam railways or to carry out such work where hitherto electrification was not regarded as economically feasible. In South America, Brazil and Chile either have work under construction or are about to let contracts for such projects. In Asia, Japan and India are both making investigations with a view to electrifying certain suburban or heavy-traffic sections. In Australia, the suburban line out of Melbourne has been in process of electrification for some years. . . . In Africa the question of electrifying steam railways for the Union of South Africa has reached the stage where bids have been invited. . . . In several instances, standard American plans have been adopted practically complete by engineers advising foreign governments on steam railway electrification."—*United States Commerce Reports*, Sept. 26, 1921, pp. 195-196.—The Paris-Orleans railroad contracted for the electrification of its main lines in May, 19, 1922.

Also in: F. J. Sprague, *Engineering development of the electric railway* (*Electric Railway Journal*, Oct. 14, 1916, pp. 771-774).—D. F. Wilcox, *Analysis of electric railway problem prepared for the Federal Electric Railroad Commission*, 1921.—D. F. Wilcox, *Municipal franchises*.—T. Conway, *Traffic problems of interurban electric railways*.—*Public ownership conference proceedings*, Nov. 1919.—*Electric railway earnings* (*Supplements to Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, 1922-1923).—F. W. Carter, *Railway electric traction*.—A. T. Dover, *Electric traction*.—R. Gordon, *Electrification of American railroads* (*Engineering Magazine*, Apr., 1915).—F. W. Carter, *Electrifica-*

tion of British railways (*Electrical Review*, July, 18, 1919).

RAILROADS' WAR BOARD, United States. See **RAILROADS**: 1916-1920; U.S.A.: 1917-1919: Effect of the war.

RAILWAY AND CANAL COMMISSION, England (1888). See **RAILROADS**: 1882-1905.

RAILWAY BROTHERHOODS, organizations of railway employees. They include the Grand International Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, organized in 1863; the Order of Railway Conductors of America, organized in 1868; the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, organized in 1873; the Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen, organized in 1883; and the Order of Railway Telegraphers, organized in 1886. The brotherhoods are similar in organization and government, and are distinguished from other trade union organizations by their conservatism, and their highly perfected government. With the exception of the telegraphers and the International Association of Car Workers, railroad employees organizations are not affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.—See also **ADAMSON LAW**; **ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION**, **INDUSTRIAL**: United States: 1888-1921; **RAILROADS**: 1919: Plumb plan.

RAILWAY DISPUTES ACT (1903). See **ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION**, **INDUSTRIAL**: Canada: 1900-1918.

RAILWAY MAIL SERVICE, United States. See **RAILROADS**: 1862-1911.

RAINBOW DIVISION, 42nd Division of the American Expeditionary Forces. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: j.

RAINES LAW (1896). See **NEW YORK**: 1896-1898.

RAISIN RIVER, Battle of (1813). See **U.S.A.**: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

RAISULI, Mulai Ahmed, or Achmed ben Mohammed Raisuni (c.1875-), Moroccan chief. See **MOROCCO**: 1904-1909; 1921-1923.

RAJAH, MAHARAJA, Hindu titles equivalent to king and great king respectively.

RAJASTHANI, Indo-Aryan vernacular spoken in central India. See **PHILOLOGY**: 16.

RAJPUTANA, group of twenty-one native states of northwestern India (see **INDIA**: Map), comprising an area of 128,987 square miles and a population in 1921 of 9,844,384. From six to seven per cent of the natives are Rajputs (see **RAJPUTS**); the great majority of the rest are Hindus. The administration is in the hands of native rulers. The Indian government is represented by an agent resident at Abu, assisted by three residents and three political agents. Before the Mohammedan invasions in the eleventh century, the district was subject to two or three tribal dynasties of Rajputs, from whom it takes its name. Mohammedan control continued until the eighteenth century, when the death of Aurangzeb and the invasion of Nadir Shah resulted in an alliance among the three leading Rajput chiefs. Internal dissension, however, weakened the alliance and about 1756 the Mahrattas, a neighboring Indian people, took possession of Ajmere. By the end of the century they subdued almost all of Rajputana. At the opening of the Pindari war in 1817, Rajputana passed under British protection and the Mahratta menace was ended. In the mutiny of 1857 most of the rajputs remained loyal.

RAJPUTS.—"The Rajpoots, or sons of Rajas, are the noblest and proudest race in India. . . . They claim to be representatives of the Kshatriyas; the descendants of those Aryan warriors who con-

quered the Punjab and Hindustan in times primeval. . . . The Rajpoot empire of a remote antiquity is represented in the present day by the three kingdoms of Meywar, Marwar, and Jeypore. Meywar, better known as Chittore or Udaipore, is the smallest but most important of the three. It forms the garden of Rajpootana to the eastward of the Aravulli range. [From Udaipur the Gurkhas, a Rajput race, settled in the province of Gurkha, in Nepal, and became rulers of the whole kingdom.] Westward of the range is the dreary desert of Marwar. Northward of Meywar lies the territory of Jeypore, the intermediate kingdom between Meywar and the Mussulmans. . . . In former times the sovereigns of Meywar were known as the Ranas of Chittore; they are now known as the Ranas of Udaipore. They belong to the blue blood of Rajpoot aristocracy."—J. T. Wheeler, *History of India*, v. 3, ch. 7.—"To the Sesodia clan, the oldest and purest blood in India, belong the States of Odeypoor, Banswarra, Pertabgarh, and Shahpura; to the Rathore clan, the State of Jodhpoor and Bikanir; Jeypoor and Ulwar to the Kuchwaha, and so on."—A. C. Lyall, *Asiatic studies*, ch. 8.—See also INDIA: 647-1310; RAJPUTANA.

ALSO IN: J. Tod, *Annals and antiquities of Rajast'han*.

RAKOCZY, House of. See HUNGARY: 1660-1664.

RALEIGH, Sir Walter (c. 1552-1618), British explorer, poet and historian. Attempted colonization of Virginia; engaged in quest for El Dorado; accused of conspiracy against James I and imprisoned, 1603; freed in 1616, but executed under his old sentence in 1618. See AMERICA: 1584-1586; 1587-1590; EL DORADO, QUEST OF; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1530-1660; HISTORY: 24; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

RALLI, Rallis or Rhalles, Demetrios (1844-1921), Greek statesman. Prime minister, 1897, 1903, 1905, 1909, 1920-1921. See GREECE: 1909; 1920-1921; TURKEY: 1897.

RAM MOHAN ROY (1774-1833), Indian religious reformer. Founded the Brahma Samaj or Theistic church, 1828. See BRAHMA SAMAJ; INDIA: 1815-1922.

RAMAPO WATER CONTRACT (1899). See NEW YORK CITY: 1899-1900.

RAMAYANA, Indian epic. See HINDU LITERATURE: Epic poetry.

RAMBOUILLET, Hôtel de.—The marquise de Rambouillet, who drew around herself, at Paris, the famous coterie which took its name from her hospitable house, was the daughter of a French nobleman, Jean de Vivonne, sieur de Saint-Gohard, afterwards first marquis de Pisani, who married a Roman lady of the noble family of the Strozzi. Catherine de Vivonne was born of this union in 1588, and in 1600, less than twelve years old, became the wife of Charles d'Angennes, vidame du Mans afterwards marquis de Rambouillet. Her married life was more than half a century in duration; she was the mother of seven children, and she survived her husband thirteen years. During the minority of the husband the ancient residence of his family had been sold, and from 1610 to 1617 the marquis and marquise were engaged in building a new Hôtel de Rambouillet, which the latter is credited with having, in great part, designed. Her house being finished, she opened it "to her friends and acquaintances, and her receptions, which continued until the Fronde (1648) [see FRANCE: 1647-1648; 1649], brought together every evening the choicest society of the capital,

and produced a profound influence upon the manners and literature of the day. The marquise ceased attending court some years before the death of Henry IV., her refinement and pure character finding there an uncongenial atmosphere. The marquise was not alone a woman of society, but was carefully educated and fond of literature. Consequently the reunions at the Hôtel de Rambouillet were distinguished by a happy combination of rank and letters. Still more important was the new position assumed by the hostess and the ladies who frequented her house. Until the XVIIth century the crudest views prevailed as to the education and social position of woman. It was at the Hôtel de Rambouillet that her position as the intellectual companion of man was first recognized, and this position of equality, and the deferential respect which followed it, had a powerful influence in refining the rude manners of men of rank whose lives had been passed in camps, and of men of letters who had previously enjoyed few opportunities for social polish. The two classes met for the first time on a footing of equality, and it resulted in elevating the occupation of letters, and imbuing men of rank with a fondness for intellectual pursuits."—T. F. Crane, *Introduction to "La Société française au dix-septième siècle."*—See also FRENCH LITERATURE: 1608-1715.

ALSO IN: A. G. Mason, *Women of the French salons*, ch. 2-7.

RAMBOUILLET DECREE (1810). See U.S.A.: 1810-1812.

RAMEAU, Jean Philippe (1683-1764), French composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1645-1764.

RAMESSES I (fl. c. 1355 B.C.), Egyptian pharaoh. Founder of the nineteenth dynasty. See EGYPT: About B.C. 1350-1200.

Rameses II, The Great (c. 1340-1273 B.C.), Egyptian pharaoh. Son of Seti I. See EGYPT: About B.C. 1350-1200; ABYDOS, EGYPT; JEWS: Children of Israel in Egypt; Exodus; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 2; PHENICIANS: Origin; SCULPTURE: Egyptian.

Rameses III (fl. c. 1230 B.C.). Egyptian pharaoh. See PHENICIANS: Origin.

RAMESIDS, nineteenth dynasty (14th-12th centuries B.C.) of Egyptian kings, descended from Rameses I. See EGYPT: About B.C. 1350-1200.

RAMILLIES, Battle of (1706). See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707.

RAMIREZ, Juan (c. 1765-c. 1823), Spanish general. Leader against the Peruvians, 1814. See PERU: 1550-1816.

RAMIRO I, king of Aragon, 1035-1067.

Ramiro II, king of Aragon, 1134-1137.

Ramiro I, king of Leon and the Asturias, or Oviedo, 842-850.

Ramiro II (d. 950), king of Leon and the Asturias, or Oviedo, 931-950.

Ramiro III, king of Leon and the Asturias, or Oviedo, 967-982.

RAMLEH, town in Palestine, about twenty-five miles northwest of Jerusalem. It was a scene of fighting between the Turks and the British in 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c. 2, iv.

RAMNENSSES, or **Ramnes**, one of the three early divisions of the Roman people. See ROME: Beginnings and name; Genesis.

RAMON BERENGUER I, king of Catalonia and count of Barcelona, 1035-1076. See CATALONIA: 712-1196.

Ramon Berenguer III, king of Catalonia and count of Barcelona, 1082-1131. See CATALONIA: 712-1196.

Ramon Berenguer IV, king of Catalonia and count of Barcelona, 1131-1162. See CATALONIA: 712-1196.

Ramon Berenguer II, count of Barcelona, 1076-1082. See CATALONIA: 712-1196.

RAMOTH-GILEAD.—The strong fortress of Ramoth-Gilead, on the frontier of Samaria and Syria, was the object and the scene of frequent warfare between the Israelites and the Arameans of Damascus. It was there that king Ahab of Samaria, in alliance with Judah, was killed in battle, fighting against Ben-hadad of Damascus.

Also in: 1 *Kings*, xxi.—Dean Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church*, lecture 33.

RAMPOLLA, Mariano del Tindaro, Count (1843-1913), Italian cardinal. Secretary of state under Pope Leo XIII, 1885-1903. See PAPACY: 1896 (September); 1911-1914.

RAMSAY, Sir William (1852-1916), British chemist. See CHEMISTRY: Radio-activity: Rutherford's work; NOBEL PRIZES: Chemistry: 1904.

RAMSCAPELLE, Belgian town south of Nieuport, about four miles from the North sea coast. It was a scene of fighting in 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: u, 7; v, 1; v, 2.

RAMSES, or Raames, ancient district and town in lower Egypt. See JEWS: Children of Israel.

RANAS, or Rajas, of Udaipore, or Chitture, native Hindu sovereigns. See RAJPUTS.

RANAVALONA (1864-1916), queen of Madagascar, 1883-1900. See MADAGASCAR: 1894-1899; 1900-1916.

RANCOURT, town in northern France, about five miles north of Peronne. It was a scene of fighting between the British and the Germans in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 15; k, 3.

RAND, Gold fields of the, in southern Transvaal. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: 3; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1885-1890; 1920-1921.

RAND SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.—“The Rand School of Social Science has . . . [since 1906] carried on an educational campaign among the working people of New York City, and for about half that time its work has, through its full-time correspondence, and research departments, been national in scope. It is owned and controlled by a membership corporation, known as the American Socialist Society, and its administration is carried on by a board of directors, which has the power of electing officers and heads of departments annually. The school is, as indicated, an adjunct to the Socialist Party, having the primary function of ‘offering the general public facilities for the study of socialism and related subjects and giving socialists instruction and training calculated to make them more efficient workers for the socialist and labor movement.’ Organized in 1906-1907 with 250 members, the classes had increased to 5,000 in 1918-1919, the attendance ranging during the six busiest months of the year from 1,500 to 2,000 per week. . . . [During 1918-1919 the attendance exclusive of extension and correspondence classes, ran above 5,000.] The training course . . . is a ‘systematic and extensive curriculum of instruction and supervised practice, the aim of which is to prepare and equip students for work in the party, the unions, and other branches of the working-class movement as secretaries, organizers, propagandists, teachers, etc.’ [Economic, political, and socio-historical subjects, together with English, public-speaking and organization methods, constitute the central feature

of the curriculum.] Hitherto, only full-time training for a period of six months has been available, and from 1911 to 1916 an aggregate of 125 young men and women were graduated under this plan. At the beginning of the 1918-1919 session, part-time work was introduced. The instruction given under the part-time plan covers practically the same ground as that of the full-time classes, but extends over a period of approximately two years. . . . Every student must possess a working knowledge of the English language, but beyond this requirement no definite entrance qualifications are demanded.”—C. P. Sweeney, *United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin no. 271, Aug., 1920, pp. 59-61.*—“In the summer of 1919 the office of the Attorney General of the State of New York tried to close the Rand School of Social Science, on the ground that it was the center of seditious activities in the entire State. The attempt failed. The movement originated with the Lusk Committee, appointed by the legislature to investigate radical activities. Having failed in its first efforts to destroy the Rand School the Lusk Committee tried again through legislative action. In March, 1920, Senator Lusk introduced in the Senate a bill providing for the licensing of private schools by the board of Regents. At the same time another measure was introduced providing additional qualifications for teachers in the public schools of the State. [These measures were defeated. They were again introduced in the legislative session of 1921 and again opposed by the Emergency Educational Conference assisted as in 1920 by a number of active civic and social organizations. Nevertheless they became law on May 12, 1921. In order to test the constitutionality of the school licensing law] the Rand School opened for its fall term on September 26 without having applied for a license. On October 24 the State began an action in the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, in the form of an application for a permanent injunction to restrain the American Socialist Society from conducting and operating the Rand School without license. . . . It was agreed that pending the determination of the question of constitutionality there should be no interference with the work of the Rand School. [On May 27th, 1923, the Lusk laws were declared unconstitutional and the cases were dropped.]”—*American Labor Year Book*, 1921-1912, pp. 44, 45-46.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: United States

RANDOLPH, Edmund Jennings (1753-1813), American statesman. Governor of Virginia, 1786-1788; secretary of state, 1790-1795. See U.S.A.: 1787; 1787-1789; 1789-1792.

RANDOLPH, Edward (c. 1620-c. 1694), British colonial agent in New England, 1675-1689. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1671-1686.

RANDOLPH, John, of Roanoke, (1773-1833), American statesman. United States senator, 1825-1827. See U.S.A.: 1804-1805; DOUGHFACES; QUIDS.

RANDOLPH, Peyton (1723-1775), American patriot. President of the First Continental Congress, 1774; delegate to the Second Continental Congress, 1775. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September).

RANGAVES, or Rhankaves, Alexander Rizos (1810-1892), Greek statesman and poet. See GREEK LITERATURE: Modern.

RANGOON, capital and chief city of Burma. India, on the Rangoon river, about twenty-one miles from the sea. It is a great port and commercial center, and contains in the Shwe Dagon

or Golden Pagoda, one of the most sacred Buddhist temples, which is an object of pilgrimage from all parts of the Orient. The population in 1921 was 341,962. It was seized by the British in 1824 and retaken by the Burmese. The British again captured it in 1852. See also INDIA: 1823-1833; 1852.

RANJIT SINGH. See RUNJIT SINGH.

RANKE, Leopold von (1795-1886), German historian. See HISTORY: 26; 27.

RANDELL-HUMPHREYS BILL. See MISSISSIPPI RIVER: 1917.

RANTERS, MUGGLETONIANS. — "These [the Ranters] made it their business,' says [Richard Baxter, the great Puritan divine], 'to set up the Light of Nature under the name of Christ in Man, and to dishonour and cry down the Church, the Scripture, and the present Ministry, and our worship and ordinances; and called men to hearken to Christ within them. But withal they conjoined a cursed doctrine of Libertinism, which brought them to all abominable filthiness of life. They taught, as the Familists, that God regardeth not the actions of the outward man, but of the heart, and that to the pure all things are pure.' . . . Of no sect do we hear more in the pamphlets and newspapers between 1650 and 1655, though there are traces of them of earlier date. . . . Sometimes confounded with the Ranters, but really distinguishable, were some crazed men, whose crazes had taken a religious turn, and whose extravagances became contagious. Such was a John Robins, first heard of about 1650, when he went about, sometimes as God Almighty, sometimes as Adam raised from the dead. . . . One heard next, in 1652, of two associates, called John Reeve and Ludovick Muggleton, who professed to be 'the two last Spiritual Witnesses (Rev. xi.) and alone true Prophets of the Lord Jesus Christ, God alone blessed to all eternity.' They believed in a real man-shaped God, existing from all eternity, who had come upon earth as Jesus Christ, leaving Moses and Elijah to represent him in Heaven." Muggleton died in 1698, "at the age of 90, leaving a sect called The Muggletonians."—D. Masson, *Life of John Milton*, v. 5, pp. 17-20.

RAOUF PASHA, governor-general of the Sudan, 1879-1882. See EGYPT: 1870-1883.

RAPALLO, Battle of (1425). See ITALY: 1412-1447.

Massacre at (1494). See ITALY: 1494-1496.

RAPALLO, Treaty of (1920).—"The treaty between Italy and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, which was signed [at Rapallo, November 12th, 1920, and ratified by all parties by December 29th, constitutes a] . . . virtual revocation of the secret treaty of London of April 26, 1915. [See LONDON: TREATY OR PACT OF.] This treaty [which balances] Italian claims in the north against Jugo-Slav claims in Dalmatia, . . . is even less favorable to Jugo-Slavia than was the 'ultimatum' of January, 1920, against which President Wilson protested. One of the specific objections to the ultimatum line was that it would make difficult the operation by Jugo-Slavia of the railway north of Fiume. The Rapallo boundary deprives Jugo-Slavia of the line of the railway as far as the junction-point of St. Peter, on the direct route from Fiume to Laibach. In addition, solid blocks of Slovenes are thrown into Italian territory. This line, therefore is Italy's 'compensation' for her surrender of claims to Fiume and Dalmatia. . . . Italy and Jugo-Slavia recognize the complete liberty and independence of the State of Fiume, and engage to respect it as such

in perpetuo. The State of Fiume embraces the *corpus separatum* as at present delimited, including the city and district of Fiume, together with the *lisière* to connect with Italian territory. No mention is made of any supervision or control over Fiume by the League of Nations. Adjacent to Fiume and separated by a stream only a few yards in width is Susak, which goes to Jugo-Slavia. . . . Zara and its environs and the islands of Lagosta and Pelagosa are given to Italy. The Treaty of Rapallo, therefore, does not diverge very greatly from the Treaty of London as to the boundary east of Trieste and north of Fiume. Dalmatia goes to Jugo-Slavia as compensation for her concessions in the north, and Fiume becomes an independent state. To what extent the terms of the treaty will permit Fiume to maintain her economic position remains to be seen. It may be a second Cracow?"—J. S. Reeves, *Treaty of Rapallo* (*American Journal of International Law*, Apr., 1921).—See also ADRIATIC QUESTION; FIUME: 1915-1918, to 1919-1921; BALKAN STATES: 1921: Jugo-Slavia.

RAPALLO, Treaty of (1922).—During the progress of the Genoa conference (see GENOA CONFERENCE [1922]), a treaty of amity and coöperation was concluded between the Soviet government and the German Republic at Rapallo on April 16. The text runs:

The German State, represented by Dr. Rathenau, and the Soviet Government, represented by M. Tchicherin, have agreed upon the following stipulations:

Article 1. The two States have agreed to regulate, according to the following principles, matters between them which refer to war-time problems between Russia and Germany. *Sub-clause A:* The German State and the Soviet Republic renounce reciprocally all indemnities referring to their war outlay and all indemnities referring to war damage, that is to say, to damage suffered by their citizens in the theater of war through military operations, including requisitions made in enemy territory. The two parties renounce also the indemnities for damage caused to the citizens of one of the two parties as a result of exceptional laws of war, as well as by coercive measures carried out by the State organizations of either party. *Sub-clause B:* The legal, public and private relations affected by the state of war, including the question of the treatment of merchant ships which may have fallen into the hands of the opposite party, will be regulated according to principles of reciprocity. *Sub-clause C:* Germany and Russia renounce reciprocally the payment of costs for prisoners of war. The German State renounces also the repayment of the costs incurred for Russian soldiers interned in Germany. The Russian State, for its part, renounces repayment for all that Germany has received of the enormous amount of war material taken into Germany by these interned prisoners.

Art. 2. Germany renounces her claim resulting from the application of laws and of measures hitherto taken by the Soviet Government toward the German subjects and their private rights, as well as the rights of the German State and States against Russia. Germany gives up also measures taken against the Soviet Government and its organs, or against citizens of the Soviet State and their private rights, with the exception that the Soviet State shall not put into practice any similar claims against a third State.

Art. 3. Diplomatic and consular relations be-

tween the German State and the Soviet Republic shall be restored immediately. In regard to the admission of the respective Consuls, a special agreement shall be made.

Art. 4. The two States have also agreed that the general legal position of the citizens of one of the States in the territory of the other and the regulation of commercial and administrative relations shall be based on the principle of the most favored nation. The principle does not apply to the preferences and advantages that the Soviet Republic concedes to any other republic or similar State that formerly belonged to the Russian Empire.

Art. 5. The two Governments will deal with the economic needs of the two countries with reciprocal feelings of goodwill. An exchange of views will take place in regard to the fundamental settlement of this problem on an international basis. The German State declares itself ready to do all in its power to protect and facilitate the negotiations of private firms.

Art. 6. The first and fourth articles of this treaty are applicable after ratification. The others come into force immediately.

Despite repeated denials from German and Russian official sources that there were any secret clauses in the Treaty of Rapallo, the Constantinople correspondent of the *Chicago Tribune* cabled on August 21, 1922, the text of a confidential report from Karl Radek "circulated to the political departments of the Soviet Foreign Office," revealing the existence of secret clauses in that treaty. These clauses refer to important economic concessions granted by Russia to Germany. They are:

First.—A fifteen-year lease to German land banks of the sugar beet territories in the Ukraine around Kharkov and Kiev. . . .

Second.—The Donetz coal basin is to be let to the Stinnes financial group for a period of fifteen years, exploitation being under direct control of the German General Staff Council. . . .

Third.—Colonization of Kuban by a treaty by 1,000 German reservists, with the right reserved to these colonists to dispose of all concessions in the Maikop petroleum fields.

Fourth.—Colonization of the Terek district with 15,000 German reservists as concessionaires with 25 per cent. of the Grohni oil wells granted to the Krupp interests and the balance remaining in the hands of M. Krassin for disposal in other quarters. —*New York Times*, Aug. 22, 1922.

RAPALLO CONFERENCE. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: d, 5.

RAPE OF THE SABINE WOMEN. See **ROME**: Ancient kingdom: B.C. 753-510.

RAPES OF SUSSEX.—"The singular division of Sussex [England] into six 'rapes' [each of which is subdivided into hundreds] seems to have been made for military purposes. The old Norse 'hreppr' denoted a nearly similar territorial division."—T. P. Taswell-Langmead, *English constitutional history*, ch. 1, footnote.—"The 'reebning,' or mensuration by the rope or line, supplied the technical term of 'hrepp' to the glossary of Scandinavian legislation: archaeologists have therefore pronounced an opinion that the 'Rapes' of Sussex, the divisions ranging from the Channel shore to the Suthrige border, were, according to Norwegian fashion, thus plotted out by the Conqueror."—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, bk. 1, ch. 5.

RAPHAEL SANZIO (1483-1520), Italian painter. See **PAINTING**: Italian: High Renaissance.

RAPHIA, Battle of (277 B.C.). See **SELEUCIDÆ**: B.C.: 224-187.

RAPID INDIANS, name applied to the Arapahoes and other tribes.

RAPID TRANSIT. See **NEW YORK CITY**: 1860-1920; 1919-1923; 1921: State transit commission.

RAPIDAN, chief tributary of the Rappahannock river, Virginia. During the Civil War it was the scene of a campaign conducted by Meade and Lee. See **U.S.A.**: 1863 (July-November: Virginia).

RAPIDE PLAT CANAL. See **CANALS**: American: Great Lakes.

RAPIDES DES PERES, site of an old Jesuit mission on the Fox river, about five miles north of the city of Green Bay, Wisconsin. The first church was built in 1669. See **WISCONSIN**: 1658-1669.

RAPOPORT, Samuel Judah Löb (1790-1867), Jewish soldier. See **JEWS**: 18th-19th centuries.

RAPP, George (1770-1847), founder of the society of the Harmonists. See **SOCIALISM**: 1805-1827.

RAPPAHANNOCK STATION, Battle of. See **U.S.A.**: 1863 (July-November: Virginia).

RAPPAREES, TORIES.—"Ejected proprietors [in Ireland, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries] whose names might be traced in the annals of the Four Masters, or around the sculptured crosses of Clonmacnoise, might be found in abject poverty hanging around the land which had lately been their own, shrinking from servile labour as from an intolerable pollution, and still receiving a secret homage from their old tenants. In a country where the clan spirit was intensely strong, and where the new landlords were separated from their tenants by race, by religion, and by custom, these fallen and impoverished chiefs naturally found themselves at the head of the discontented classes; and for many years after the Commonwealth, and again after the Revolution, they and their followers, under the names of tories and rapparees, waged a kind of guerrilla war of depredations upon their successors. After the first years of the 18th century, however, this form of crime appears to have almost ceased; and although we find the names of tories and rapparees on every page of the judicial records, the old meaning was no longer attached to them, and they had become the designations of ordinary felons, at large in the country."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England, 18th century*, v. 2, ch. 7.—"The distinction between the Irish foot soldier and the Irish Rapparee had never been very strongly marked. It now disappeared [during the war in Ireland between James II and William of Orange (1691)]. Great part of the army was turned loose to live by marauding."—T. B. Macaulay, *History of England*, v. 4, ch. 17.—See also **IRELAND**: 1689.

ALSO IN: J. A. Froude, *English in Ireland*, v. 3, bk. 9, ch. 1.

RARATONGA, or Rarotonga, largest island of the Cook, or Hervey, group, in the eastern Pacific. The island "is the most fertile and valuable of the Cook group, and it has the largest population [3,503 in 1921]. The island has been exceptionally favored by nature not only with delightful scenic attractions, but also with a remarkably rich and productive soil. The natives are very closely akin to the Maoris of New Zealand. The seat and center of the government of the Cook Islands—the double township of Avarua and Avatin—is

situated on the north or lee side of the island of Raratonga, opposite two small openings in the coral reef."—*Colonial office list*, 1920, p. 286.—See also NEW ZEALAND: 1901.

RARITANS, north-American Indian tribe. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

RASCOL, religious schism in the Russian church. See RUSSIA: 1655-1659; 1697-1704: Peter the Great: His reform, etc.

RASENNA. See ETRUSCANS.

RASHIA, Kingdom of, established by the Serbians in the twelfth century. See ALBANIA: Medieval.

RASK, Rasmus Christian (1787-1832), Danish philologist. See PHILOLOGY: 14.

RASKOLNIKI, or Raskolniks, Russian sect, dissenters from the established Greek church. See RUSSIA: 1655-1659; 1697-1704: Peter the Great: His reform, etc.

RASOHERINA (d. 1868), queen of Madagascar, 1863-1868. See MADAGASCAR: 1810-1894.

RASPUTIN, Gregory Efimovitch (1871-1916), Russian monk and adventurer. See RUSSIA: 1916: Opposition of Duma to cabinet; 1916-1917 (January-March).

RASSAM, Hormuzd (1826-1910), Turkish Assyriologist. See ABYSSINIA: 1854-1889.

RASTADT, or Rastatt, town in Germany, on the Murg river, three miles from its junction with the Rhine and fifteen miles southwest of Karlsruhe. American prisoners were concentrated here during the World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIII. Prisoners and prisons: a.

RASTADT, Congress of: 1713-1714.—At the conclusion of the first congress, Marshal Villars and Prince Eugene signed at Rastadt the preliminaries of the peace which ended the War of the Spanish Succession. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1797-1799.—A second congress met at Rastadt to settle questions at issue between France and Germany. It was agreed to cede the left bank of the Rhine to France and to secularize parts of German territory. The congress was unsuccessful for war soon followed its termination.—See also AUSTRIA: 1798-1806; FRANCE: 1799 (April-September).

RATÆ, or Rægæ, Roman town in Britain, "one of the largest and most important of the midland cities, adorned with rich mansions and temples, and other public buildings. Its site is now occupied by the town of Leicester."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.—See also LEICESTER.

RATE REGULATION, Railway: England. See RAILROADS: 1759-1881; 1838-1873.

United States. See RAILROADS: 1870-1876; 1887-1906; 1920: Esch-Cummins Act.

RATHENAU, Walter (1867-1922), German statesman. Minister of foreign affairs, 1922. See GERMANY: 1922 (June-July).

RATHMINES, Battle of (1649). See IRELAND: 1646-1649.

RATHORE CLAN, division of the Rajput race of India. See RAJPUTS.

RATHS.—"Of those ancient Rathes, or Hill-fortresses, which formed the dwellings of the old Irish chiefs, and belonged evidently to a period when cities were not yet in existence, there are to be found numerous remains throughout the country. This species of earthen work is distinguished from the artificial mounds, or tumuli, by its being formed upon natural elevations, and always surrounded by a rampart."—T. Moore, *History of Ireland*, ch. 9.

RATHSMANN, Rathsfreund, or Rathsherr, administrative council of German free imperial

towns. See CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.

RATIONALISM. See ATHENS: B. C. 461-431: Age of rationalism, etc.; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization: Reasons for the greatness, etc.; MIRACLES: Post-apostolic, etc.; PAPACY: 1864.

RATISBON, or Regensburg, city of Bavaria, Germany, on the right bank of the Danube opposite the influx of the Regen. In 1919 the population numbered 52,503.

1633.—Taken by the Swedish-German forces. See GERMANY: 1632-1634.

1803.—Made ecclesiastical electoral city. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

1806.—Electorate moved back to Mainz. See GERMANY: 1805-1806.

1809.—Battle of. See GERMANY: 1809 (January-June).

Catholic League of. See PAPACY: 1522-1525.

RATISBON, Diets of: 1532. See GERMANY: 1530-1532.

1541. See EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Catholic Reformation; GERMANY: 1533-1546.

1630. See GERMANY: 1630.

1636. See GERMANY: 1636-1637.

1801. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

RATKE, or Ratchius, Wolfgang (1571-1635), German educator. See EDUCATION: Modern: 1571-1635.

RATZEL, Friedrich (1844-1904), German geographer. See HISTORY: 33.

RAUCOUX, Battle of (1746). See BELGIUM: 1746-1747.

RAUDINE PLAIN, Battle of (101 B. C.). See CIMBRI AND TEUTONES: B. C. 113-101.

RAURACI, ancient tribe "whose origin is perhaps German, established on both banks of the Rhine, towards the elbow which that river forms at Bâle."—Napoleon III, *History of Cæsar*, bk. 3, ch. 2, footnote.

RAVACHOL (d. 1892), French anarchist. See ANARCHISM: 1892-1894.

RAVAILLAC, François (1578-1610), assassin of Henry IV of France, 1610. See FRANCE: 1599-1610.

RAVENIKA, Parliament of.—"Henry, the second emperor of the Latin empire of Romania, or empire of Constantinople, convened a general parliament or high-court of all his vassals, at Ravenika, in 1209, for the determining of the feudal relations of all the subjects of the empire. Ravenika is in ancient Chalkidike, some fifty miles from Thessalonica."—G. Finlay, *History of Greece from its conquest by the Crusaders*, ch. 4, sect. 4.

RAVENNA, one of the oldest cities of Italy, in the province of Ravenna, of which it is the capital. It is connected with the Adriatic sea by a canal six miles long. Its population in 1921 was 72,023.

B. C. 50.—Cæsar's advance on Rome. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 50-49.

A. D. 404.—Made capital of Western empire.—"The houses of Ravenna, whose appearance may be compared to that of Venice, were raised on the foundation of wooden piles. The adjacent country, to the distance of many miles, was a deep and impassable morass; and the artificial causeway which connected Ravenna with the continent might be easily guarded, or destroyed, on the approach of a hostile army. These morasses were interspersed, however, with vineyards; and though the soil was exhausted by four or five crops, the town enjoyed a more plentiful supply of wine than of fresh water. The air, instead of receiving the sickly and almost pestilential exhalations of low and marshy grounds, was distin-

guished, like the neighbourhood of Alexandria, as uncommonly pure and salubrious; and this singular advantage was ascribed to the regular tides of the Adriatic. . . . This advantageous situation was fortified by art and labour; and, in the twentieth year of his age, the Emperor of the West [Honorius, 395-423 A.D.] anxious only for his personal safety, retired to the perpetual confinement of the walls and morasses of Ravenna. The example of Honorius was imitated by his feeble successors, the Gothic kings, and afterwards the exarchs, who occupied the throne and palace of the emperors; and till the middle of the eighth century Ravenna was considered as the seat of government and the capital of Italy."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 30.—See also **ROME: Empire: 404-408**.

Also IN: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*.
407.—Allegiance to Constantine.—Revolt against him. See **BRITAIN: 407**.

490-493.—Siege and capture by Theodoric.—Murder of Odoacer.—Capital of the Ostrogothic kingdom. See **ROME: Medieval city: 488-526**.

493-525.—Capital of Theodoric the Ostrogoth.—"The usual residence of Theodoric was Ravenna, with which city his name is linked as inseparably as those of Honorius or Placidia. The letters of Cassiodorus show his zeal for the architectural enrichment of this capital. Square blocks of stone were to be brought from Faenza, marble pillars to be transported from the palace on the Pincian Hill: the most skilful artists in mosaic were invited from Rome, to execute some of those very works which we still wonder at in the basilicas and baptisteries of the city by the Ronco. The chief memorials of his reign which Theodoric has left at Ravenna are a church, a palace, and a tomb."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 8.

539.—Surrender to Belisarius. See **BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 527-533; ROME: Medieval city: 535-553**.

554-751.—Exarchate. See **ROME: Medieval city: 554-800**.

728-751.—Decline and fall of exarchate. See **PAPACY: 728-774**.

803.—Embraced in Western empire by Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. See **VENICE: 697-810**.

1275.—Papal sovereignty confirmed by Rudolph of Hapsburg. See **GERMANY: 1273-1308**.

1512.—Taken by the French.—Battle before the city.—Defeat of the Spaniards. See **ITALY: 1510-1513**.

1527.—Seized by Venice. See **ITALY: 1527-1529**.

1859.—Incorporated in kingdom of Italy. See **ITALY: 1859-1861**.

RAVENSBURG, town in Württemberg, Germany, on the Schussen river, twenty-two miles northeast of Constance. The first paper mill was erected here in 1290. See **PRINTING AND THE PRESS: Before the 14th century**.

RAVENSPUR, town on the eastern coast of Yorkshire, England. It was the landing place of Henry of Lancaster, July 4, 1399, when he came back from banishment to demand the crown of England from Richard II.

RAWA-RUSSKA, town of Galicia, about thirty miles northwest of Lemberg. In 1914 the Russians captured it, but were driven out the following year by the Austro-German forces. See **WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d 1; d 2; d 5**.

RAWLINS, John Aaron (1831-1869), American soldier. Chief of staff, 1862-1865; secretary of war, 1869. See **U.S.A.: 1869-1877**.

RAWLINSON, Sir Henry Creswicke (1810-1895), British soldier, diplomat and archaeologist.

Member of Parliament, 1858, 1865-1868; minister to Persia, 1859-1860; member of the Council of India, 1858-1859, 1868-1895. See **ASSYRIA: Art and archaeological remains; PHIOLOGY: 13**.

RAWLINSON, Henry Seymour Rawlinson, 1st Baron (1864-), British general. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c; c, 27; d, 5; j, 1; o, 2; w, 1; w, 5; w, 6; w, 28**.

RAYAK, town in northern Palestine, near Mt. Lebanon, about thirty miles from the coast. It was a scene of fighting during 1918. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 22**.

RAYLEIGH, John William Strutt, 3rd Baron (1842-1919), British physicist. See **NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1904**.

RAYMOND OF TOULOUSE. See **TOULOUSE**, RAYMOND, COUNT OF.

RAYMOND ROGER (d. 1209), viscount of Beziers and Carcassone. Leader of the Albigenses. See **ALBIGENSES: 1209**.

RAYMOND, Battle of. See **U.S.A.: 1863 (April-July: On the Mississippi)**.

RAZIN, Stephen Timofeevitch, or Stenka (d. 1671), Cossack leader and rebel. See **RUSSIA: 1645-1676**.

RE, Île de, island in the Bay of Biscay, about two miles from the French coast, opposite La Rochelle. It was captured by Soubise in 1625. See **FRANCE: 1624-1626**.

READ, Albert Cushing (1887-), American aviator. See **AVIATION: Important flights since 1900: 1919 (May)**.

READ, George (1733-1798), American patriot. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, 1776; member of the Constitutional Convention, 1787; United States senator, 1789-1793. See **U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration**.

READING, Rufus Daniel Isaacs, 1st Earl of (1860-), British jurist. Member of Parliament, 1904-1913; attorney-general, 1910-1913; became lord chief justice of England, 1913; appointed governor-general of India, 1921. See **ENGLAND: 1922 (February-April)**.

READING UNIVERSITY EXTENSION COLLEGE, England. See **EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: England and Wales**.

READJUSTERS, faction of the Democratic party in Virginia in 1878, which opposed the refunding of the state debt. They combined with the Republicans; gained control of the state, and elected their leader William Mahone, to the United States senate in 1881.

REAGAN, John Henninger (1818-1905), American lawyer. United States senator, 1887-1891. See **RAILROADS: 1887-1906**.

REAL, Spanish-American coin. See **SPANISH COINS**.

REAL PROPERTY LAWS. See **DE DONIS CONDITIONALIBUS**.

REAMS'S STATION, Battle of. See **U.S.A.: 1864 (August: Virginia)**.

REAPER. See **INVENTIONS: 19th century: Reaper**.

REASON, Worship of. See **ATHEISM; FRANCE: 1793 (November)**.

REBATE RESTRICTION, Railway. See **RAILROADS: United States: 1887-1906; TRUSTS: United States: 1903-1906; 1904-1909**.

REBECCAITES, or Daughters of Rebecca.—Between 1830 and 1844, a general outbreak occurred in Wales against what were thought to be the excessive tolls collected on the turnpike roads. Finding that peaceful agitation was of no avail the people determined to destroy the turnpike gates, and did so very extensively, the movement

spreading from county to county. They applied to themselves the Bible promise given to the descendants of Isaac's wife, that they should possess the "gate" of their enemies, and were known as the Daughters, or Children of Rebecca, or Rebeccaites. Their proceedings assumed at last a generally riotous and lawless character, and were repressed by severe measures. At the same time Parliament removed the toll-gate grievance by an amended law.—Based on W. N. Molesworth, *History of England, 1830-1874*, v. 2, p. 131.

REBECQUI, François Trophine (c. 1760-1793), French revolutionary leader. See FRANCE: 1793 (June).

REBELLION LOSSES BILL (1849). See CANADA: 1843-1849; MONTREAL: 1849.

REBS, nickname for Confederate soldiers. See BOYS IN BLUE.

RECALL: Definition and purpose.—States which have adopted recall.—Advantages.—Recall of judges.—The recall is "the power to remove, before the end of his term, any official elected by the voters. Although existing for a long while in some Swiss cantons, it made its first American appearance under the title of the 'imperative mandate' in the Populist propaganda . . . [late in the nineteenth century] and was first given practical recognition in the Los Angeles charter of 1903. [The recall was used in Greece and Rome and among the early Germanic tribes. In the United States, the Articles of Confederation and the first constitution of Pennsylvania, that of 1776, contained provisions for the recall of elected officers by the assemblies which chose them. The practice was later abandoned because it was believed that the short term would sufficiently protect the people from abuse of power. In 1903 it was revived in its modern form (see INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States)]. Since that time it has found its way into the constitutions and general laws of several states, notably those of Oregon, Iowa, South Dakota, Washington, Oklahoma and California. [In 1918 South Dakota adopted a peculiar form of recall, by which public officials may be recalled by the party which secured their election or appointment. The recall may be limited to administrative officials or it may include the judiciary.] It has also been provided for in the special charters of more than a hundred cities [see COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES: 1907], most of them municipalities which have adopted the commission type of government. . . . [Upon securing the signatures of a stated percentage of voters, ranging as a rule from fifteen to twenty-five per cent, the question of continuing a particular officer is submitted to popular vote at a recall or removal election.] Unless the incumbent receives the highest number of votes among the candidates offering themselves, he is recalled; that is, he leaves office and his place is taken by that candidate who did receive the largest number of votes. Ordinarily this successor fills out only the unexpired term. It is frequently provided, in order to prevent abuses of the recall procedure, that no removal petition may be filed until after an officer has been at least six months in his post and that thereafter a petition may not be filed more than once during his term of office. The constitutionality of the recall has invariably been upheld by the courts. . . . In the amended Boston charter of 1909 a modified system of recall was established in connection with the mayoralty. In providing for a four-year mayoral term the framers

of those amendments deemed it advisable to entrust to the voters the power of terminating a mayor's tenure at the end of his second year in office. It happens that the state elections in Massachusetts take place in November and that the Boston municipal elections are held in January following. At the state elections, accordingly, the voters are asked (and this without the filing of any petition on their part) whether they desire an election for the post of mayor at the forthcoming January polling. If a majority of the registered voters pronounce in the affirmative then the incumbent of the mayoralty vacates his office and a new election for a four-year term is held. The question goes on the state ballot once every four years, that is, whenever a mayor's term is halfway run. The chief argument in favor of the recall, as advanced by friends of the expedient, is its efficacy as an agent of unremitting popular control over men in public office. . . . It is an application, in a wider sense, of that principle of ministerial responsibility which is a feature of English government and which enables the course of public policy to be altered at any moment by the recall of a cabinet at the hands of the House of Commons."—W. B. Monro, ed., *Initiative, referendum and recall*, pp. 42-43, 44-46, introduction.—Dissolution of parliament is another application of the recall used effectively in Great Britain. From time to time parliament . . . "is voluntarily dissolved in order to refer some important question to the decision of the people. Indeed, it is the rule to ascertain the will of the constituencies by a dissolution when an important new measure is introduced. In the twenty-three years, from the Congress of Berlin to the South African war, including the period of the Egyptian war, parliament was dissolved eight times in order to ascertain by a 'referendum' the will of the people on important foreign and domestic measures, including foreign wars, the Irish land act, Irish home rule, the corrupt practice act, the franchise act, the redistribution of seats, and public education. Within the last few years [written in 1912] there were two dissolutions in quick succession in order to ascertain the will of the people on a new system of land taxation. It must be remembered that the dissolution of parliament also involves a change of the executive. It is as though the President and congress were both subjected to a 'recall' at one election."—G. W. Guthrie, *Initiative, referendum and recall* (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Sept., 1912).—"In its administrative departments the city requires men who will combine a responsive attitude with some executive skill and judgment. The emphasis, indeed, ought to go upon the latter qualities. The recall provision, however, puts the whole emphasis upon the former. . . . The case for the recall provision in relation to administrative officials is correspondingly weakened. With respect to judicial officers it is weakest of all unless we are prepared to accept the revolutionary doctrine that the duty of a judge is that of a supplementary lawmaker. . . . [The chief advantage of the recall lies in the opportunity it offers to secure both administrative efficiency and accountability to the public.] The right men can be appointed, and after appointment, these can be held to the proper attitude. The foregoing assumes, however, that the power to recall an officer will be used sparingly and for good reason only. Otherwise it would be no more than an effective instrument of intimidation and blackmail. Nothing indeed can

be predicted with certainty concerning the merits and faults of the recall in operation until after it has had a trial over a considerable period and under varying degrees of political stress. If it can develop a good tradition, it may prove a highly useful addition to our machinery of local government. At its best it has great potentialities for good. But at its worst the recall contains endless possibilities of political demoralization and harm."

—W. B. Munro, ed., *Initiative, referendum and recall*, pp. 48, 51, introduction.—See also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Evolution of types.

ALSO IN: C. A. Beard and B. E. Schultz, *Documents on the state-wide initiative, referendum and recall*.—E. M. Bacon and M. Wyman, *Direct elections and law making by popular vote*, pp. 1-49.

—J. D. Barnett, *Initiative, referendum and recall in Oregon*.—C. A. Berdahl, *Richards primary* (*American Political Science Review*, Feb., 1920, pp. 103-104).—H. C. Lodge, *Compulsory initiative and referendum and the recall of judges*.

Recall of judicial decisions.—"Under the recall of judicial decisions, as adopted into the constitution of Colorado (in 1912), if a measure is declared unconstitutional by the supreme court of that state, a popular petition may require that the law be submitted to a popular vote for adoption or rejection. If a majority of the vote upon such a law is in its favor the law stands as a valid law independently of the judicial decision. Substantially what this amounts to is a referendum for the purpose of taking the particular law out from under the constitution as construed by the highest state court. In effect it is merely to this extent an amendment of the state constitution. . . . Colorado is the only state which has adopted a recall of judicial decisions, and since 1912 there seems to have been relatively little popular interest in such a proposal. . . . Amending the constitution has an advantage over the recall of judicial decisions in that it deals not merely with the specific law in dispute, but with the principle underlying the legislation; and also in that it makes a specific change in the terms of the constitution itself. If a recall of judicial decisions were employed it would be difficult for a court to know to what extent if any it was intended to lay down a rule for the future, or for a law upon the same subject different in text or in policy."—Illinois Legislative Reference Bureau, *Constitutional Convention Bulletin*, 1919, no. 2, pp. 69, 119.—During the presidential campaign of 1912, Theodore Roosevelt advocated the recall of judicial decisions. Summarizing his plea for the measure, he said: "I am not proposing anything in connection with the Supreme Court of the United States, or with the Federal Constitution. I am not proposing anything having any connection with ordinary suits, civil or criminal, as between individuals. I am not speaking of the recall of judges. I am proposing merely that in a certain class of cases involving the police power, when a state court has set aside as unconstitutional a law passed by the Legislature for the general welfare, the question of the validity of the law—which should depend, as Justice Holmes so well phrases it, upon the prevailing morality or preponderant opinion—be submitted for final determination to a vote of the people, taken after due time for consideration. And I contend that the people, in the nature of things, must be better judges of what is the preponderant opinion than the courts, and that the courts should not be allowed to reverse the political philosophy of the people."—T. P.

Roosevelt, *Right of the people to rule* (Address at Carnegie Hall, New York, Mar. 20, 1912).

ALSO IN: J. B. Bishop, *Theodore Roosevelt*, v. 2, pp. 318-320, 348-350.—E. R. Thayer, *Recall of judicial decisions*, pp. 4-5 (63rd Congress, 1st Session, Senate Document, no. 28).—F. E. Chipman, *Veto power of judges* (*Legal Bibliography*, Oct., 1912).—A. M. Kales, *Recall of judicial decisions* (*Illinois Law Review*, v. 7, p. 153).

RECANATI, Battle at. See ITALY: 1744.

RECCARED I, king of Visigoths, 586-601. See GOTHs: 597-711.

RECESS OF IMPERIAL DIET, certain decrees of the Germanic diet. See PAPACY: 1530-1531.

RECHABITES, ascetic religious association, or order, formed among the Israelites, under the influence of the prophet Elijah, or after his death. Like the monks of a later time, they mostly withdrew into the desert. "The vow of their order was so strict that they were not allowed to possess either vineyards or corn-fields or houses, and they were consequently rigidly confined for means of subsistence to the products of the wilderness."—H. Ewald, *History of Israel*, v. 4, bk. 4, sect. 1.

RECIPROCITY. See BALANCE OF POWER: Views of a publicist, etc.

RECIPROCITY: United States.—Tariff Acts of 1890 and 1894. See TARIFF: 1890; 1897 (March-July); U.S.A.: 1890-1901; 1903-1906.

RECIPROCITY TREATY, Canadian. See CANADA: 1910-1911; TARIFF: 1854-1866.

RECIPROCITY TREATY, United States and Newfoundland (1902). See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1902-1905.

RECLAMATION ACT (1902). See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1901-1906; 1902-1910.

RECLAMATION OF LAND. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES; INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF THE; WYOMING: 1900-1905.

RECLUS, Jean Jacques Elisée (1830-1905), French geographer. See HISTORY: 33.

RECOGNITION OF STATES.—"Recognition is the act through which it becomes apparent that an old State is ready to deal with a new State as an International Person and a member of the Family of Nations. Recognition is given either expressly or tacitly. If a new State asks formally for recognition and receives it in a formal declaration of any kind, it receives express recognition. On the other hand, recognition is tacitly and indirectly given when an old State enters officially into intercourse with the new, be it by sending or receiving a diplomatic envoy, or by concluding a treaty, or by any other act through which it becomes apparent that the new State is actually treated as an International Person. But no new State has by International Law a right to demand recognition, although practically such recognition cannot in the long run be withheld, because without it there is no possibility of entering into intercourse with the new State. . . . It must be especially mentioned that recognition by one State is not at all binding upon other States, so that they must follow suit. But in practice such an example, if set by one or more Great Powers and at a time when the new State is really established on a sound basis, will make many other States at a later period give their recognition too."—L. Oppenheim, *International law*, v. 1, pp. 110-111.—"State existence *de facto* is not a question of international law, but depends on the existence of a sovereign political unity with the attributes which necessarily appertain to it. This *de facto* exis-

tence is not dependent upon the will of any other state or states. The entrance of the state into the international statehood, however, [existence *de jure*] depends entirely upon the recognition by those states already within this circle. . . . The internal acts of a *de facto* state are valid whatever the attitude of the international circle."—G. G. Wilson and G. F. Tucker, *International law*, p. 47 and note.

ALSO IN: J. L. Goebel, *Recognition policy of the United States*.

RECOLLECTS, or *Récollets*.—This name is borne by a branch of the Franciscan order of friars, to indicate that the aim of their lives is the recollection of God and the forgetfulness of worldly things.—See also CANADA: 1612; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1900; Spanish friars.

RECONCENTRADOS, rural non-combatants in Cuba who were detained in garrisoned cities during the revolution of 1895. See CUBA: 1895-1898.

RECONNAISSANCE AIRPLANES. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IV. Aviation: a.

RECONSTRUCTION, Civil War (United States).—President Lincoln's Louisiana plan.—President Johnson's plan.—Question in Congress, the Supreme Court, and the states. See U. S. A.: 1863 (December), and after; BLACK AND TAN CONVENTION; GEORGIA: 1865-1872; LOUISIANA: 1865-1867; MISSISSIPPI: 1865-1869, to 1880-1890; SOUTH CAROLINA: 1865-1872; TENNESSEE: 1865-1866.

World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XII. Reconstruction.

RECORDE, Robert (c. 1510-1558), Welsh physician and mathematician. See ALGEBRA.

RECORDER, County, United States. See LAND TITLES: 1649-1912.

RECORDS, Public. See COMMON LAW: 1630-1641.

RECOUVRANCE, former city of Brittany, France, now a part of Brest. See BREST: 18th century.

RECREATION: Modern connotation.—Definition.—Early development in Greece.—Public games.—Drama.—The complete history of recreation would comprise the history of the fine arts, and virtually all social culture. Though the activity itself has always existed, the word has gained a special connotation in the twentieth century through organized attempts to develop various forms of recreation as a feature of democratic social life, and as a regenerating and educational force in the community. Though one cannot say that recreation is a modern invention, the "recreation movement" is an interesting and significant social development of the twentieth century. Recreation is applied to any voluntary activity undertaken for the sake of immediate pleasure, rather than as a means to an end. It takes its place in history because in any civilized state, the regulation of this universal impulse to pleasure tends to become a public matter. In Greece recreation became a fine art, and the theory of it was developed more fully than anywhere else. Well-born youths were instructed in the two branches of education—gymnastic or the training of the body, and music or the training of the soul. [See GYMNASIA, GREEK.] These benefits were extended to the whole community through the great public games, the Olympian [see OLYMPIC GAMES], Isthmaean, Pythian, and Nemean games. Thus, the real contribution of the Greeks lay not only in the beautiful development of the athletic game, the

drama (see DRAMA: Origin), and the festival, but in the conscious and articulate recognition of recreation as an educational force in the life of the individual and the center of really free democratic life in the state. . . .

B. C. 100-A. D. 400.—Character of public recreation in Rome.—The "Triumph."—The fresh, free, democratic spirit of the best Greek life was almost wholly wanting in Rome, and the history of public recreation in Rome is as much the history of sumptuary law for the regulation of private festivity as the history of any constructive development of recreation. The Romans did make one outstanding contribution, however, in the "Triumph," or solemn public procession in honor of a victorious general. Something of this feeling of public ceremony is the redeeming feature even of the great Roman games and gladiatorial displays.—See also SECULAR GAMES AT ROME; BATHS.

600-1600.—Festival spirit of the medieval church.—Origin of drama.—Tournament.—Village festivals.—Renaissance.—After the fall of the Roman empire the church developed from the primitive festival life of Europe the drama of the Christian year, wherein the festival of the winter solstice became the festival of the birth of Christ; the festival of the spring solstice became the resurrection of Christ at Easter, and so forth. The church festivals proved the source of the modern drama of Europe (see DRAMA: Medieval) and of most of our finest music and art. Under the wing of the church flourished a type of recreation, which has now passed away, but which has more than once furnished the inspiration for games and ceremonies in the modern revival of recreation—the tournament (see TOURNAY), the court of love, and the flower festivals. (See PROVENCE: 1170-1207; TOULOUSE: 1323-1324.) Side by side with these festivities of lords and gentry went village festivals of one sort or another, mostly associated with church holidays. Of these the best known are the May-pole ceremonies of England—together with the whole Robin Hood tradition. The Renaissance gave an impetus to splendor and ingenuity of imagination in the festivities of court, church, and village, and developed in particular the drama, the court masque, and the gorgeous religious festivity which Spain transferred to Latin America, and which flowered with a new beauty in the new environment. But it was also the beginning of the rational, critical, self-conscious attitude which destroyed the spirit of play in Europe. From this time until the end of the nineteenth century there was almost no really vital development of recreation.

1886-1906.—Early phase of modern recreation movement.—"In 1886, Boston established the first organized and supervised outdoor playground in America under private auspices, and other cities here and there throughout the country, feeling the need for play space for little children, made playgrounds and play centers possible through the efforts of interested groups of people. Then came the realization, growing slowly but surely, that the support and administration of playground work should be a municipal function, and pressure was brought to bear upon city governments to carry on the work. Gradually, city after city assumed this responsibility. Soon the broader needs of the recreation movement began to make themselves felt and the opening of schools as social centers and the development of recreation for adults and of playgrounds and play centers open throughout the year became the important factors in the movement. A number of states passed legislation making possible recreation commissions and departments and the work began to assume the propor-

tions of a national movement."—*Community recreation, Dec., 1919 (pamphlet), pp. 1-2.*

1906-1914.—*Organization of the Playground and Recreation Association of America.*—Increase in recreation activities.—"With the formation in June, 1906, of the Playground and Recreation Association of America, there began an organized systematic effort to help cities throughout the country establish year-round recreation systems on a permanent basis, supported by funds raised through taxation and administered by municipal departments under the direction of paid superintendents of recreation. [Dr. Gulick, the first president, gave wide publicity to the movement. In 1910, Dr. Gulick resigned and Joseph Lee, one of the first promoters of the playground movement in Boston, became president of the association. As head of the Child Welfare Department, Professor McKeever of the University of Kansas, gained notable success in his campaigns for improving recreation facilities throughout the smaller cities of Kansas.] Statistics on the recreation movement compiled by the Playground and Recreation Association of America for the year 1918 show that there were 129 cities having year-round recreation systems with over 1600 workers employed the [entire] year. In the great majority of instances the work was publicly supported."—*Ibid.*

1914.—*Recreational facilities at the beginning of the World War.*—Their significance as national assets.—Typical recreational developments in Germany and England.—At the outbreak of the World War it was discovered that the organized development of recreation during the preceding decade had provided a technique and a corps of workers whose services were invaluable in preserving the morale of both soldiers and civilians. The types of recreation evolved in England and in Germany were characteristic. "The German likes to eliminate the hazardous, the foolhardy. . . . But he does not scorn football, tennis, golf. On the contrary, he does everything with a passion, and overdoes it as the Americans and English do. Football, for instance, . . . is highly valued by the younger generation in Germany. . . . Villages challenge one another and the games are widely advertised and largely attended by the general public. . . . Every half-way modern town has magnificent [tennis] courts. [Baseball has not been introduced.] Golf is still generally confined to the health resorts which are visited mostly by foreigners."—F. L. Sneff, *Athletic life of the Germans (Playground, May, 1914, pp. 62, 64).*—This building up of physical strength and morale was part of the whole national effort to create a great military machine. In England, however, the recreational movement was individualistic and philanthropic. By 1914 seven cities in Great Britain had municipal golf links and 13,596 acres of ground outside of London were devoted to play. In Scotland, the gift which Andrew Carnegie made in 1905 to Dunfermline, providing for trained supervision of the city playgrounds, resulted by 1914 in a remarkable increase in recreational activities. As the war progressed social recreation came to rank third in importance among the means of "carrying on."

1914-1918.—*Recreational activities in connection with the World War.*—In the trenches.—Among victims of the war.—As a result of the World War, recreation was developed on a tremendous scale. Practically every philanthropic agency of any importance was mobilized to cheer up the soldiers and hearten the sufferers in the devastated districts. The Y. M. C. A. huts and the Y. W. C. A.

hostess houses supplied military substitutes for the comforts of home, including lounge-rooms, smokes, and music. The War Camp Community Service imported and circulated the favorites of the theatre in person. The Community Motion Picture Bureau built up an enormous motion-picture service for the trenches. The salvation army lassies made a reputation on coffee and doughnuts. The Knights of Columbus supplied recreation under Roman Catholic auspices. As an agency of reconstruction in the devastated districts recreation was found to be even more important than in the actual carrying on of the war. The precocious, war-shattered children of the war-districts were taught by the Red Cross to play as systematically as they were taught to eat, and, carried by the various relief agencies, the playground movement penetrated into southern and eastern Europe and even into Siberia, where a playground association and a city playground were established at Irkutsk in 1918 under the direction of Maurice Ross, formerly recreation superintendent at Westbrook, Maine.—See also *WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IX. War relief: g, 10.*

1914-1921.—*Recreational facilities as a means of extending American ideals in the Orient.*—Philippines.—Hawaii.—China.—A unique phenomenon of international life is the rapid extension of the ideals of American education and social betterment in the Orient by teachers and social workers inspired with missionary zeal. These efforts are of enormous influence in building up a spirit of admiration and goodwill for the United States among the younger generation of Orientals. In the Philippine Islands, "Baseball, basketball, and track events of all kinds have been encouraged through the schools, and the inter-municipal and inter-provincial gatherings are actually 'fiesta' days. . . . For eight years there has been a Parks and Playgrounds Committee in Manila [written in 1914]."—F. R. White, *Recreation development in the Philippine islands (Playground, May, 1914, pp. 59-60).*—Because Hawaii is more directly under the control of the American government, it was possible to develop the playground movement there more rapidly than in the Philippines. "From the time of its inception, . . . [about 1910] the supervised playground movement in Hawaii has thrived and the efforts of various agencies continue to be directed toward the development of a broader recreational program. . . . [In 1919] the Free Kindergarten and Children's Aid Association employed for the first time a trained playground worker from California who, in addition to supervising the general work of the five centers, conducted classes for training play leaders. The average daily attendance at these play grounds is [in 1920] about seven hundred, and the activities are most varied. Because of the kindly climate the boys and girls of Hawaii may play out-of-doors the year round. . . . Appreciation of the value of organized play is developing throughout Hawaii, as a partial survey shows. Four of the private schools of Honolulu employ play leaders and physical directors, while others have teachers who devote part of their time to organized play."—*Play in Hawaii (Playground, Nov., 1920, pp. 503, 504).*—In China the interest in recreation as a part of the social and educational system is one of the many intellectual importations of young China from America. In 1914 "Mr. Huang Yen Pei, the vice-president of the Kiangsu Education Association became interested in playgrounds. Mr. Huang was on the Commercial Commission which . . . toured America and he took the opportunity to investigate every playground and every playground system he could find.

... [As a result of his visit sixty playgrounds were planned and put into operation throughout the province of Kiangsu and directors were trained in playground methods and technique. Following the example of Kiangsu, the Nanking government Teachers' College established] a three years' course in physical education. This school has now [1919] turned out one class. ... In the playgrounds of Shanghai besides the organized free play in the playgrounds, there is a great deal of work being done in organizing athletics in the city. High school and grammar school leagues in basket ball, soccer football and tennis, are conducted during the year there, as are a large number of track meets for schools and other playgrounds. ... [It is doubtful if there are] any team games which are indigenous to the Chinese. Most of the games are of the Jack Stones type. ... There are one or two games which approach the team-game type but which lack the coöperative element to an extent."—C. H. McCloy, *Play and recreation in China* (Playground, Nov., 1919, pp. 360, 361, 363).

1914-1921.—Rapid development of municipal recreation.—Municipal theaters.—Growth of the community center.—Survey of social centers of American cities.—Municipal camps.—Municipal recreation in England and Denmark.—In the municipality recreation has found its natural center and is playing a vital part in the social, physical, and political development of the people. The first social center was the schoolhouse, and, between 1913 and 1917, 2622 social centers were provided in city schools throughout the United States. As the play movement widened in scope, however, and public schools and libraries extended their recreational facilities so as to meet the needs of adults as well as children, it became evident that a specially designed building was required for these activities. "After much experimentation it was found that 'an ideal building was one which in addition to the ordinary school-rooms and domestic science rooms, libraries, etc., provides one or more large floor space for social dancing, so that the young people may feel that their wants are provided for, and at the same time furnishes a gymnasium for physical recreation, and leaves the assembly hall for neighborhood gatherings, lectures and entertainments, and for use as a public forum.' ... [The years 1912-1914 saw a marked increase in aesthetic activities. Besides regulating existing recreations, such as commercialized amusements, the municipalities provided music, theaters, dances, and community dramatics, festivals, and pageantry.] More extensive than the efforts to raise the standard of musical appreciation, perhaps, were those in behalf of a higher form of dramatic expression. Among the many events were the construction of municipal theatres in Pittsfield and Northampton, Massachusetts; Concordia, Kansas; Hennessey, Oklahoma; Richland Center, Wisconsin; and Red Wing, Minnesota. ... In addition to these events were other constructive efforts such as the organization of the Drama League of America, the Drama League of New York City, the Chicago Drama League, the New Theatre and the Little Theatre of New York, the Toy Theatre and the Drama Society of Boston, and the Wisconsin Dramatic Society. The latter sought to unite groups of amateurs throughout the State and 'to raise the standard of dramatic appreciation,' while the drama societies of the large cities sought 'to promote in public schools, social centers, settlements, churches, and other agencies, amateur dramatic performances having an educational value,' and to bring to bear on the commercial stage the influence of a refined public opinion

which would demand productions of a more desirable nature from both the artistic and the moral standpoint. About 1915 the term 'community center' came into use in New York, when referring to the agency or instrument through which 'neighborhood organization' was being effected. The community center is a place where the people can unite in their own way for the expression and enjoyment of whatever interests they have in common."—C. E. Rainwater, *Play movement in the United States*, pp. 121-122, 161, 216.—By 1918 there were sixty-five community centers in New York City. The National Social Unit experiment conducted in Cincinnati during 1916-1919 emphasized the self-government and self-support features of the community center. In 1919 a national organization was formed to aid urban and rural communities in solving the problems of reconstruction. This organization, known as Community Service, Incorporated, is an outgrowth of the Playground and Recreation Association of America and of the War Camp Community Service. It began work with a fund of two million dollars which was used to organize community centers in about 400 cities, each community furnishing about ten dollars for every dollar expended by the organization. In 1920 "465 cities reported that playgrounds and recreational centers are being conducted under paid leadership. The most encouraging increase from the point of view of the effectiveness and permanency of the work lies in the 10,218 play leaders employed as against 8,043 in 1919, or an increase of 27 per cent. There has been also an increase of 38 per cent in the number of workers employed during the entire year, 2,011 now being retained on this basis. This is indicative of growing appreciation on the part of municipalities of the importance of making facilities for recreation function not only during the summer months but throughout the entire year. There has also been a considerable growth in the number of neighborhood and community centers open at night. One hundred and fifty-one cities report [1921] an attendance of 437,683 at their winter centers, an increase of more than 124 per cent over the attendance in 1919. Twenty-five cities have been benefited by gifts from public spirited citizens of either land or money to be used for playground purposes. As instances of this Columbus, O., has been made the recipient of forty acres of land to be developed as a model outdoor center and play field; Kalamazoo, Mich., has been given seventeen acres of land located in the center of the city for playground purposes; Sacramento has been given a memorial playground; and the recreational facilities of Scranton, Pa., are largely increased through a private gift; Newburgh, N. Y., has been presented with a municipal golf course. This growth in the movement is a recognition that the supervised playground is as much a part of the municipal machinery as the policing of the street, the furnishing of adequate protection against fires, or the providing of modern school plants with well equipped staffs of teachers. It is a recognition of the effect of properly directed recreation upon child life. The well supervised playground provides a little democracy where the child may develop initiative, learn to mix with his fellows, develop qualities of leadership and discipline, brush off anti-social habits, and adapt himself to his surroundings and his fellows as preparation for the larger playground of competition and of life. In providing play space many cities are now utilizing private property and vacant lots, equipping such spaces with simple apparatus which can easily be moved. In congested districts certain streets are

being closed off from traffic in order that some semblance of recreational facilities may be offered to the children. Public school athletic leagues, usually under the direction of the school board and the park board have aroused a wholesome spirit of rivalry among school children and have inculcated in them team play, a sense of leadership and loyalty. Through the use of pageants and games in which large numbers of children are used, group activity has also been encouraged. This serves to counteract the danger of too high athletic specialization and the professionalizing of those who show special athletic prowess. With the further appreciation of what city planning means to the life of a community and with the increasing understanding of child life may be expected a continued expansion of the playground movement."—*Cities at play* (Survey, Feb. 26, 1921, p. 768).—By 1922, Boston, the city where the modern play movement originated, had twelve community centers in operation, providing men's activities, women's activities, boys' and girls' clubs, orchestra, glee and choral clubs, parliamentary law, debating and dramatic clubs, dressmaking, millinery, embroidery and basketry classes, athletics and gymnastics, games, socials, dances, concerts, lectures, entertainments, illustrated talks and motion pictures. —Based on *Community Center*, Sept.-Oct., 1922.—"Los Angeles, California, believes that municipal playgrounds are one of the best investments a city can make and it has established two municipal camps—one seventy-five miles from the city and the other 100 miles from the city at elevations of 4500 and 6000 feet. . . . The charge in the Los Angeles camps is fifteen dollars for two weeks. Four thousand people were taken care of in the two camps during the summer [of 1923], and seven thousand dollars over and above expenses collected."—*Playground*, Aug., 1923, p. 283.

The principal social center in London is the People's Palace, which stands in the heart of the east-end. It was founded by private legacy "To create an institution in which, whether in science, art, or literature, any student may be able to follow up his education. The trustees also desired to provide for those who wished simply for social enjoyment, and to this end proposed to establish the Winter Garden Concert Hall, Recreation Grounds, gymnasium and swimming baths for both sexes, and rooms for indoor games." The activities carried on in Queen's Hall of the People's Palace are probably more varied than in any other hall in London. First are the regular entertainments of the institution held four times a week. The other social events include humorous entertainments, concerts, oratorios, and the most recent motion pictures. The Sunday afternoon chamber concerts are well attended. All seats are free. The Handel Society gives an annual concert in the Hall, the Bach choir sings on various occasions and the People's Palace Choral and Orchestra societies also give three or four concerts each season. The hall is loaned to numerous societies for concerts, and entertainments for poor children and the blind are also given there. Baby shows, dog shows, and poultry shows have been held. The People's Palace Music Festival, founded with the object of encouraging the study of good music, the choral and orchestral societies whose members are drawn from the immediate neighborhood, and the Mandoline Band is one of the largest in London—all meet in Queen's Hall regularly. Two or three flower shows are held each year by the East London Horticultural Society, the children's section being made a special feature. Plants are given out to the children of the neighbourhood some

weeks before the date of the summer show. These are tended in their homes and prizes are awarded in accordance with the condition in which they are brought back for exhibition at the show. The Recreation Hall of the People's Palace is for family recreation. The holder of a membership ticket may be accompanied by his wife and two children free of charge. Women may join as members. Billiard and bagatelle tables, cards, chess, and writing tables are provided and a large number of books are available. The orchestra plays daily from seven to ten o'clock. Tea, coffee and cigarettes are supplied at low charges. The Evening Play Center is open each evening from five to seven, on Saturdays in the morning. The children enjoy drill, dancing, singing, games, sewing, basket work. The boys are taken to Victoria Park for cricket and football on Saturday mornings. Swimming facilities are open at the Palace from Easter to September. During the daytime the pool is used almost continuously by the children of the London County Council's elementary schools, certain hours being fixed for each school. Attendance at the baths is kept by the school authorities and the charges paid by the council. In the evening the pool is open to adults. During the winter the base of the swimming pool is covered with board flooring and used for part of the play center activities. The opportunity of physical recreation in the way of swimming and the comfort offered through the washing baths during the summer are not the least of what the People's Palace means to the people of the East-end of London."—*Recreation in the East-end of London* (Playground, Nov., 1920, pp. 499-501).

"In almost every Danish village there is a meeting house built at the expense of the whole village, and managed by a committee of the villagers, for the use of the whole village. This house is the social center of the village. . . . There one night at least every week in winter the young men meet together for physical culture. They have their unpaid Sandow, and go through a regular course of training. There also one night old and young alike meet together to hear a lecture. About twice a month a grand debate is held, the debaters being the villagers themselves, helped out by University students, perhaps. Twice a month too, there is a concert; while from time to time there are private theatricals, social evenings, and even dances. 'Sometimes the lecturers are paid, but very rarely; for they are as a rule either professors, students or politicians, and they make it part of their regular work to lecture in villages gratis. In some districts there is a committee, the duty of which is to see that all the villages are well supplied with lectures.'"—*Remaking of village life* (Playground, Nov., 1919, pp. 373-374).

1915-1922.—Rural recreation in the United States.—"The conception of recreation as an important part of rural life is age-old. The joy of harvest as expressive of the glorification of achievement has for hundreds of years found expression in harvest festivals. . . . The Grange, the Farmers' Union, the Farm Bureau and other farm organizations have gone far to demonstrate the value of get-together occasions for all kinds of purposes, and their field of service is rapidly widening. The clubs developed by the States Relations Service of the United States Government are helping to mould the leisure-time interests of thousands of boys and girls. Private organizations are providing leadership which is helping to raise up local leaders. . . . The telephone and automobile have done much to offset the long distances and the isolation which make a community-wide social life so difficult of

achievement. Visiting among neighbors and recreational gatherings are now far more practicable for the men, women and children living in farming areas than they were a few years ago. The great need is for the organization of community forces in such a way that scattered efforts will be focused and community forces made to function for the benefit of the home, the school, the church and other groups, so that all these agencies may contribute to the best good of the community at large."—Community Service, *Rural and small community recreation* (pamphlet), May, 1921, p. 5.—"During the two or three years preceding 1918, a limited number of 'community councils' were formed in country-side and 'town' districts. . . . These 'joint-committees,' as they were also called, usually made a more or less thorough survey of their community and outlined a program of development extending over a period of from three to five years. Provision for play was always a feature of the work of the 'councils' and one which occupied much of its attention. Massachusetts was one of the first states in which this plan was adopted on a wide scale. . . . By 1918 community buildings had been provided in one or more rural districts in forty-one states. . . . In some rural communities, efforts toward 'neighborhood organization' resulted in the creation of a new public office: the 'community secretary.' . . . Under the personal leadership of the 'community secretaries,' the local institutions and associations were correlated into a functional and dynamic whole. The control and support of play was a phase of the task of the 'community secretary,' constituting at least fifty per cent of his work, and involving the management of the social center and the public forum, the making out of a calendar of local meetings and events, the directing of community surveys, and the charting of community needs. . . . [With the formation of the War Camp Community Service in 1918 and its successor, Community Service, Incorporated, rural and urban communities alike received the benefit of trained vision and expert assistance in the various problems of communal life. The evolution of the play movement in the United States is typified in this expansion of rural activity. For at first provision was made only for little children and only gradually extended to include persons of all ages. Then expansion proceeded by regular stages] from facilities operated during the summer only to those maintained throughout the year; from outdoor equipment and activities only to both outdoor and indoor facilities and events; from congested urban districts to both urban and rural communities; from philanthropic to community support and control; from free play and miscellaneous events to directed play with organized activities and correlated schedules; from a simple to a complex field of activities including manual, physical, aesthetic, social, and civic projects; from the provision of facilities to the definition of standards for the use of leisure time; and from individualistic interests to community activities."—C. E. Rainwater, *Play movement in the United States*, pp. 167-168, 170-173, 330.

ALSO IN: H. S. Curtis, *Play movement and its significance*.—C. Zueblin, *American municipal progress*.

RECRUITING. See CONSCRIPTION.

RECTOR, Henry M., governor of Arkansas, 1860-1862. See U.S.A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call.

RED ARMY. See RUSSIA: 1918-1919; 1920 (October-November); RUSSIA, SOVIET CONSTITUTION OF.

RED BOOK, Austrian diplomatic correspondence dealing with the World War. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background; 3.

RED CAP OF LIBERTY, emblem of the French revolutionists, 1789. See LIBERTY CAP.

RED CIRCLE CLUB, organization in the United States for service men during World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IX. War relief; g, 5.

RED CLOUD (c. 1825-1909), chief of the Sioux Indians. See WYOMING: 1866 (June-December); 1868-1876.

RED CRESCENT OF TURKEY, symbol of Turkish Red Cross. See RED CROSS: 1864-1914.

RED CROSS: Character and aim.—Inception of the idea.—War relief in early ages.—Precursors of the Red Cross.—First Geneva Convention (1864).—International conferences.—Geneva convention (1906).—"A confederation of relief societies in different countries, acting under the Geneva Convention [of 1864] carries on its work under the sign of the Red Cross. The aim of these societies is to ameliorate the condition of wounded soldiers in the armies in campaign on land or sea. The societies had their rise in the conviction of certain philanthropic men, that the official sanitary service in wars is usually insufficient, and that the charity of the people, which at such times exhibits itself munificently, should be organized for the best possible utilization."—*History of the Red Cross* (Washington, 1883).—Before the organization of the Red Cross societies, provision for the care of the sick and wounded was an idea of extremely slow development. In ancient Egypt "physicians were employed by the State and the soldier being held in high regard, received their care without charge. There were men skilful in the art of removing arrows and of giving first aid during the Trojan War, and de Quincey says of Homer that his knowledge of wounds would have fitted him for the post of house surgeon in a modern hospital. . . . Alexander the Great, who took a lively interest in his soldiers' welfare, employed physicians only for his own and his friends' benefit, leaving the common soldier to play the part of surgeon for himself. . . . The military hospital . . . dates from the time of the Roman Empire. . . . The consideration for the soldier was not confined to the Romans, for Tacitus gives accounts of the wives of the Germans dressing the warriors' wounds. A touch of the Red Cross spirit manifested itself after a battle a thousand years ago, when Haldora of Iceland called to the women of her household, 'Let us go and dress the wounds of the warriors, be they friends or foes.' In the first century of the Christian Era hostleries for pilgrims sprang up along the routes of travel. In these both poor and sick found refuge. . . . [During the Crusades the military nursing orders, such as those of St. John of Jerusalem, of Rhodes and of Malta cared for the sick and wounded whether Christian or Moslem.] Save for the volunteer aid of these nursing orders, there seems to have been no attempt made to provide any nursing care in time of war. [Progress toward more humanitarian arrangements was made slowly. In the eighteenth century the] generals at the head of the French and Austrian forces accepted an arrangement suggested by Percy, the French surgeon-general, that the hospitals should be considered as sacred asylums, and that their location be plainly indicated so that the soldiers could readily recognize them."—M. T. Boardman, *Under the Red Cross flag at home and abroad*, pp. 19-20, 21, 23-24.—Not until the Crimean war did people realize the importance of making provision for the sick and wounded.

But when Florence Nightingale and her group of 38 nurses went out to Scutari her labors to alleviate suffering became an inspiration to others. In 1862 a Genevan, Henri Dunant, who had been present at the battle of Solferino, published a work entitled "A Souvenir of Solferino," in which he strongly advocated more humane and extensive appliances of aid to wounded soldiers. His book came to the attention of M. Moynier, president of the Society of Public Utility of Switzerland, and as a result of the endeavors of that organization, an international conference was called at Geneva, Switzerland, in 1863, which "though it had not an official character, brought together representatives from a number of Governments. At this conference a treaty was drawn up, afterwards remodeled and improved, which twenty-five Governments . . .



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[had signed by 1880]. The treaty provides for the neutrality of all sanitary supplies, ambulances, surgeons, nurses, attendants, and sick or wounded men, and their safe conduct, when they bear the sign of the organization, viz: the Red Cross. Although the convention which originated the organization [the Geneva convention of 1864] was necessarily international, the relief societies themselves are entirely national and independent; each one governing itself and making its own laws according to the genius of its nationality and needs. It was necessary for recognizance and safety, and for carrying out the general provisions of the treaty, that a uniform badge should be agreed upon. The Red Cross was chosen out of compliment to the Swiss Republic, where the first convention was held, and in which the Central Commission has its headquarters. The Swiss colors being a white cross on a red ground, the badge chosen was these colors reversed. There are no 'members of the Red Cross,' but only members of societies whose sign it is.

There is no 'Order of the Red Cross.' The relief societies use, each according to its convenience, whatever methods seem best suited to prepare in times of peace for the necessities of sanitary service in times of war. They gather and store gifts of money and supplies; arrange hospitals, ambulances, methods of transportation of wounded men, bureaus of information, correspondence, etc. All that the most ingenious philanthropy could devise and execute has been attempted in this direction. In the Franco-Prussian war this was abundantly tested."—*History of the Red Cross*, pp. 14-15.—In 1877 the International Committee of the Red Cross, which acts as a medium of communication between the Red Cross societies of the various countries, appointed Clara Barton its representative in the United States. She had devoted herself to promoting the cause of the Red Cross in America since 1869 and it was through her efforts that the United States in 1882 signed the Geneva convention and created the American Red Cross. (See also BARTON, CLARA.) Up to 1922, ten international conferences had been held by the Red Cross societies: the first at Paris in 1867; the second at Berlin in 1869; the third at Geneva in 1884; the fourth at Karlsruhe in 1887; the fifth at Rome in 1892; the sixth at Vienna in 1897; the seventh at St. Petersburg in 1902; the eighth at London in 1907; the ninth at Washington in 1912; and a tenth not fully representative but aiming at such an association, at Geneva in March, 1920. These conferences are not to be confused with the Geneva conventions of August 22, 1864, and July 6, 1906, which established the articles of international agreement. At the conference of 1906 the ten articles of the original convention were expanded to thirty-three, including "a definite recognition of the national voluntary aid societies and a statement of the conditions under which their services may be employed; provisions guarding against the improper use of the Red Cross symbol; and agreements for the exchange of information concerning wounded who may have been taken prisoners and of the identification marks of those found dead upon the field of battle. It is noticeable that the word 'neutrality' does not occur in the Convention of 1906, that term having been regarded as inapplicable to military or semi-military establishments active in connection with belligerent armies; instead it is provided that medical establishments and their personnel as well as the sick and wounded, shall be respected and cared for without distinction of nationality. Thirty-six powers were represented at the Conference of 1906, and of these several, including Great Britain and the United States, ratified the Convention in the following year. The Convention of 1906 does not, however, necessarily abrogate that of 1864, for it expressly declares that the latter shall continue to be binding on all its signatories until such times as they shall ratify the more recent agreement."—J. P. McMurrich, *Origins of the Red Cross movement* (*University Magazine*, Apr., 1917).

1864-1914.—Development of Red Cross on the continent between its inception and the World War. — Russia. — France. — Belgium. — Balkan states. — Italy. — Germany and her allies. — Neutral nations. — Red Crescent. — The Red Cross society, as organized at the Geneva convention of 1864, was primarily an organization for relief in time of war. Before long, however, the national societies began to afford relief to sufferers in national calamities. "It has been claimed that the American Red Cross was the originator of the idea that . . . Red Cross societies should render

relief after serious disasters, and that therefore this new field of activities was called 'the American amendment.' The fact is that before the American Red Cross even existed the Russian Red Cross had advocated and carried on such service. The aid it gave for the relief of sufferers from the serious famine in the valley of the Volga is typical of its success in such humanitarian lines. Not only were the starving to be fed, but those sick from scurvy and typhoid to be cared for under many difficulties. . . . The Russian Red Cross . . . developed into an extensive organization, with many departments for the divisions of its work. . . . In spite of royal patronage, it was not until 1876 that its invaluable service was appreciated. In the Russo-Turkish war, when it at once leaped into popular favor eight million dollars were contributed for its war relief work, which enabled it to transport and care for over four hundred thousand sick and wounded men. . . . During the Russo-Japanese War . . . [when] Russia was fighting thousands of miles from her base of supplies . . . without the hospital trains of the Red Cross many of . . . [the sick and wounded] men would have perished in a distant land, far away from their homes and families. . . . [During the Franco-Prussian war of 1870, the French societies, though not so well organized as those of Germany, provided nearly two million dollars.] In the titanic struggle that overwhelmed Europe [1914-1918] . . . the French Red Cross . . . had to bear a burden almost beyond comprehension. It . . . consisted of three independent branches under one central committee, the Society for the Aid of the Military Wounded, the Union of the Women of France, and the Association of French Women. . . . After most of Belgium had been occupied by the German forces, the Belgian Red Cross remained for a time inactive, but the Belgian army, driven out of its own country, had still need of the Red Cross. On the request of King Albert, General Melis and Doctor Depage reorganized its service and established a large hospital at La Panne, on the coast, in the small northwest corner of the country that still remained unconquered. . . . Serbia and Montenegro both have their Red Cross Societies. . . . Two wars in quick succession had exhausted the supplies and resources of the Serbian Red Cross. At the outbreak of the . . . [World War] there were only four hundred doctors in a population of four million persons, and when more than one hundred of these perished from typhus fever, Serbia was in a desperate state for medical personnel, as well as supplies. The little mountain country of Montenegro, with fifty thousand men under arms, had for its army and its civil population a little more than a score of physicians. . . . Without the aid of the Red Cross, both of allies and of neutrals, not only would [the sick and wounded] have perished by thousands, but multitudes of the civil population would have also died. For nine months the shadows of war clouds hung over Italy, and the mutterings of the storm gave her warning to prepare. Fortunately for her, she possessed a most excellent Red Cross which . . . not only proved its efficiency after earthquakes and volcanic eruptions, but which has maintained for years an active and successful preventive campaign against the malarial fever of the Campagna. In the sulphur mines of Sicily and in other parts of the country first-aid instructions have also been part of its work. The society has a large number of hospital trains, each with a personnel ready to

mobilize the moment the train is called into active service. There is a close affiliation between the society and the Italian Government, some of whose officials are members of its governing body. This system of Italy's was adopted by the American Red Cross at the time of its reorganization in 1905. Forseeing the coming danger, the Italian Red Cross . . . occupied itself for many months in preparation. . . . With royal support it was natural that Germany should accept the Red Cross idea and enter into its development with enthusiasm. . . . [In the war of 1866 the German societies furnished more than three million dollars and in the Franco-Prussian conflict of 1870, they secured and applied more than fourteen millions. After the formation of the German Empire] a Central Committee of the Red Cross was created for direction and supervision of the State branches. . . . No other Red Cross organization has been so constantly active as the German. All national



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disasters from a flood, or fire, to an epidemic have found it ready and equipped for relief operations. But not content with these occasional duties, it has undertaken constant daily service of various kinds. For a number of years it has carried on extensive anti-tuberculosis work, maintained numerous sanatoria, day and night camps and other institutions. . . . Instructions in first-aid, and the organization of sanitary columns . . . enabled the German Red Cross to put into active service some eighty thousand trained men for ambulance, transportation and hospital duty. . . . More than seven hundred thousand German women form a special branch of the Red Cross under the name of the Women's Union of the Fatherland [written in 1917]. . . . At the beginning of August [1914] . . . when the call to arms went forth in Germany, as promptly and as smoothly as the army itself the Red Cross mobilized. Every other organization in the country that desired to aid was placed under its direction, and the Government instructed all contributions of money and supplies to be sent to it and the knightly orders. . . . In Austria-Hungary there were two Red Cross so-

cieties—that of Austria, with headquarters at Vienna, and that of Hungary, with its headquarters in its own building, at Budapest. . . . Several Red Cross associations existed in Austria previous to 1880, which at that time were united under one central committee. This society, like the other European societies, . . . devoted itself to preparation for war relief in the way of trained personnel, ambulance transportation, equipment and supplies. It . . . took part in relief operations after disasters, and sent a number of its kitchen wagons to Italy, from which at Catania, hot meals were served every day to twelve thousand persons. . . . The estimated total value of the Austrian Red Cross endowment, materials and supplies, amounted before the . . . [World War] to over five million dollars. The Hungarian Red Cross . . . [was] similar to that of Austria. . . . The old prejudice against the cross born of the days of the Crusades . . . made Turkey unwilling to accept this emblem as the insignia both of its army medical service and its volunteer relief society. With the consent of the other signatory powers of the Treaty of Geneva, Turkey . . . adopted as her symbol the Red Crescent, while at the same time promising to respect the protection of the Red Cross. . . . The Red Crescent Society was organized in 1877 at Constantinople. During the war with Russia, though in its infancy, it received more than a million dollars in money and nearly half a million additional for field hospitals and supplies. After the Italian earthquake it contributed funds for relief, and contributions were also sent to aid the victims of the Armenian massacres. At the time of the first Balkan war the Red Crescent maintained a number of hospitals, for which some of its equipment and ambulances were purchased in America with the aid of the American Red Cross. During the cholera epidemic the society had a number of the large mosques thrown open for several thousand of the victims, and aided the pathetic multitudes of refugees from the invaded districts who fled to Constantinople, where they had to be sheltered and fed. The society . . . had many difficulties to overcome and not the least remarkable development . . . shown . . . [is] the liberty permitted Moslem women in its work. . . . The few countries of Europe that . . . [did] not become involved in the widespread conflict . . . [were] so fearful of being drawn into the vortex of strife that their Red Cross societies . . . [were necessarily limited] in the aid they could offer. They . . . did what they could, notably the societies of Switzerland and Holland; the former . . . especially for prisoners of war and for the repatriation of refugees and wounded. Holland . . . cared for thousands of destitute and panic-stricken Belgians who fled to the refuge their kindly and generously hospitable neighbor offered.” —M. T. Boardman, *Under the Red Cross flag at home and abroad*, pp. 217-220, 236, 240-248, 251-253, 265-266.

1896.—Armenian relief. See TURKEY: 1896 (January-March).

1914-1918.—During World War. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 8.

1914-1918.—France.—Activities of women during war. See FRANCE: 1914-1918: French women, etc.

1914-1918.—Germany.—Abuses during World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: a, 13; III: e.

1914-1918.—Switzerland. See SWITZERLAND: 1914-1918.

1919-1920.—International activities.—Cannes conference.—League of Red Cross societies.—Meeting of general council at Geneva.—“The medical conference assembled at Cannes, France, April 4, 1919, on invitation of the Red Cross societies of Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, and the United States, is destined to mark the beginning of one of the great constructive enterprises growing out of the world war. Many efforts . . . had been made in past years to promote international uniformity and coöperation in combating communicable diseases, but probably there has never been held a more remarkable conference than this one, comprising the foremost medical and public health experts of the nations named. . . . The sections formed were as follows: venereal diseases, child welfare, tuberculosis, malaria, nursing, preventive medicine.”—W. F. Snow, *Red Cross conference at Cannes (Social Hygiene, Oct., 1919, pp. 473, 475, 487)*.—“In order that the great resources and strength of the vast organizations which the National Red Cross societies had developed during the war should be preserved and utilized in time of peace for carrying on the Red Cross movement, a new international Red Cross organization was established while the peace negotiations were in progress in Paris . . . [in 1919 as an outgrowth of the medical conference at Cannes.] The name of this new organization is the League of Red Cross Societies, and its articles of association were adopted on May 5, 1919. . . . Its objects are stated to be: (1) To encourage and promote in every country in the world the establishment and development of a duly authorized voluntary national Red Cross organization, having as purposes the improvement of health, the prevention of disease, and the mitigation of suffering throughout the world, and to secure the coöperation of such organizations for these purposes. (2) To promote the welfare of mankind by furnishing a medium for bringing within the reach of all the peoples the benefits to be derived from present known facts and new contributions to science and medical knowledge and their application. (3) To furnish a medium for co-ordinating relief work in case of great or international calamities. The original members of the League are the American, British, French, Italian and Japanese National Red Cross Societies, which are described in the articles of association as the founder members. Any other Red Cross society which pursues the objects of the League and is authorized in conformity with the principles of the International Committee of the Red Cross at Geneva and is duly authorized by the government of the country in which it is situated, is eligible for admission to the League. The membership of the League already [January, 1920] comprises the National Red Cross Societies of Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, China, Cuba, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Greece, Holland, India, Italy, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Serbia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States of America, Uruguay and Venezuela. Each member of the League reserves to itself entire freedom of action at all times with reference to its own policies and activities, and any member of the League is at liberty to withdraw from the League at any time by giving written notice. The control of the affairs of the League is vested in a General Council and a

Board of Governors. The General Council of the League consists of representatives of all the National Red Cross organizations which are members of the League. The Board of Governors consists of not more than fifteen members, each of whom is appointed by a National Red Cross organization, and two *ex-officio* members, who are respectively the Director General and Secretary General of the League. The American, British, French, Italian and Japanese National Red Cross organizations as founder members of the League are each entitled permanently to appoint one member of the Board. . . . In order to give this new organization an international status and sanction, the Peace Conference at Paris, at the suggestion of the organizers of the League of Red Cross Societies, inserted in the Covenant of the League of Nations the following provision which appears as Article XXV thereof: The Members of this League agree to encourage and promote the establishment and co-operation of duly authorized voluntary national Red Cross organizations having as purposes the improvement of health, the prevention of disease and the mitigation of suffering throughout the world. The first meeting of the General Council of the League of Red Cross Societies was held at Geneva in March [1920]."—C. P. Anderson, *International Red Cross organization* (*American Journal of International Law*, Jan., 1920, pp. 212-214).—"Twenty-seven national organizations were represented at the meeting of the League of Red Cross Societies at Geneva in March [1920]: . . . the United States, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Belgium, China, Norway, Portugal, Brazil, Peru, Australia, Canada, Argentina, South Africa, Greece, Sweden, New Zealand, Denmark, Roumania, Venezuela, Cuba, India, Holland, Servia, Spain, Poland, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia and Uruguay. . . . It will of course be understood that a very large part of the time was given over to the consideration of the . . . [appalling] situation in central Europe, as reported by delegates from those regions. . . . The league's largest operation . . . [was] in Poland, where typhus . . . [was raging] and where the league . . . [was] coördinating the work of the American Red Cross, the British Red Cross, the Quaker units, etc. Provided that through the League of Nations the governments . . . [could] supply transportation, coal, food and clothing, the League of Red Cross Societies at Geneva pledged itself to undertake as its responsibilities hospitalization, medical and surgical supplies, doctors and nurses."—H. F. Draper, *Red Cross at Geneva* (*Survey*, Apr. 24, 1920, p. 140).

1919-1923.—Increase in number of Red Cross societies.—Their relative strength.—Repatriation of war prisoners.—International conference at Geneva.—When the World War broke out in 1914, the Geneva Convention had been in effect for fifty years. Five countries adhered to the original convention, while thirty-seven had adopted the revised version of 1906. By the end of 1922, fourteen additional societies had signified their adherence to the Geneva Convention of 1906 or applied for recognition by the International Committee, which can be obtained only by unanimous consent of all Red Cross societies. On August 15, 1919, the International Committee published an analysis of the answers made by eleven societies to its questionnaire of April 8, 1919, directed to all Red Cross societies. The United States reported a membership of twenty-six millions, or 262 out of every 1,000 of population. The Japanese Red

Cross came next with 1,500,000 or nineteen members per thousand inhabitants. Switzerland with 11.2 per cent, Sweden with 10.9 per cent, Italy with 8.2 per cent, Denmark with 8.1 per cent were of more nearly equal strength. France, Norway, Spain, the Netherlands, and Portugal reported percentages of 6.4, 3.8, 3.1, 2.7, and .9, respectively. In 1921 the German Red Cross societies and the women's associations of the Red Cross were united under the name of the German Red Cross. The Red Cross of Soviet Russia was recognized by the International Committee in the same year.—Based on *Revue internationale de la Croix-rouge*, v. 50, pp. 479, 1080.—The three Red Cross societies of France furnished 362 million francs during the World War. In Germany, Red Cross expenditures for the war period amounted to 726 million marks. The Red Cross of Italy contributed 63,500,000 lire. At the conclusion of the armistice the international committee of the Red Cross societies undertook the repatriation of prisoners of war, principally in Russia and Germany. By March 31, 1922, a total of 421,000 prisoners had been restored to their respective countries. On August 25, 1923, the League of Red Cross Societies of the World met at Paris and three days later the eleventh international conference of Red Cross societies opened at Geneva.

American National Red Cross: Various incorporations.—Peace and war work.—"The American National Red Cross has had a number of incorporations, first in the District of Columbia in 1881, [when it was founded by Clara Barton] under the name of the American Association of the Red Cross [see BARTON, CLARA]; again in 1893 in the District of Columbia, under the name of the American National Red Cross, and in 1900 it was given a national incorporation by Congress. Its last incorporation was received from Congress January 5, 1905, in order to embody certain important changes in its organization and methods of administration. The last incorporation was the first one to protect and restrict the use of the Red Cross insignia, although the United States signified its adherence to the provisions of the Geneva Convention in 1882. . . . The American National Red Cross is intended to aid in the prevention and alleviation of human suffering in times of peace as well as war. Its motto is 'Neutrality and Humanity.' [From] . . . its organization in 1905 [until the entrance of the United States into the World War] it . . . received and disbursed over \$10,000,000 in cash and donated relief supplies to the value of over \$5,000,000. It . . . conducted over eighty Relief Operations in various parts of the world such as the Japanese Famine of 1906; the San Francisco, the Vesuvius, the Valparaiso, the Kingston earthquakes of 1906-07; the Chinese famines of 1907-10; Italian Earthquake, Messina, 1908; Cherry Mine Disaster, 1909; forest fires in 1910; forest fires, plagues, mine disasters, 1911; Titanic Wreck and Mississippi Flood, 1912; Ohio and Interior Storm and Flood Relief; Grecian-Balkan War; Serbian Balkan-Turkish Balkan Relief, 1913; Floods, Mexican Insurrection, Volcano and other relief, 1914; Serbian Anti-Typhus Campaign and Eastland Disaster, and European War Relief, 1915-16. . . . [During these years of 1915-1916 it sent about four hundred surgeons, trained nurses, and sanitarians to various parts of Europe. Shipments of supplies exceeding 5,000,000 pounds . . . [were] made to Europe's war zones."—H. S. Kerrick, *Military and naval America*, pp. 338-341. —"In August, 1914, when the World War broke

over Europe, the American Red Cross, true to its watchword, offered its trained personnel and hospital supplies to every belligerent country; acceptance was unanimous. On September 13, 1914, the relief ship *Red Cross* carried surgeons, supplies and 120 nurses for England, Russia, France, Germany, Austria, Belgium, Serbia, and Bulgaria. . . . When . . . in the spring of 1915, typhus broke out in Serbia, . . . only after a bitter battle was the scourge conquered. The tale of suffering that the pioneers sent back to America in 1914-1915 . . . was unbelievably strange. . . . American nurses won a place of honor on the medical rôles of all Europe. Their experience was to prove valuable in later days. The units were recalled in October, 1915; after the promised year of service, but many members remained as volunteers. When America went into the war, Red Cross nurses were still serving in all of the Allied countries. Thus, the stirring and troubled days of April, 1917, found the Red Cross nurses mobilized for immediate action. Eight thousand and fifteen names stood on the Red Cross rolls. . . . When America recognized the existence of a state of war with Germany, twenty-five Base Hospital Units [see BASE HOSPITALS] were well under way. . . . Six of the waiting Base Hospital Units were assigned to duty with the British Expeditionary Force. . . . It was over the hospital unit in Rouen that the Stars and Stripes first floated as the flag of an ally on the soil of France."—H. P. Davison, *American Red Cross in the Great War*, pp. 80-84.

American National Red Cross: 1917-1919.—In the World War.—Activities abroad and at home.—"On May 12, 1917, President Wilson appointed Mr. H. P. Davison, Chairman of a War Council to direct the war relief activities of the American Red Cross. In June, 1917, the War Council boldly asked the American people for One Hundred Million Dollars as a war fund, an appeal unprecedented in the history of relief enterprises. . . . The result showed that the War Council had not miscalculated the liberality of the American people, for the fund was oversubscribed, \$114,023,640.23 collected. . . . It was on June 2, 1917, that the first American Red Cross Commission sailed for France, a band of eighteen under the leadership of Major M. P. Murphy, with general instructions to prepare for service to the American troops when they should arrive and to do everything possible for the immediate and future relief of the sorely pressed armies and civilian population of our Allies. . . . The first detachment of foreign workers . . . in time expanded to a grand total of 6,374 workers. . . . Other commissions were furnished to Russia, Italy, Serbia, Roumania, Great Britain, Belgium (always closely associated with the Commission to France, but ultimately founded as an independent commission), Palestine, Switzerland, Greece, Siberia, Archangel, Russian and Allied Prisoners in Germany, western Russia and Baltic Provinces and later a commission to Poland, besides special provisions for other countries such as Armenia, to which no commission was sent but which the Red Cross made heavy contributions of money. Through these various Commissions there . . . [was] expended in relief work abroad . . . [including that rendered to the American army and navy] a total of \$157,775,016.81, . . . [The total personnel of the commissions was] 9,544. . . . Canteens of various types, hospitals for various purposes, hospital supplies, surgical dressings service, diet kitchens, ambulance corps, convalescent homes, relief of maimed

soldiers, prisoners' relief, refugee relief, assistance to repatriates, tuberculosis commissions, service to children, general medical and nursing service, re-education of mutilated—these were a few of the outstanding items [of relief]. The Red Cross department of Home Service was created to care for the families of American soldiers. Care of refugees and repatriés abroad was a natural corollary to care for the soldier . . . of [the] Allies. Nor was that all. . . . The Red Cross Medical and Nursing Service expanded from army activities to civilian activities in every country of . . . [the] Allies, and doctors and nurses . . . in many places, assumed the added duty of instructing native doctors and nurses in Red Cross methods. . . . Contrary to expectations, there was more rather than less need for the American Red Cross in Europe in the first three months that followed the Armistice. . . . It was not mere organization pride which compelled the American Red Cross to prolong its extensive foreign operations, but the pressing and practical necessity of providing ways and means, funds and personnel, to complete a work which simply could not be abandoned. As rapidly as possible commissions . . . [were] closed, their continuing activities transferred to national governmental authorities or to American Red Cross Chapters consisting of American residents. The Belgian, Italian, Greek, Palestine, British and Swiss [and French] Commissions . . . [were quickly] closed, the French reduced to the lowest working basis, but work in the Balkans, Poland, some of the Baltic countries and Siberia [continued for some time]. . . . By an amendment to the Army Bill, Congress . . . [authorized] the Secretary of War to transfer to the American Red Cross such medical and surgical supplies and dietary food stuffs [then] in Europe as [should] not be needed by the army abroad or at home, 'to be used by the American Red Cross to relieve and supply the pressing needs of the countries involved in the late war.'—American Red Cross, *American Red Cross, past, present and future*, (pamphlet), Nov., 1919.

American National Red Cross: 1919-1920.—Post-war relief work.—"During the fiscal year 1919-1920, the American Red Cross spent fifty million dollars in closing up and consolidating its relief work in Europe, so far as that was possible. Yet it continued its overseas activities in Poland, Serbia, Vienna, Constantinople, and several other countries or cities. As an example of the relief work it may be stated that on closing the Red Cross relief work in France and Belgium [in which country more than four million dollars had been expended in relief work between July 1, 1917 and June 30, 1919], supplies were furnished to nearly four thousand villages and over three million people were benefited by gifts or sales of material."—*Red Cross carries on* (*Outlook*, Nov. 3, 1920, p. 402).

American National Red Cross: 1920-1921.—Reorganized domestic policy.—"When the war ended there were two plainly marked phases to the domestic program of the American Red Cross: First the obligation to serve without stint the men who had been with the colors and second, the opportunity to direct popular interest and to organize local resources for the betterment of local conditions of life, particularly those which affect health. . . . During the war the Red Cross had only national aims. Everyone realized that to achieve great national purposes the individual communities must follow uniform methods and must accept highly centralized national control. . . . And so far as national obligations still exist

Red Cross chapters are still working in the same spirit. On December 1, 1920, of 3,244 chapters reported to national headquarters, 2,540 were still active in war service. . . . On the second phase of the program the situation is radically different. Instead of a great band numbering millions, working toward a common aim, the active Red Cross people . . . [dissolved] into hundreds of little groups, more or less strong, turning their attention to prosaic local conditions and familiar problems, attacking matters hitherto taken for granted and dependent upon local interest and local financial resources to support a local service. The national society very early after the war laid down several policies of which time has proved the wisdom. The first of these was that it should remain entirely optional with the local community and the chapter to decide whether or not a local service would be undertaken. If the community already had developed some of the forms of service appropriate to the Red Cross, the chapter must arrange its program in a way that would not jeopardize such community resources as were already functioning. . . . Among all the possible forms of service which might have been encouraged, the national and division offices . . . gradually picked out the following as those in which the accumulated skill and training of the chapter people would stand them in good stead: 1. Formal instruction to lay people in first aid, in home hygiene and care of the sick and in food selection; 2. Public health nursing; 3. Home service for civilian families; 4. The organization of community effort in support of public health activities; 5. The organization of activities for children who are members of the Red Cross. . . . As a result of . . . [a] policy of insinuation and gentle encouragement, the chapters . . . to a surprising degree turned their attention to local problems. On December 1, 1920, 937 chapters had established a public health nursing service, while over 500 others had made application for the assignment of public health nurses. . . . 1,223 chapters were holding classes in home hygiene and care of the sick, 522 in regular first aid, 186 in life saving or water first aid, and 125 in food selection. . . . Home service . . . [had] been extended to civilian families by 689 chapters; Junior Red Cross auxiliaries . . . were organized and operating in more than half of all the chapters; health centers . . . [were being] operated by 185 chapters and 588 chapters . . . [were carrying] on public health projects aside from nursing or health centers. These latter are largely clinics. . . . If there is anything significant about what the Red Cross has done at home it lies in the fact of sheer bulk and in that it has opened up vast stretches of territory hitherto unserved, and has brought considerable masses of population into touch with these new forms of effort to make social institutions function more effectively and to reduce some of the needless hardship and waste of life and happiness. . . . The first readjustment in organization consisted in having what has been termed the consolidated field staff, which for the United States includes about one hundred and fifty people. . . . On January 29 [1921], the central committee of the American Red Cross, after consideration of a report made by a special committee headed by W. Frank Persons, authorized the completion of the centralization process so as to change the department and bureau heads in national and division offices from the semi-operating to the purely advisory relationship. Responsibility for general supervision of all activities continues to rest upon the chairman of the central committee. . . . The policies outlined for

the immediate future . . . [included]: The grouping in one department of the several forms of service for ex-soldiers and sailors and their families and for the men . . . in the army and navy and in the government hospitals and training centers; the operation of the entire organization with . . . [a view to reducing it] to the smallest size consistent with the efficient discharge of the obligations assumed; the financing of activities needed to finish the war work out of reserved war funds and the financing of the peace program from current income; the expenditure of the current income of the national organization in such a way as to secure a maximum of direct service to chapters, and, while there . . . [was] a shortage of trained personnel, particularly of field workers, the concentration of attention on assistance to chapters which . . . [had] already started on their peace program rather than on those which . . . [had] not as yet assumed such obligations."—N. R. Deardorff, *American Red Cross at home* (Survey, Feb. 12, 1921, pp. 691-693).

American National Red Cross: 1922.—Foreign relief work.—Foreign nursing service.—Domestic health activities.—"During the last twelve months [written August 1923], the activities of the American Red Cross in insular and foreign territory extended to almost every corner of the world. . . . Our most extensive foreign activity during the year was that by which the Red Cross met the emergency following the defeat of the Greek forces in Turkey and the burning of the city of Smyrna. . . . The American Red Cross in its Greek relief operations, extending over a period of nine months, spent \$2,610,000 and saved from starvation and epidemic disease more than 500,000 people. Fleeing from their country during the revolutionary period, a vast number of refugees from Russia flocked into the neighboring countries, where hundreds of thousands of them found themselves without resources or the means of self-support. . . . From the East and the West, the distress of these refugees has called to the sympathy of all nations. During the past year, to the American Red Cross have come many urgent appeals in their behalf—from Constantinople, Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece, Germany, Austria, Poland, Latvia, Vladivostok, Manchuria, Shanghai, and Manila. . . . In July, 1922, an arrangement was made by the terms of which the League of Nations, the American Relief Administration, and the American Red Cross undertook to finish the task of evacuation of Russian refugees from Constantinople. The League of Nations agreed to provide the sum of 30,000 pounds sterling, the American Relief Administration \$100,000, and the American Red Cross \$40,000. Owing to the failure of the League of Nations to raise the amount agreed upon, the American Red Cross made a further subscription equal to 15,000 pounds sterling. This new project moved slowly subject to many unforeseen delays. . . . In the Spring of 1923, a final vigorous effort was made to put an end to the task. An additional contribution of \$17,000 was given by the League, and \$35,000 additional was given by the Red Cross. By June 30, the long task was substantially completed. With the conquest of eastern Siberia by the Soviet government in 1922, another wave of refugees fled into China and Korea. Those in Korea were given care by the Japanese Red Cross Society. In behalf of those in China, strong appeals were received by the American Red Cross from several sources, and after proper investigation, the China Central Committee of the American Red Cross was called upon to spend an appropriation of \$25,000. . . . In the autumn of 1922, a party of refugees numbering

perhaps 1,700 persons, . . . and under command of Admiral Stark of the old Russian Navy, fled from Vladivostok by sea. . . . [After having been refused entrance at several Chinese and Japanese ports they landed at Manila, where \$10,000 was expended in providing relief for the surviving 800 refugees. They were transferred to San Francisco about July 1, 1923, where] self-supporting employment was quickly found for the entire group. Other important phases of the foreign operations of the American Red Cross include: large contributions for hospital and medical supplies in coöperation with the work of famine relief carried on in Russia by the American Relief Administration. This work was substantially complete by June 30, 1923. In November, 1922, a severe earthquake caused wide-spread destruction in the northern portion of Chile. The American Red Cross promptly answered the call by a contribution of \$10,000 to be expended in behalf of the sufferers of the Chilean Red Cross. Toward the end of 1922, a contribution of \$25,000 was made to the German Red Cross Society for expenditure in behalf of sick and undernourished children in the German Empire. . . . [During 1922 relief was extended in China to the Swatow typhoon sufferers, to the refugees and wounded of the recent civil wars and to Russian refugees in Manchuria.] One of the most severe earthquakes of recent years visited Persia in May, 1923, but received little attention in the press. The American Red Cross, however, upon learning of the earthquake, forwarded \$5,000 to be spent by the American Minister to Persia. This is just a glimpse of the story, but it indicates how the activities of the American Red Cross, on behalf of humanity, extended to almost every corner of the world."—E. P. Bicknell, *Foreign relief work done during year* (*Red Cross Courier*, Aug. 25, 1923, pp. 9, 12).—In October 1922 a health advisory committee composed of ten of the leading medical and public health authorities of the country was appointed to provide a comprehensive peace-time program. The report of the committee was unanimously approved on February 24, 1923. Existing health activities were endorsed and a stronger program of health education adopted. William C. Hunt, Manager of the Pacific division of the Red Cross, stated in an address before the International Health Education Conference in San Francisco that "while all health work of the Red Cross is educational, not all of it is confined to individuals of school age. Some consideration is given to the pre-school and pre-natal child, while considerable effort is made to train adults into proper health habits and attitude. The American Red Cross has contributed to health education by conducting classes in Home Hygiene and Care of the Sick for groups of adults and school children. . . . The nutrition program of the Red Cross includes instruction concerning pre-natal, pre-school, adult, and abnormal dietary requirements. This activity is conducted by qualified nutrition workers. . . . The number of children receiving regular Red Cross nutritional instruction in the schools was 110,000, while the pre-school children numbered 4,270, and regular instruction was given to 3,096 teachers. . . . In First Aid the Red Cross prepares textbooks of instruction, standard first aid kits, boxes of appliances, etc. . . . Approximately 14,000 students received instruction in Red Cross First Aid last year. . . . There are at present 24,000 Junior auxiliaries with 123,000 teachers conducting Junior activities, and a Junior Red Cross membership of approximately 5,000,000 children. . . . The American Red Cross has built up an enrollment of approximately 40,000 highly qualified nurses. . . .

The Red Cross Public Health Nursing Service in many rural or remote districts is supplying the first conception of the positive health ideal, and is supplying the leadership for an awakened health interest. . . . Over 1,000 Red Cross Public Health nurses are in the field to-day."—W. C. Hunt, *How Red Cross raises health standard of nation* (*Red Cross Courier*, Aug. 4, 1923).—Between July 1, 1917 and July 1, 1923 more than 70 million dollars was spent by the American Red Cross, nationally and through the chapters, in providing service to the men who wore the American uniform in the World War. The Red Cross rendered relief in twenty-three disasters during 1922. Between June 1, 1881 and March 31, 1923 a total of \$20,573,298 was expended in disaster relief.

ALSO IN: American Red Cross, *History of American Red Cross nursing*.

British organizations: National Aid Society (1870) and the St. John Ambulance Association (1878).—Central British Red Cross Committee formed (1898).—Amalgamation of societies for the Great War (1914).—Work of the British dominions.—"Unlike the continental nations, Great Britain organized no Red Cross after the Treaty of Geneva was adopted, but when the horrors of the battles of 1870 startled the English public, 'the National Red Cross Society for Aid to the Sick and Wounded in War' was created, with Queen Victoria as patroness. As no organization had existed, great difficulty was experienced in dealing with the large sums of money and the vast amount of stores contributed. . . . It was only after the report of the International Conference of Vienna in 1897 pointed out the dangers caused by the absence of a central Red Cross organization in touch with military requirements that a Central Red Cross Committee was created to coördinate this work of the Society for the Aid of the Sick and Wounded in War, the St. John's Ambulance Association and the Army Nursing Reserve. . . . At the time of the Ninth International Red Cross Conference, held at Washington in 1912, Great Britain was the only important country whose society sent no delegates. The British government and the St. John's Ambulance Association were both well represented, the later by Sir John Furley, a veteran in war relief work who, though nearly 80 years of age, . . . in the [World War] again aided the Princess Christian to provide and equip an hospital train. Canada for some time [had had] a well organized Red Cross Society, but in the other British possessions the war relief . . . [was] largely carried on by the branches of the St. John's Ambulance Association. The native princes of India . . . [showed] a remarkable loyalty to Great Britain in the . . . [World War]. . . . The Begum, besides the hospital ship, forwarded through the St. John's Ambulance Association thousands of Korans for the Moslem soldiers fighting with the British army. [The dominions of] Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and all the smaller British colonies . . . [did] their share in the relief work. The St. John's Ambulance Association, under the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, takes a very important part in the Red Cross work of Great Britain. . . . During the Boer War the British Red Cross, after some delay spent in organizing its departments, did good service especially with its hospital ships and trains."—M. T. Boardman, *Under the Red Cross flag at home and abroad*, pp. 228-230.—We get an idea of British Red Cross activities during the Great War from "an article in *The Red Cross Magazine* (August, Garden City, N. Y.), contributed by Ian Malcolm, who was British Red-Cross Sub-Commis-

sioner in France during 1914-1915, and who tells us of the seven campaigns in which the British Red Cross . . . [had been] engaged in France, Servia, Egypt, Gallipoli, Saloniki, Mesopotamia and East Africa. Yet it would be a mistake to suppose that these . . . [were] the only activities of the Red Cross during the war, for there . . . [were] countless Red-Cross hospitals, homes, institutions, and war-centers scattered about from east to west, from north to south, all working at full strength. And, furthermore, there . . . [was] the prisoners-of-war department supplying something like 150,000 parcels of food every fortnight to British prisoners in Germany, and the prisoners interned in Switzerland. Of interesting record is the statement of this writer that for twenty years . . . Germany and Russia [had] kept their Red-Cross organization closely linked up with the Army and on almost a war-footing even in times of peace. This was never done in England, we are told, but—"when the war did break out in August, 1914, our small and quite unknown Red-Cross organization pulled itself together, amalgamated with the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, and offered the War Office to work unitedly, body and soul, day and night, for the relief of suffering on the fields of battle and at home. . . . From all quarters of the British Empire came help: the poorest and the richest at home, the raja and the ryot in India, the South-African millionaire, the Canadian rancher, tea-planters from Ceylon, sheep-farmers from Australia and New Zealand—all competed to be the first to offer themselves and of their best. No wonder that, at first, our modest organization was overwhelmed; the marvel is that it did not utterly break down. Instead of which it has triumphed gloriously." Then a Canadian contributor to *The Red Cross Magazine* tells us that altho the Canadian Red-Cross Society was in existence at the outbreak of the war, it was not at all in an active existence, but branches soon were formed all through the Dominion until . . . [there was] hardly a village from Halifax to Vancouver that . . . [was] not doing its share."

—*Literary Digest*, July 28, 1917, pp. 35-36.

British organizations: 1914-1920.—War work.—Relief work in Great Britain was administered through two joint committees of the British Red Cross society and the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England. These committees were known as the joint war committee and the joint war finance committee. "Immediately on the outbreak of War, the British Red Cross Society started operations, and a Fund was opened by *The Times* for the receipt of donations to carry on the work. Subsequently, however, *The Times* laid it down that the first £200,000 of this Fund was to be retained by the British Red Cross Society, and that all further receipts over and above the £200,000 were to be divided between the British Red Cross Society and the Order of St. John of Jerusalem. . . . A formal agreement was entered into by the two Corporations in October, 1914, but experience quickly showed that this arrangement for a division of the Fund could not be satisfactorily carried out, and a fresh Agreement was substituted whereby the two Corporations agreed to pool the funds instead of dividing them, and to apply all monies entrusted to them to war work which they should undertake in common. . . . [The total amount of the Times Fund was £16,510,023 and the total sum subscribed from all sources reached £21,885,035 for the period from October 20, 1914 to June 30, 1920.] Any general estimate of the British Empire's Red Cross activities would, of course, include the operations of other Societies within

the British Dominions, such as the Canadian, Australian, and South African Branches of the British Red Cross Society. These great Societies, though nominally Branches of the British Red Cross Society, are for all practical purposes separate organizations with separate funds. By munificent gifts of money and stores, and in many other ways, they supported the Joint War Committee."

—*Reports by the Joint War Committee and the Joint War Finance Committee of the British Red Cross Society and the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England, 1914-1919*, pp. 49, 2-3.—Of the total subscribed £17,340,428 was expended on war work and £2,717,927 on after-care and other post-war schemes. In addition the Scottish branch of the British Red Cross collected more than £2,000,000 and administered these funds separately. The three provinces of Leinster, Munster and Connaught in Ireland contributed more than half a million pounds and Ulster alone subscribed £143,000. Important departments of Red Cross activity were those which maintained and equipped hospitals at home and abroad, provided prisoners in enemy countries with food and clothing, conducted inquiries concerning the wounded and missing, furnished educational and industrial training for prisoners interned in Holland and Switzerland, and provided after-care for disabled men. Of the work done in the various belligerent countries the most extensive was accomplished in France and Belgium. "The Canadian Red Cross Society had been founded in 1896 as a branch of the great international Society first organized at Geneva in 1864. During the war it expended more than \$24,000,000, besides sending more than \$6,000,000 to the British Red Cross. The money was spent in the provision of hospitals, recreation rooms, ambulances, motor lorries, in sending food to Canadian prisoners and in a thousand errands of mercy. Not only were Canadians assisted, but large supplies were sent to all . . . [the] Allies. Since the war it has carried on its activities for both wounded and disabled soldiers, and in coöperation with public authorities in the improvement of the health of the people. . . . The provincial Government of Ontario alone spent on direct war work up to the time of the Armistice about \$8,500,000, and in the following year over \$1,000,000 more. This included gifts of flour to Great Britain, of machine-guns to the Canadian forces, the erection and equipment of a great Military Hospital at Orpington in Kent, the maintenance at home of a Soldiers' Aid Commission."—W. L. Grant, *Ontario high school history of Canada*, pp. 382-383.

Japan: Origin and growth.—Extensive membership.—"The Red Cross Society of Japan is by no means merely a copy of the Red Cross societies of Europe, as its name would seem to indicate; for the idea of assisting the wounded soldiers and allaying the suffering caused by war arose spontaneously in Japan. . . . In 1867, two years before the Restoration, when Japan was considered a savage country by the West, and when she possessed neither railways nor telegraphs, machinery, etc., Count Sano, an enthusiastic humanitarian, was sent by the Shogun to the Exhibition in Paris, where he had the opportunity of studying the Red Cross societies of various countries. Again, in 1873, when this gentleman was ambassador in Vienna, he carefully observed the Red Cross Society, and especially its activity during the Franco-German War of 1870. When the Civil War of 1877 broke out in Japan, Count Sano was back in his native country, and he conceived the idea of forming a society after the model of the European Red Cross societies. The nobility

of Japan received his ideas most favourably, and a society was founded which was called *Hakuaisha* (Benevolent Society). . . . The Mikado countenanced the objects of the Society and assisted it in every way. From 1887 onward he gave it a yearly contribution of 5,000 yen, to which in 1888 a gift of 100,000 yen was added. After the Sino-Japanese War, the Mikado's yearly contribution was increased to 10,000 yen, in recognition of the progress which the Society had made of the great assistance which it had given during that campaign. . . . [This was in addition to a yearly contribution of 5,000 yen for patients and generous gifts to the society from time to time.] The motto of the Japanese Red Cross Society is 'Pay your debt to your country by helping its soldiers'; and this motto . . . quickly made the Society immensely popular throughout the country. . . . The war with China of 1894-1895 demonstrated the excellence of the Japanese Red Cross Society, and proved at the same time its best advertisement, for at the end of 1895 there were more than 160,000 members. Since the Society had proved its immense practical utility, the number of its members rose by leaps and bounds, and at the end of 1898 there were 570,000 members, and the yearly receipts had reached 1,582,622 yen.—O. Eltzbacher, *Red Cross Society of Japan* (*Contemporary Review*, Sept., 1904).—In the Russo-Japanese war only two per cent of the army died from disease as against 1.51 per cent who died from wounds. In 1917 we read that, "one person in every twenty-eight in Japan is a member of the Red Cross. This makes a total membership of 1,800,000; and the resources of the society exceed \$15,000,000. By many it is said that the Eastern Kingdom has the best Red Cross Society in the world. But the spirit which actuates this organization goes with the Japanese people when they travel, and we find that every fifth Japanese in San Francisco and Los Angeles has joined the Red Cross of . . . (the United States).—*Japan's background for the Red Cross* (*Literary Digest*, July 28, 1917, p. 36).

RED KNIGHTS, Catholic social organization, forerunner of the Knights of Columbus. See **KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS**: Circumstances of origin.

RED LAND, district between the Rhine and the Weser, Germany, in which the Vehmische courts were held. See **VEHMGERICHTS**.

RED RIVER EXPEDITION. See U.S.A.: 1864 (March-May: Louisiana).

RED RIVER SETTLEMENT. See CANADA: 1869-1873.

RED ROBE, Counsellors of the, members of the Council of Ten in Venice. See **VENICE**: 1032-1319.

RED SEA, an arm of the Indian ocean, separating the Arabian peninsula from northeast Africa. It extends for a distance of about 1,200 miles from the Gulf of Aden, through the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, in a northerly direction to the Sinai peninsula, where it branches westward into the Gulf of Suez and eastward in the Gulf of Akaba. Its greatest breadth is about 250 miles in the southern portion, narrowing to 130 miles in the north. The opening of the Suez canal in 1869 converted the Red sea from a comparatively unfrequented sheet of water into one of the world's most important ocean highways, as nearly all sea-borne traffic between Europe and the Far East pass through it.—See also **ERYTHREAN SEA**; **JEWS**: Exodus.

RED SUNDAY. See **BLOODY SUNDAY**.

RED TERROR: France. See **FRANCE**: 1794-1795 (July-April).

Russia. See **RUSSIA**: 1918 (August-September).

Turkestan. See **TURKESTAN**: 1917-1920.

REDEMPTION, Right of. See **EQUITY LAW**: 1612.

REDEMPTIONERS. — "Redemptioners, or term slaves, as they were sometimes called, constituted in the early part of the 18th century a peculiar feature of colonial society. They were recruited from among all manner of people in the old world, and through this channel Europe emptied upon America, not only the virtuous poor and oppressed of her population, but the vagrants, felons, and the dregs of her communities. . . . There were two kinds of redemptioners: 'indented servants,' who had bound themselves to their masters for a term of years previous to their leaving the old country; and 'free-willers,' who, being without money and desirous of emigrating, agreed with the captains of ships to allow themselves and their families to be sold on arrival, for the captains, advantage, and thus repay costs of passage and other expenses."—A. D. Mellick, Jr., *Story of an old farm*, ch. 11.—See also **INDENTURED SERVANTS**; U.S.A.: 1663-1745.

REDEMPTRISTS.—The members of the congregation of the Most Holy Redeemer, founded by St. Alphonsus Maria de Liguori, in 1732, are commonly known as Redemptorists. The congregation is especially devoted to apostolic work among neglected classes of people.—See also **MONASTICISM**: 16th-19th centuries.

1903.—Forbidden to teach in France. See **FRANCE**: 1900-1904.

REDFIELD, William Cox (1858-), American cabinet officer. Member of the House of Representatives, 1911-1913; secretary of commerce, 1913-1919. See U.S.A.: 1919-1920.

REDISTRIBUTION ACT (1885). See **ENGLAND**: 1884-1885.

REDJEM, primitive tombs of ancient African peoples. See **AFRICA**: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples.

REDMOND, John (1851-1918), Irish statesman. Entered Parliament, 1881; succeeded Parnell as leader of the Nationalist party, 1891. See **IRELAND**: 1913-1916; 1914-1916; 1917; 1918 (March 6).

REDONES, early tribe in Gaul. See **VENETI OF WESTERN GAUL**.

REDS, or **Colorados**, political party in Uruguay. See **URUGUAY**: 1821-1905.

REDSTICKS, Creek Indians in Florida. They were hostile to the United States during the War of 1812. See **FLORIDA**: 1812-1819.

REDWOOD LIBRARY. See **LIBRARIES**: Modern: United States: Redwood library.

REED, Thomas Brackett (1839-1902), American political leader. Paymaster of the United States navy, 1864-1865; member of the House of Representatives, 1877-1899; speaker, 1889-1891; 1895-1899. See **CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES**: House: Speaker, etc.; **MAINE**: 1896-1918.

REED, William Bradford (1806-1876), American journalist and political leader. Minister to China, 1857-1860. See **CHINA**: 1857-1868.

REED AMENDMENT (1917). See **LIQUOR PROBLEM**: United States: 1913-1919.

REEDER, Andrew Horatio (1807-1864), first governor of the territory of Kansas, 1854-1855. See **KANSAS**: 1854-1855.

REEVE. See **GEREFA**.

REEVES, William Pember (1857-), British economist. Member of the New Zealand parliament, 1887-1896; minister of education, labor and justice, 1891-1896; agent-general of New Zealand, 1896-1905. See **NEW ZEALAND**: 1890-1909; **SUFFRAGE, WOMAN**: New Zealand.

REFEREE LAW (1878). See **NEW HAMPSHIRE**: 1876-1884.

REFERENDUM. See **INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM**; also **LABOR PARTIES**: 1918-1920.

REFORM, Prison. See **PRISON REFORM**.

REFORM ACT: First (1832). See **BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND**: 1832; **ENGLAND**: 1830; 1830-1832; **LIBERAL PARTY**: 1832.

Second (1867). See **ENGLAND**: 1865-1868.

Third (1884). See **ENGLAND**: 1884-1885.

REFORM BILL RIOTS. See **BRISTOL**: 1831.

REFORMATION: Egypt. See **EGYPT**: B. C. 1379.

REFORMATION, Counter. See **EUROPE**: Renaissance and Reformation: Catholic Reformation; **PAPACY**: 1534-1540, to 1555-1603; 1570-1597; **CHRISTIANITY**: 16th century: Reformation period; **ITALY**: 1530-1600.

REFORMATION, Protestant. See **EUROPE**: Middle Ages: Background, etc.; Renaissance and Reformation: Characteristics, etc., to Catholic reformation; **PAPACY**: 15th-16th centuries; **CHRISTIANITY**: 16th century: Reformation period; **EDUCATION**: Modern: Influence, etc.; 15th-16th centuries: Relations, etc.; **ETHICS**: 15th-16th centuries; **HISTORY**: 23; **MUSIC**: Modern: 1540-1672.

Austria. See **AUSTRIA**: 1519-1555.

Bohemia. See **BOHEMIA**: 1405-1415; 1419-1434, and after.

Denmark. See **SCANDINAVIAN STATES**: 1397-1527.

England. See **ENGLAND**: 1527-1534, and after; also **LOLLARDS**.

France. See **PAPACY**: 1521-1535; **FRANCE**: 1532-1547, and after.

Germany. See **PAPACY**: 1516-1517, 1517-1521, 1521-1522, 1522-1525 to 1530-1531, 1537-1563; **GERMANY**: 1517-1523, 1530-1532 to 1552-1561; also **ANABAPTISTS**; **PALATINATE OF THE RHINE**: 1518-1572.

Hungary. See **HUNGARY**: 1526-1567.

Ireland. See **IRELAND**: 1535-1553.

Netherlands. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1521-1555, and after.

Piedmont. See **SAVOY AND PIEDMONT**: 1559-1580.

Rome. See **ROME**: Modern city: 1537-1621.

Scotland. See **SCOTLAND**: 1547-1557; 1557; 1558-1560; 1561-1568.

Sweden. See **SCANDINAVIAN STATES**: 1397-1527.

Switzerland. See **PAPACY**: 1519-1524; **SWITZERLAND**: 1528-1531; **GENEVA**: 1504-1535; 1536-1564.

REFORMATION, Right of (1648), clause in the Treaty of Westphalia granting each sovereign the right to impose his religion on his subjects. See **WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF** (1648).

REFORMED CHURCH.—The Protestant church which rose in Switzerland under Zwingli (see **PAPACY**: 1519-1524; **SWITZERLAND**: 1528-1531), and was developed and organized under Calvin (see **GENEVA**: 1504-1535; 1536-1564), took the name of the Reformed Church. Under that name its organization of Protestantism prevailed in France, in the Netherlands and the Palatinate. The Presbyterian church in Scotland was substantially the same. The organization and the name were brought from Holland to the Dutch colony of New Netherland.—E. T. Corwin, *History of the Reformed Church, Dutch*.

REFRIGERATION. See **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Refrigeration.

REFUGE, Cities of. See **CITIES OF REFUGE**.

REGALADO, Tomaso, general of Salvador. See **CENTRAL AMERICA**: 1895-1902.

REGALDI, Giuseppe (1809-1883), Italian poet. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1830-1912.

REGALIA, or Regale, Right of, privilege of

sovereigns in ecclesiastical matters relating to revenues from vacant bishoprics which, particularly in the Middle Ages, were claimed by both popes and secular rulers. Right of Regale (*Droit de régale*) refers to a controversy between Louis XIV and a number of French bishops, during the pontificate of Pope Innocent XI.

REGAS, or Rhigas, Pheraios (c. 1753-1798), Greek poet and patriot. See **GREECE**: 1821-1829; **GREEK LITERATURE**: Modern.

REGENCE CLUB, Paris. See **CLUBS**: 19th-20th centuries: Paris.

REGENCY BILL (1789). See **ENGLAND**: 1788-1789.

REGENERADORES, political party in Portugal. See **PORTUGAL**: 1906-1909.

REGENSBURG. See **RATISBON**.

REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**: 1748-1813.

REGGIO DI CALABRIA, city on the Strait of Messina, eight miles southeast of Messina, Sicily. It is the capital of the province of Reggio and had a population of 59,516 in 1921.

1313.—Captured by king of Sicily. See **ITALY**: 1310-1313: Visitation of the emperor.

1909.—Destroyed by earthquake. See **ITALY**: 1908-1909.

REGICIDES. See **ENGLAND**: 1658-1660; **CONNECTICUT**: 1660-1664.

REGIDORES, South American municipal councillors. See **AUDIENCIAS**.

REGIE, term used to designate a method of collecting import and export duties in Santo Domingo. See **SANTO DOMINGO**: 1901-1905.

REGILLUS, Lake, Battle at, a battle with the Latins to which the Romans ascribed their deliverance from the last of the Tarquins.

REGIONALISM, Spain. See **SPAIN**: 1921: Political outlook in Spain.

REGISTRATION, Land. See **LAND TITLES**: 1649-1912; 1858-1922; **COMMON LAW**: 1630-1641; 1854-1882; 1889.

REGISTRY, Public. See **COMMON LAW**: 1630-1641; **CENSORS, ROMAN**.

REGNARD, Jean Francis (1655-1709), French dramatist. See **DRAMA**: 1500-1700.

REGNI, an early people of Britain. See **BRITAIN**: Celtic tribes.

REGULAR CLERKS, religious order comprising the Jesuits, Theatines and Barnabites. See **MONASTICISM**: 16th-19th centuries.

REGULATORS OF NORTH CAROLINA, self-appointed group to administer justice in the Carolinas. See **NORTH CAROLINA**: 1766-1771.

REGULUS, Marcus Atilius (died c.250 B. C.) Roman general. Consul, 276 B. C., 256 B. C.; leader in the first Punic War. See **PUNIC WARS**: First.

REHABILITATION ACTS (1918, 1920). See **LABOR LEGISLATION**: 1862-1920; **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Re-education.

REHEBOTHs, half castes of Southwest Africa. See **SOUTHWEST AFRICA**: 1919.

REICHA, Anton Joseph (1770-1836), French composer. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1800-1908.

REICHSGERICHT, supreme court of Germany. See **COURTS**: Germany: Under Republican constitution.

REICHSRATH, former Austrian parliament. See **AUSTRO-HUNGARY, CONSTITUTION OF**; **AUSTRIA, CONSTITUTION OF**.

REICHSTADT Napoleon Francis Joseph Charles, Duke of (1811-1832), known as the king of Rome and as Napoleon II, son of Napoleon I and Marie Louise of Austria. After the fall of the

empire his claim to the French throne was advanced by various factions but by the Treaty of Paris of 1817 it was excluded by the powers.

REICHSTAG, German national assembly. See **DIET**; **GERMANIC**; **GERMANY**, **CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC**; **Reichstag**; also **CHANCELLOR**: German imperial.

REID, Sir George Houston (1845-1918), Australian statesman. Premier of New South Wales, 1894-1899; premier of Australia, 1904-1905; high commissioner for Australia, 1910-1915. See **AUSTRALIA**: 1894-1895; 1903-1904; 1905-1906.

REID, Sir Robert Gillespie (1840-1908), Canadian railway contractor. Contracted to operate a railroad in Newfoundland, 1898. See **NEWFOUNDLAND**: 1897-1900; 1899-1901.

REID, Robert Threshie, 1st Earl Loreburn (1846-), English jurist. Solicitor-general, 1894; attorney-general, 1894-1895; Lord chancellor, 1905-1912.

REID, Whitelaw (1837-1912), American diplomat and journalist. Librarian of the House of Representatives, 1863-1866; minister to France, 1889-1892; ambassador to Great Britain, 1905-1912. See **NEWFOUNDLAND**: 1905-1909.

REIGN OF TERROR. See **TERROR**.

REILY, E. Mont (1866-), American political leader. Became governor of Porto Rico, 1921. See **PORTO RICO**: 1921-1923.

REIMS. See **RHEIMS**.

REIN, Wilhelm (1847-), German educator. See **EDUCATION**: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Herbartian movement, etc.

REINCKEN, or **Reinken**, Jan Adamson, or Johann Adam, German organist and composer. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1620-1722.

REINECKE, Karl (1824-1910), German composer. Studied with his father Johann Peter Rudolph Reinecke; court pianist to Christian VIII, Copenhagen, 1846-1848; became teacher at the Cologne conservatory, 1851; conducted Gewandhaus concerts, Leipzig, 1860-1895; teacher at the conservatory, Leipzig, 1860-1902; produced the opera "König Manfred," 1867. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1818-1880.

REINSCH, Paul Samuel (1869-), American diplomat. United States minister to China, 1913-1919; counsellor to the Chinese government, 1920.

REINSURANCE TREATY (1887). See **GERMANY**: 1887; 1890-1891.

REIS-EFFENDI, title formerly used by the Turkish chancellor of the empire and minister of foreign affairs. See **SUBLIME PORTE**.

REISS ELECTRICAL THERMOMETER. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: 1831-1921.

RELATIONS, German technical term for a class of printed matter. See **PRINTING AND THE PRESS**: 1612-1650.

RELATIVITY, Einstein theory of. See **SCIENCE**: Modern: 20th century: Theory of relativity; **ASTRONOMY**: Measuring star distances.

RELIEF, payment, in money or kind, made by a vassal to his lord on the succession of the latter to a fief. See **FEUDALISM**: Organization.

RELIEF, International. See **INTERNATIONAL RELIEF**; **BEIGIUM**: 1914-1918: National distress.

RELIEF BILL (1829). See **IRELAND**: 1811-1829.

RELIGION: Ethnic and catholic religions.—"By ethnic religions we mean those religions, each of which has always been confined within the boundaries of a particular race or family of mankind, and has never made proselytes or converts, except accidentally, outside of it. By catholic religions we mean those which have shown the

desire and power of passing over these limits, and becoming the religion of a considerable number of persons belonging to different races. . . . Now we find that each race, beside its special moral qualities, seems also to have special religious qualities, which cause it to tend toward some one kind of religion more than to another kind. These religions are the flower of the race; they come forth from it as its best aroma. Thus we see that Brahmanism is confined to that section or race of the great Aryan family which has occupied India for more than thirty centuries. It belongs to the Hindoos, to the people taking its name from the Indus, by the tributaries of which stream it entered India from the northwest. It has never attempted to extend itself beyond the particular variety of mankind. Perhaps one hundred and fifty millions of men accept it as their faith. It has been held by this race as their religion during a period immense in the history of mankind. Its sacred books are certainly more than three thousand years old. But during all this time it has never communicated itself to any race of men outside of the peninsula of India. It is thus seen to be a strictly ethnic religion, showing neither the tendency nor the desire to become the religion of mankind. The same thing may be said of the religion of Confucius. It belongs to China and the Chinese. It suits their taste and genius. They have had it as their state religion for some twenty-three hundred years, and it rules the opinions of the rulers of opinion among three hundred millions of men. But out of China Confucius is only a name. So too, of the system of Zoroaster. It was for a long period the religion of an Aryan tribe who became the ruling people among mankind. The Persians extended themselves through Western Asia, and conquered many nations, but they never communicated their religion. It was strictly a national or ethnic religion, belonging only to the Iranians and their descendants, the Parsees. In like manner it may be said that the religion of Egypt, of Greece, of Scandinavia, of the Jews, of Islam, and of Buddhism are ethnic religions. Those of Egypt and Scandinavia are strictly so. It is said, to be sure, that the Greeks borrowed the names of their gods from Egypt, but the gods themselves were entirely different ones. It is also true that some of the gods of the Romans were borrowed from the Greeks, but their life was left behind. They merely repeated by rote the Greek mythology, having no power to invent one for themselves. But the Greek religion they never received. For instead of its fair humanities, the Roman gods were only servants of the state,—a higher kind of consuls, tribunes, and lictors. The real Olympus of Rome was the Senate Chamber on the Capitoline Hill. Judaism also was in reality an ethnic religion, though it aimed at catholicity and expected it, and made proselytes. But it could not tolerate unessentials, and so failed of becoming catholic. The Jewish religion, until it had Christianity to help it, was never able to do more than make proselytes here and there. Christianity, while preaching the doctrines of Jesus and the New Testament, has been able to carry also the weight of the Old Testament, and to give a certain catholicity to Judaism. The religion of Mohammed has been catholic, in that it has become the religion of very different races,—the Arabs, Turks, and Persians, belonging to the three great varieties of the human family. But then Mohammedanism has never sought to make converts, but only subjects; it has not asked for belief, but merely for submission. . . . But Christianity teaches the

unity of God not merely as a supremacy of power and will, but as a supremacy of love and wisdom; it teaches God as Father, and not merely as King, so it seeks not merely to make proselytes and subjects, but to make converts. Hence Christianity, beginning as a Semitic religion, among the Jews, went across the Greek Archipelago and converted the Hellenic and the Latin races; afterward the Goths, Lombards, Franks, Vandals; later still, the Saxons, Danes, and Normans. Meantime, its Nestorian missionaries, pushing east, made converts in Armenia, Persia, India, and China. In later days it has converted negroes, Indians, and the people of the Pacific Islands. Something, indeed, stopped its progress after its first triumphant successes during seven or eight centuries. At the tenth century it reached its term. Modern missions, whether those of Jesuits or Protestants, have not converted whole nations and races, but only individuals here and there. The reason for this check, probably is, that Christians have repeated the mistakes of the Jews and Mohammedans. They have sought to make proselytes to an outward system of worship and ritual, or to make subjects to a *dogma*; but not to make converts to an idea and a life."—J. F. Clarke, *Ten great religions*, pp. 15-19.—See also BRAHMANISM; BUDDHISM; CHRISTIANITY; CONFUCIANISM; EGYPT: Religion; JEWS: Religion and the prophets; MOHAMMEDANISM; MYTHOLOGY: Grecian; Scandinavian; ZOROASTRIANS.

Universal elements.—Soul.—Underworld.—Animism.—Transmigration.—Fetishism.—Ceremonies.—Taboo.—Totemism.—Sacrifice.—Magic.—"The soul is among all men intimately connected with religion. All tribes, even the lowest, observe that a human being is made up of two parts, the body of flesh and bones, and an impalpable something that lives within. This impalpable something, or soul, is called by various names, but belief in it is universal. . . . Among savage peoples the soul is thought to have a material form. They cannot otherwise conceive of it. Perhaps a man's shadow, which, in his ignorance of optics, is to the savage inexplicable, contributed originally to this belief. Souls were not, however, always thought of as existing in human form; sometimes they were conceived in animal shapes. . . . The universality of religion is now generally conceded. Man is a worshipping animal; he is 'incurably religious.' Certain Australian tribes, reported on by Spencer and Gillen, appear at first sight to be exceptions to this rule, but a closer study of the facts leads one to believe that religion is not entirely absent. 'Religion is man's attitude toward the universe regarded as a social and ethical force,' and there is no satisfactory historical evidence that since man was man there have been peoples who did not attempt to enter into social relations with the extra-human powers of the universe. Among primitive peoples the essential part of religion is not belief, but practice. The primary aim is to avert the anger of supernatural beings and to secure their aid in the struggle for existence. . . . The universality of man's faith in the survival of the soul after death is attested in part by the universality of the belief in ghosts, and in the uniform practice of placing food in the tombs of the departed. Among all peoples, whether in the two Americas, in Central Africa, in Australia, or among the ancient inhabitants of Egypt or Palestine, not only food and drink, but the utensils that the departed had used in life were buried with him. Among the quantities of delicacies Queen Tai, of Egypt's Eighteenth Dynasty, placed in the tomb of her parents splen-

did easy chairs, a bed, chests of clothing, and even a chariot in which they might ride! Similarly the Indians bury with their brave his bow and arrows for use in the happy hunting-grounds beyond the setting sun. The underworld, while not universally believed in, plays an important part among many peoples. Except where the bodies of the dead are burned, or where, as in Northern Alaska, the earth is continuously frozen, they are buried in the ground. Where some are deposited for a time in trees, as in Australia, they are ultimately buried in the earth. Naturally it was inferred that the soul descended into the earth with the body. In many parts of the world, accordingly, there is supposed to be a great cavern in the heart of the earth in which the dead abide. Such was the Aralu of the Babylonians, the Sheol of the Hebrews, the Hades of the Greeks, and the Hel of the Scandinavians. This underworld was generally thought to be a dark and cheerless place. The dead longed for the free life of the upper air where the sun shone. Among some races, as civilization advanced, this underworld was divided into Elysian fields in which the good passed cheerful and happy lives, and places of punishment in which the wicked received the reward of their deeds. Belief in an underworld is not, however, universal. Peoples living near the sea have sometimes thought of the dead as dwelling beyond the deep; others have thought of them as living in high mountains; still others have thought of them as living in the sun, moon, or stars. Several peoples who have begun by thinking of the dead as in an underworld have, as they advanced, transferred that dwelling to the sky or to a heaven above the sky. Such a change can be traced among the Egyptians.

"As early man was conscious that he himself possessed a spirit or soul, so he attributed a similar spirit to everything about him, not only to animals, in whom the presence of a spirit was manifested in action, but to trees, rocks, springs, plants, weapons, heavenly bodies, etc. This general belief of men is called *animism*. These spirits might be weak or powerful, kind or unkind, helpful or hurtful, but in their midst man was compelled to live. He must, accordingly, come into relationship with them. In course of time the good and more powerful spirits developed into gods. One of the earliest and most persistent beliefs is that souls are reborn or reincarnated as human beings, beasts, plants, or inanimate things. The rise of such a belief is natural. If at the moment of a child's birth a person dies, it is natural to infer that the spirit has passed from one body to the other. Such a belief has been held among savages in America, Africa, Asia, and Oceania, as well as by the Brahmins, Buddhists, Plato, and Swedenborg. Gods are powerful and fully personified spirits with whom clans or tribes are believed to have established friendly relations. It is not always easy to distinguish a god from a spirit or ghost. The spirit or ghost may be regarded as just as powerful in his sphere as Ashur or Jupiter in his, but the sphere of the god is larger and his functions are more varied. In the earliest times the gods appear to have been the spirits of springs or of fertile localities. As man was dependent on their blessings, it was easy to regard them as powerful and beneficent. If the god was the god of a locality, it might be thought to dwell in a tree or a rock. Later the sun, moon, certain stars, the wind, rain, and even the sky were personified as gods, i. e., their spirits were thought to be influential in human life, so that man for his own good should cultivate friendly

relations with them. At times the local spirit of a tribe's dwelling-place became associated with the tribe as its god, and was gradually detached from its original locality. Thus tribal gods arose. As human society is constituted of men and women, so the gods were thought to be male and female. In many parts of the world a power akin to that of man is supposed to reside in certain inanimate things. When such objects are parts of an animal, such as bones, claws, tails, feet, etc., or of vegetables, they are probably thought to retain something of the power of the living thing to which they belonged. Fetish objects in West Africa are believed to be inhabited by spirits. In Australia an object called a *churinga* is regarded as the abode of the soul of an ancestor endowed with marvelous power. Closely related to fetishism is the practice of making images of the gods, although idolatry is a step higher in the process of evolution. An idol is an image or an object consciously made by man to represent his god. . . . Early religious expression consists largely of ceremonies. These are of social and economic significance. They consist of harvest festivals, or, among pastoral peoples, festivals of the weaning time, at which the gladness of the populace finds expression as a tribute to deity. Among uncivilized peoples these feasts are often orgies of a bestial nature. When, as among the Semites, the feast was held in honor of a deity of fertility, sexual license was thought to be pleasing to such deities. But similar license was granted at such times in many other parts of the world. At such feasts wives were often selected and marriages consummated. As religion covered the whole of life, marriage feasts had a certain religious significance. Birth, too, was attended with certain other ceremonies. But most important of all were the ceremonies through which young men, and in parts of the world young women, must pass at the age of puberty. These initiated the young people into the full life of the tribe as adult members; as adults they also came into full relationship with the god of the tribe. . . . Uncivilized men conceive of the supernatural as a kind of divine electricity with which many things in the world are charged. If things so charged are not handled in certain ways, the holiness, or supernatural power, will discharge itself and harm the individual. From this general conception many prohibitions have arisen. These are found among all peoples in early stages of development, though they vary in different tribes. The word 'taboo' is taken from a Polynesian dialect, where the phenomenon was first studied. . . . Taboos control the actions of men, not only in daily life, but during their religious festivals and ceremonies, though the taboos that are in force at such times often differ from those that control daily life. Totemism is the name given to the system of tribal subdivision denoted by totems. Totems are natural objects, usually animals, though they are sometimes plants, assumed as the emblem of a clan or family. The name is derived from the languages of the American Indians, among whom totemism was first studied. The totem is sometimes regarded as the ancestor of the tribe and is often closely associated in one way or another with its deity. Totemism exists in many parts of the world among tribes in a low stage of development, though there is no evidence that it has been universal. A number of the highly civilized nations of antiquity appear, however, to have passed through a totemistic stage of development. [See also CHURCH AND STATE: Totemism.] . . . In all parts of the world men have

offered to the gods gifts of food. They have assumed that the gods needed sustenance as much as they themselves. These gifts have, however, not consisted merely of grain or bloodless offerings, but of animal life as well, and, among many peoples, even of human victims. Only a few of the higher religions have reached a stage of evolution in which animal sacrifice is discarded, although human sacrifice survives only among the lowest savages. . . . The reason why animal sacrifice is a part of all early religion is obscure. It is regarded by some as a gift to the gods of the most costly kind of food; by others, as a meal in which the kinship or social bond between gods and men is renewed by both partaking of the flesh of a totemic victim akin to both; by still others its significance is found in the bursting forth of the victim's blood, the sight of which is supposed to appease the offended god. Whatever the explanation of the practice of animal sacrifice may be, it is clear that all men have, at a certain stage of religious development, believed that through it they entered into renewed communion with their gods. . . . Side by side with early religions one finds magical practices, and there has been much discussion as to whether magic originated before religion or whether it is a degenerate form of religion. In religion men appeal to higher powers to be gracious; they seek to gain the good will of gods by offerings and prayer; in magic they seek to force supernatural powers to do their will. There is in magic no reverence, but compulsion only. . . . The religions of all the civilized nations had their root in the religion of an uncivilized people. As some of the material of a tree comes from the earth through its roots, though more comes from the air through the leaves, so civilized religions, however much they owe to the inspiration of great souls after the rise of civilization, owe something to the inheritance, of the remote, uncivilized past."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world*, pp. 2-13.—See also AFRICA: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples; MADAGASCAR; MEXICO: Aboriginal peoples; PERU: 1200-1527.

North American Indians.—"The idea of God, often strange and grotesque perhaps, was nevertheless powerfully expressed in the Indian mythologies. Each division of the race possessed its own word to signify 'spirit.' Some of these words meant 'that which is above,' 'the higher one,' 'the invisible,' and these attributes accorded to deity show that the original Indian conception of it was practically the same as those which obtained among the primitive peoples of Europe and Asia. The Idea of God was that of a great prevailing force who resided 'in the sky.' Savage or primitive man observes that all brightness emanates from the firmament above him. His eyes are dazzled by its splendour. Therefore he concludes that it must be the abode of the source of all life, of all spiritual excellence. . . . Before man has discovered the uses of that higher machinery of reason, philosophy, and has learned to marshal his theological ideas by its light, such deities as he worships conform very much to his own ethical standard. They mirror his morality, or lack of it. They are, like himself, savage, cruel, insatiable in their appetites. Very likely, too, the bestial attributes of the totemic gods cling to those deities who have been evolved out of that system. Among savage people ideas of good and evil as we conceive them are non-existent. To them 'good' merely implies everything which is to their advantage, 'evil' that which injures or distresses them."—L. Spence, *Myths of the North American Indians*, pp. 101-102.—See also AMERICA: Theory

of a cultural wave, etc.; MYTHOLOGY: American Indians.

Course of development in highly organized religions.—"The organized religions often follow parallel lines of development. (1) In the primitive stage spirits are innumerable, 'they swarm.' No limits can be placed on the number of objects possessed by them as their home, and countless hordes besides roam homeless in earth and sea and air. But as man's mentality grows, he compares and generalizes and groups. To take one example: whereas each plot of ground once had its corn-spirit whose gift the crop of that field was, comparison gave rise to the idea of an earth-goddess, a Demeter or Ceres or Core, by whose beneficence came all the gifts earth made to man in growing crops. The corn-spirits of a district coalesced and then became a national deity to whom finally all increase of the earth was attributed. The history of Zeus among the Greeks also illustrates this principle. Nearly 200 names are known for this deity, only about one-third of which are poetic or descriptive. Nearly all the rest are referred to local or elemental deities whom he absorbed or displaced, assuming their functions and their cults, the latter of which are in several cases discordant with his normal worship and alien to his nature as a sky-god. The explanation is that as Zeus became the great national deity through the leadership of the tribes whose principal god he was, he took over the being, attributes, offices, shrines, and worship of older gods whose memory lingered solely in the names added to his as expressive of some special phase. So was it everywhere. The number of the gods was ever diminishing. Pantheons replaced the hordes of worshipful spirits, and in these the principal god obscured the lesser who tended to vanish from cult and recognition. Thus in Assyria Asshur became almost the only god aside from Ishtar, and in Israel, where according to the first commandment the gods of the nations were recognized as real existences, by the time of the exile Yahweh had come to be regarded as the only god of all the earth. Sometimes in this process gods were associated in triads or trinities, as in Egypt, Babylonia, and India, in the last case paralleling every phase of the Christian doctrine of the Trinity. Thus the tendency is toward monotheism, a result achieved only in Judaism, Christianity, Mohammedanism, and possibly in Zoroastrianism. (2) Another general tendency is that toward crystallization in ritual and creed. At the rise of a religion observances and conceptions are spontaneous, free, individualistic. But as the community grows exhortation hardens into doctrine, confession into creed, observance into ritual, acceptance of which and conformity to which mark the true believer. Thus orthodoxy and heterodoxy take their rise and become integral parts of religious thinking and terminology. (3) There is also a general tendency toward sectarianism. Against the disposition to define correct modes of teaching, of belief, and of worship arises the individualistic and diversified mentality of mankind, protesting against the limitations placed upon conceptions of God and on ways of serving him. Groups of individuals find themselves agreeing together in disagreeing with the standards erected. The result is that sect arises wherever attempt is made at uniformity. As an example, what is perhaps the most rigid and unyielding religious platform yet made, the teaching of Mohammed, is obliged to accommodate Sunni and Shiah with their almost untellable variety of subdivisions. Judging from the universal tend-

ency of religion to develop one sect, if history forecasts the future, oneness of belief will never be attained. And if the apparent demands of human nature be taken into the reckoning, such a result is not desirable. The Calvinistic mind must be left to its adoration of the mathematical precision of definite and exact foreordination, while the Arminian mind rejoices in the absolute responsibility of the individual for his own salvation or destruction."—G. W. Gilmore, *Comparative religion* (*New Schaff-Herzog encyclopedia of religious knowledge*, v. 3, pp. 201-202).—"We must regard Hellenism as the representative of all objective religions, in so far as they have a common pantheistic basis; while we must regard Hebraism as the general representative of subjective religion, the religion of moral obligation and moral aspiration. And, moreover, we must remember that we have not now the direct collision of these opposites; but that, in modern life, the reconciling principle of Christianity is ever mediating between the two, and reducing their antagonism to the relative opposition of different elements or organs in one life. . . . Religions of the Hellenic type dwelt in the world. They were at one with the social life and politics of the nations among whom they prevailed. As religions of the poetic sense, they welcomed the aid of art. They were tolerant of interests and pursuits other than their own, rarely intolerant even of the science and philosophy which destroyed them. They consecrated the bonds of national life and made patriotism one with piety. But, as they mingled together the natural and the spiritual, they were defective in purifying moral influence. They did not awake a clear consciousness of the distinction between the lower and the higher nature of man. . . . Hebraism, on the other hand, took its stand on the spirituality of God, as lifted in His holiness above all His creatures. As a consequence, it emphasised the contrast between that which *is* and that which *ought to be*, and called forth a desire for purity and holiness, such as was unknown to any other race. Its stern commands awoke in its adherents a consuming zeal for righteousness which refused to make any terms with evil, and saved them as by fire from the polluting compromises of heathenism. On the other hand, it was narrow, unspeculative, often fanatical. In its exclusive regard for divine holiness it tended to intolerance and jealous hatred of almost every civilising influence. The monotonous intensity of its piety was unfavourable to any exercise of the intelligence or of the imagination, which could not be made directly subservient to religious purposes. It allowed only one channel in which the higher life of man might flow. . . . How often, in our own day, do we thus see renewed the old quarrel of the saint, the religious man, the moral teacher, against the philosopher, the scientific man, the artist. The former finds the latter too worldly and indifferent, too willing to treat evil with toleration and to make compromises with it, too much inclined to regard the 'one thing needful' as only one of the various interests of mankind, and not as the supreme interest to which everything should be sacrificed. The latter finds the former too narrow and intolerant, too anxious for instant moral gains, too eager to proselytise and convert, too careful for safety, and too careless about truth."—E. Caird, *Evolution of religion*, v. 2, pp. 14-10.

B. C. 2000-200. — Egyptian. — Babylonian-Assyrian.—"The autochthonous development of thought was slow and timid. The syncretism of similar gods was, indeed, old and the early solar

explanations of so many gods prepared the ground for the theory, found after 1600 B. C., that all forces of nature were only manifestations of one great god of the universe, the sun. [See MYTHOLOGY: Egyptian.] Thus the imperfect solar monotheism of the short-lived religious reform of Pharaoh Amenhotep IV (about 1400 B. C.) was, after all, not as novel an undertaking as it seems at first; some pantheistic and almost monotheistic tendencies can be traced some centuries farther back. The masses, however, successfully resisted that reform, clinging to the old local names and cults. It cannot be repeated too strongly that all deviations from their conservatism were isolated and timid steps of a few most advanced scholars. The question remains: Why did this religion effect such a favorable and deep impression upon the Greeks and Romans that it extended over the whole Roman empire, so that in the last centuries of heathenism many hoped to find in the popular cult of Osiris an antidote against the spreading Christian creed? . . . It was this very conservatism and the simple, blind faith of the Egyptian masses which impressed the classical people so very deeply. Greek religion had become a shadowy remembrance and was treated with skepticism and frivolity, while the Egyptians firmly insisted on the bodily presence of the gods in their temples. So the Greeks concluded that such an earnest faith must have some deeper, secret reasons and that the Egyptian gods, notwithstanding all their strange features, possessed more reality than the shadowy gods of Greece. The wonderful civilization, above all, the architecture of the Egyptians and the attractiveness of everything unintelligible added to this impression that the mysterious creed of Egypt deserved special esteem."—W. M. Müller, *Egyptian religion* (J. A. Montgomery, ed., *Religions of the past and present*, pp. 48-49).—See also EGYPT: B. C. 1379; About B. C. 1200-670; ABYDOS, EGYPT; PRIESTHOOD: In Egypt.—"The Babylonian-Assyrian religion in its oldest form as revealed by the votive inscriptions of Sumerian rulers and by specimens of literature that may with great probability be carried back to the earliest period, is long past the stage of primitive beliefs, though it shows traces that in its conception of divine government of the universe it started from what is commonly termed animism. . . . Religion being the partly emotional, partly intellectual response to an instinct, confirmed by experience, that man is not the arbiter of his fate, it is natural for him to make the effort to supplement his inherent and self-evident weakness in the presence of nature by securing the aid of powers upon whose favor he is dependent. The storm destroys his handiwork, and therefore to avoid the catastrophe he seeks the favor of the power manifesting itself in the storm. The stream may sink his primitive craft and therefore, before trusting himself to the treacherous element, he endeavors to assure himself of the favor of the spirit or power residing in the water. When the advances to the agricultural stage, the earth and the sun are the two forces that in the main condition his welfare; and as a consequence he personifies the earth as a mother in whose womb the seed has been placed, which with the cooperation of the sun is brought to fruition. . . . Starting from this animistic conception of nature the Sumerians and Akkadians developed a pantheon, all the members of which take their rise as personified powers of nature. In thus grouping the gods into a more or less definite relationship—and that is involved in the creation of a pantheon—the religion passes beyond the

animistic stage. . . . Such tendencies as exist towards recognizing a single power as the sole arbiter of the universe centre in Babylonia around Marduk. Correspondingly, we find in Assyria, Ashur rising to a position which suggests that the Assyrians too were groping their way to a conception of the unity of the universe. [See MYTHOLOGY: Babylonian and Assyrian.] The thought that all phenomena are to be traced to a single source was at least grasped, though never in so definite a manner as to lead to a genuine monotheistic conception of divine government. . . . The higher spiritual conception of the presence of the divine in the universe thus encountered decided limitations, and despite considerable speculation of a relatively advanced theological character in the temple schools, the religion of the masses remained on a low level. . . . If, the question be raised as to the influence which the religion with its elaborate form of divination, with its variegated incantation ritual, its festivals and special occasions, its days of contrition and days of thanksgiving, exercised on the life of the people, the general verdict must be given that the ethical ideals, as voiced in the extensive religious literature, in the myths of which we have a considerable number, in creation and deluge tales, in the exploits of heroes, human but with semi-divine traits, are relatively high. Obedience to the gods led to placing the emphasis on fair dealings with one's fellows. Reverence for the superior powers upon whose favor the general as well as the individual welfare depended entailed, as a corollary, respect for the laws developed for the government of the country, albeit that the people had little direct share in such government, which remained autocratic to the latest period. The gods, though often depicted as arbitrary, yet on the whole appear to have had a real concern for the welfare of humanity. . . . We have ethical precepts—little collections of ethical sayings—which inculcate kindness, fidelity, truthfulness as the highest virtues by the side of piety and devotion to the gods. The hymns and penitential songs, as well as the prayers attached to the inscriptions of the rulers, breathe this same ethical spirit, even while asking the superior powers for purely material blessings."—M. Jastrow, *Religion of Babylonia and Assyria*, pp. 50, 54, 61-62, 73-75.—See also ASSYRIA: People, etc.; BABYLONIA: Religion; Early (Chaldean) monarchy; PRIESTHOOD: In Semitic religions (non-Jewish); SEMITES.

B. C. 1600-750.—Minoan. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age: B. C. 1600-1200; Late Minoan, etc.; B. C. 1200-750.

B. C. 12th-A. D. 20th centuries.—China and Japan. See ASIA: Unity of Asiatic civilization; CHINA: Religions of the people; CHINESE LITERATURE: Confucius, the founder; CONFUCIANISM; JAPAN: Religions; PRIESTHOOD: In China and Japan.

B. C. 1000.—Hinduism.—Primitive Aryan religion.—Vedic hymns.—Rule of the priests.—Transmigration.—Karma.—Caste system.—Brahmanism.—"The careful comparison of the religions of the various ancient Aryan peoples enables us to realize in some degree what the religion was in the still earlier days of the undivided people. It seems certain, first of all, that they honoured a vast number of special gods, each of them supposed to oversee some distinct aspect of life. But in that primitive age these Aryan men had already another group of gods distinguished as the heavenly ones (*deva*—*deus*) from the vulgar throng. They were all natural phenomena, but they were also all connected one way or an-

other with the sky and with the grandest of nature's operations. It seems clear that the undivided people already worshipped Sky, Sun, Moon, Dawn, Wind, Fire. But though they regarded and worshipped them as gods, they still called them by their significant names; they had not given them proper names or epithets. The method of obtaining the help of the gods in those days seems to have been already prayer and sacrifice of a rudimentary kind. . . . Ancestor-worship was almost as important to the original Aryan people as the worship of the gods. . . . Our first historical knowledge of the Aryan tribes which produced the great civilization of India shows them settled in the Western Punjab and beyond the Indus. . . . Like their early Aryan ancestors, they worshipped the heavenly powers, calling them *devas*; and they were very conscious of the great advantage which their knowledge of these gods gave them over the aborigines. They arranged their gods in three groups, according as they belonged to the upper region of light, the atmosphere, or the earth. These three groups were designated Upper, Middle, and Lower. The chief divinities were—Upper: *Varuna, Sūrya, Savitri, Vishnu, Ushas, Aditi, Mitra, Aryaman, the Asvins*; Middle: *Vata, Indra, Budra, Parjanya, the Maruts*; Lower: *Agni, Soma, Yama*. Their worship was largely sacrificial. Animals were often killed in sacrifice; but their most elaborate rites were connected with the offering of the *Soma* . . . and of clarified butter, called *ghī*. They were accustomed to have hymns recited at all sacrifices. But, although they laid so much stress on sacrifice, they had no temples and no images. Sacrifices were offered in the open air, and the arrangements were very simple. The gods were so closely connected with natural phenomena that no visible symbol was required. . . . The worship of ancestors was kept up with great care by the Indo-Aryans. They were called *pitaras*, 'fathers,' were regularly worshipped, and were invited to come to the sacrifice along with the gods. After death it was believed that the souls of the good were conducted by Yama to the place prepared for them, where they enjoyed an immortality of peace and happiness along with the 'fathers' and the gods. There was no doctrine of transmigration in those days. By the end of this period the centre of Hindu culture had moved east with the moving tribes to the holy field of Kurukshetra. The hymns, which had been composed during the previous centuries, and which were carefully preserved in the great families and believed to be inspired, were now gradually gathered in some priestly school into the great collection which is called the *Rigveda*. Young Brahmans committed these hymns to memory at school, in order to be able to use them at the sacrifices. The collection was universally accepted by the people as their sacred book, every hymn being recognized as a divine utterance revealed to the *rishi*, 'seer,' whose name it bears. Just ere the collection was closed, a hymn was added which declares that the three great divisions of the people and the aboriginal *Sūdras* had each a distinct origin in God. Thus a religious basis was found for that old-world form of fixed social organization which soon developed into caste. These hymns which form the *Rigveda* are one of the most interesting groups of literature in all the world. No other people ever produced a body of religious poetry of such striking originality and beauty at such an early stage of their history. The nearest parallel is formed by the Zoroastrian *Gathas* or hymns of the *Avesta*, the earliest literature of the sister people, the Iranians or early Persians; but they have

not nearly the interest and power of the *Rigveda*. The people in their daily life, their war, toil and worship, stand out clear and distinct in these hymns; and there is something most fascinating in the way the gods are conceived and addressed. A few of the latest hymns are philosophical. They ask questions rather than answer them; yet already the conception of the One behind all the gods finds expression, and a number of the ideas which afterwards helped to create the Hindu system are tentatively put forward. At a later date a large number of verses were gathered together, nearly all of them from the *Rigveda*, and so arranged as to form a special manual for the second order of priests. This collection was called the *Samaveda*. Its verses were chanted at the Soma sacrifice. Another manual, consisting partly of verses, partly of sacrificial formulae in prose, was put together for the use of the third order, and was called the *Yajurveda*. At a later date a new school separated the sacrificial formulae from the verses. The old *Yajurveda* was thereafter called Black, while the unmixed text was known as the White. These new collections were held to be divinely inspired, just like the *Rigveda*. They were Revelation in the fullest sense. The word for revelation is *sruti*, 'hearing.' When the second and third orders had each formed its own *Veda*, the *Rigveda* tended to become the manual of the first order only. . . . While, in the times of the *Rigveda*, men sought to win the regard of the gods, or to persuade them to give their help by sacrifice, hymn and prayer, in this new period the sacrifice is regarded as a mysterious operation which, if faithfully carried out, will irresistibly compel the gods to grant the appropriate reward. If only carried far enough, sacrifices will exalt a man to the level of the gods. The accurate performance of every detail of the ritual thus became a matter of extremest importance. For this reason the priest was all-powerful. His help was needed at every point in the intricate ceremonial of the altar. Without him the layman was helpless. Hence the divine authority of the Brahman was fully acknowledged and became firmly rooted in the religious practice of the nation. Indeed so great had the power of the priests become that they were spoken of as gods upon earth, and were feared even more than the gods of heaven. . . . During this period the theological ideas of the Brahmans underwent a great change. A deep tendency is manifested towards belief in one God, either the personal Creator, Prajapati, or, more often, a mysterious incomprehensible divine essence diffused through all things. Along with this new God came the idea that the ordinary gods were merely mortals until they extorted immortality from the Supreme by sacrifice and austerity. Many of the ancient gods had already fallen into the background, while others had come into great prominence among whom were Rudra, who now received his more attractive name, Siva, and Vishnu; Siva as the mountain-god and the god of thieves, and Vishnu as the sun-god. . . . The problems raised by the very varying fortunes of men and the extraordinary differences in character met with everywhere were solved for the Indian mind by the doctrine of Transmigration and its pendant Karma. [See BUDDHISM: Law of Karma.] The doctrine of *Transmigration* is that souls are emanations of the divine spirit, sparks from the central fire, drops from the ocean of divinity, that each soul is incarnated in a body times without number, that the same soul may be in one life a god, in another a man, in a third an animal or even a plant, and that there can be no

rest for the soul nor relief from suffering until it finds release from the necessity of birth and returns to the divine source whence it came. . . . The Brahman was everywhere accepted as the divine teacher and sacrificer; his Veda was the one Revelation; and Caste was the heaven-sent system for the social organization of the people. This then is essential Hinduism:—

"A. *The Theory of God and the world*, consisting of—(1) The one impersonal Reality and the unreal phenomenal world, which undergoes cyclic change. All minor gods are gathered under the pantheistic All. (2) Transmigration and Karma the explanation of the world. (3) Release from Transmigration and union with the one Reality, the object of all serious men.

"B. *The organizing conception*, consisting of—(1) The divine priest. (2) The inspired Veda. (3) Caste.

"By the time that this new conception of the world had taken distinct form, it had become the custom to send every boy belonging to the Brahman, Kshatriya, and Vaisya castes to a Brahmanical school to receive an education. A ceremony of initiation introduced the lad to this religious training. A Brahman priest muttered sacred texts over him and put the sacred thread on his shoulder; and immediately thereafter his education began. It was a birth into a new life. Hence these three castes are known as twice-born. The fact that every man of these castes spent several years under Brahman discipline and teaching explains in some degree the extraordinary influence of the priestly class. No one but a Brahman was allowed to teach. Teaching, sacrificing and receiving gifts were the three functions which belonged to them by virtue of their birth. . . . Many theories of the constitution of the world were formed and taught; but the most important of all is the doctrine of the Upanishads. The ordinary name for the World-soul was *Brahman*, a neuter noun which expresses the common thought of the time, that the World-soul is an impersonal essence present in all things. There were many speculations as to its nature; until some wise thinker called Brahman the *atman*, or Self of the universe. Then, as the soul of the universe was *atman*, and the soul of the individual was *atman*, the conclusion was soon drawn that the two were identical. . . . The conception of Brahman-Atman in the Upanishads is a great lightning-flash of truth, and it is placed before us in many a noble passage: Brahman is Consciousness; Brahman is the Reality of everything; Brahman is joy; Brahman is incomprehensible; by the command of Brahman all things are done. The phrase, *sachchidananda Brahma*, 'Brahman is reality, intelligence, and bliss,' is a very late one, not found in this period at all, but it sums up Upanishad thought with great accuracy."—J. N. Farquhar, *Primer of Hinduism*, pp. 15-16, 21-25, 30-31, 39-43, 48-49.—See also ASIA: Unity of Asiatic civilization; BRAHMANISM; BUDDHISM; INDIA: PEOPLE; JAINISM; MYTHOLOGY: Eastern Asia; PRIESTHOOD: Pagan; THEISM; VEDANTISM.

ALSO IN: N. Macnicol, *Indian theism*.—M. Monier-Williams, *Brahmanism and Hinduism*.—J. B. Pratt, *India and its faiths*.

B. C. 9th-A. D. 4th centuries.—Persia. See MITHRAISM; ZOROASTRIANS.

B. C. 750-A. D. 30.—Religion of Rome.—Primitive forms.—Influence of Etruscan civilization.—Greek influence.—Greek myths and ideals.—Introduction of Oriental cults.—Augustus and emperor-worship.—Cult of Mithras.—Rise of Christianity.—"Two successive stages [may be

noted] in Rome's religious development: a primitive stage in which the as yet untouched Italic stock was concerned with the gods purely as the givers of physical and material goods, as the guardians of the herds and of the crops and of human increase. There was no purpose in this worship other than the mere instinct of social preservation. The individual had no spiritual life of his own, and therefore no individual religious interests. Then we chronicled a great change. This was not the coming of individualism. It was not yet time for that. It was rather the advent of a loftier purpose into the intellectual and spiritual consciousness of these people. In a word, we [have] the coming of the Etruscans, their conquest of this region; and the great gift which their presence brought to the Roman people. When they came, they found a loosely united tribal community; when they departed, they left a nation behind them. There was something in the world bigger than the number of the sheep and the fullness of the granaries. There was a nation and a love of it. There was, in a word, patriotism, and a large background of religion to support it. Jupiter Optimus Maximus, Jupiter Victor, and his daughter Victoria, these were objects of worship which filled men with a new enthusiasm. Yet it was no new and strange thing soon to be lost. It was to be a permanent possession for at least a thousand years. It was to outlast as a vital power every form of religion then present. Thus filled with a patriotic zeal, possessed of an ethnic religion, the Roman people went forward into their history. . . . In the case of the influence of Greece on Rome, the purely commercial stage was reached very early, even before the Etruscans came, for we find Greek vases from southern Italy in the graveyard in the Forum, which ceased to be used when the Etruscans conquered Rome. The influence of Greek religion and myth seems to have become prominent during the Etruscan domination. Doubtless the Etruscans themselves, with their love of Greek things, assisted materially in this. Finally, the influence of literature did not make itself felt until the middle of the third century, and does not concern us here. The vital factor in the changes of these centuries was the influence of Greek religion and myth. [See MYTHOLOGY: Grecian.] The first Greek elements which came into Rome were, curiously enough, not recognized by the Romans as being Greek. There was, for example, the cult of Hercules, himself purely a Greek god, who came up with the merchants out of southern Italy, and in some way, which we do not understand, established himself at Tibur (Tivoli). [See HERACLEIDA.] Thence his cult spread to Rome, where he was received not as a Greek god, but as a god of Tibur,—i. e., a Latin-Sabine god,—and given an altar inside the *pomerium*, in the Forum Boarium. Then there were Castor and Pollux, who were the patrons of the cavalry in southern Italy, and came up into Latium, where they established themselves, especially at Tusculum. Thence they, too, came into Rome as kindred and not foreign gods, and received a temple in the Forum. . . . But these were isolated cases. The rank and file of Greek gods came into Rome in an extraordinary way. As early as the sixth century, Rome had established commercial relations with Cumae. As a result of these relations the cult of Apollo, the divine physician, was introduced into Rome and given a sanctuary in the Campus Martius. In the train of Apollo there came to Rome a collection of oracles written in Greek. These oracles were the possession of the Roman State.

They were housed in the Capitoline Temple, and placed under the guardianship of a newly formed priesthood. In time of peril the Senate caused the oracles to be consulted, and the deities which they recommended were thereupon introduced. In this fashion a host of Greek gods entered Rome during the three centuries with which we are dealing. The earliest recorded use of the Sibylline Oracles is in the case of the trinity, Demeter, Dionysios, and Kore, who were introduced into Rome and given a temple, in B. C. 493, outside the *pomerium*, near the spot where later stood the *Circus Maximus*. These three Greek deities were, however, given the names of three already existing Roman gods, Ceres, Liber, Libera. The inevitable result of this identification was that the old Roman gods were entirely forgotten, and the name came to mean almost exclusively the new Graeco-Roman deities. But although 493 is the first recorded instance, we are justified in supposing that the worship of Hermes, under the name of Mercury, was also due to these oracles, Mercury received a temple in B. C. 495, also in the neighborhood of the *Circus Maximus*. . . . It was probably about the same time that the old Roman Neptune, who had been primarily a god of water and of rivers, but with no especial connection with the sea, began to be identified with the Greek Poseidon, the ruler of the ocean. By her worship of the deity of the sea, Rome gained in a sense a control over the ocean, and effected, as it were, a sort of marine insurance, which was becoming essential to her on account of the grain traffic with Sicily. The Sibylline Oracles were doubtless used on many occasions of which our records show no traces; and this accounts in part for the fact that the next known date of their use is B. C. 293, two hundred years later. . . . In B. C. 292, on the occasion of a severe pestilence in Rome, the Books were again consulted, with the result that the worship of Aesculapius was introduced from Epidaurus. The snake, which symbolized the god of healing and which the Roman embassy brought back from Greece, elected to swim ashore at the island of the Tiber; and accordingly it was there that the sanctuary of Aesculapius was built. When in the course of centuries paganism had given place to Christianity, the work of healing, which had gone on without change on this spot, was continued by the hospital of San Bartolommeo down into the present day. But this place of healing has not only the longest unbroken record in our world today; it was also the inspiration of that other St. Bartholomew's, which London and the world know so well. Half a century later, in B. C. 249, during a critical period in the First Punic War, when Rome was terrified by a series of prodigies, the Oracles were again consulted, and Pluto and Persephone were brought into Rome and, under the name of Dis and Proserpina, given an altar in the *Campus Martius*. This was the beginning for Rome of those saecular games, which, two centuries later, were to be celebrated by Augustus and for which Horace wrote the *Carmen Saeculare*. . . . More important even than the introduction of these deities was the gradual diffusion of the religious ideas and myths of Greece. With amazing willingness and marvelous facility the Romans adapted all their old deities to these new ideas. . . . The Greek idea of men as the sons of gods, with all intercourse and companionship which such a descent implies, was something at once incomprehensible and terrible to the Roman mind. . . . Thus there came into being that *superstitio*, that excess of belief, which was to be so characteristic of Roman religion

from now until the end of the Republic, that Lucretius, in attacking it, thought that he had attacked religion. This *superstitio* battered upon the crises and the perils of the Second Punic War, and it was in one of the darkest moments of that war that it received a visible incorporation in the introduction of the Great Mother of the Gods [Cybele]. Hannibal had been defeated, but he had taken refuge with his troops in the mountain fastnesses of southern Italy. It seemed impossible to drive him out of the peninsula. In her perplexity Rome had recourse to the Sibylline Books. [See *SIBYLS*.] There an oracle seemed to indicate that, if the Great Mother of the Gods were brought to Italy and worshiped in Rome, she would drive Hannibal out. The Romans, who at this time had scarcely heard of the Magna Mater, obediently sent for her, and in due course the meteoric stone, which incorporated her, was fetched from Pessinus in Phrygia, and brought by ship to the mouth of the Tiber. . . . Thus brought in, she accomplished her work, and Hannibal returned to Carthage. But when Hannibal had gone, there remained in Italy a far worse enemy of Rome. It was the great Mother herself, with her cymbal-clashing eunuch priests; the first of the orgiastic Oriental cults, fraught with such danger to Rome, until they, too, became in time subdued to a more spiritual purpose. But for the moment Hannibal was gone, the Second Punic War was ended, and we turn to the last half of the Republic. . . . The Great Mother had now received her own temple on the Palatine, and her priests, with their clashing and discordant music, were familiar figures in the streets of Rome. The law still forbade Roman citizens to become priests of Cybele, but evasions of the law were not unknown. [See also *MYTHOLOGY*: Germanic: Identification of Germanic gods with Roman, etc.] . . . Other gods of the Orient were following the Cybele's train. There was the bloodstained figure of the Cappadocian Mâ, whom Rome had taken and identified with her own old-fashioned Bellona. Then in the days of Sulla there came Isis and her priests. The more exuberant forms of Greek philosophy became popular in Rome. Such crude ideas as those of the Neopythagoreans, with their doctrine of the transmigration of souls, appealed strongly to their jaded senses. . . . Entirely apart from their own personal belief, the rulers of Rome felt it their patriotic duty to be the defenders of the state religion. They were entirely frank in their disbelief, and one of the greatest jurists of the day describes three kinds of religion: the religion of the philosophers, who explain the world according to their own doctrines; the religion of the poets, who use the paraphernalia of the gods on which to hang their myths and stories; and the religion of the statesmen, who defend the religious forms of the fathers because they are an integral part of the state. . . . Toward the close of this period, in the age which we call the age of Cicero, we have two very interesting attempts to deal with the problems of religion. The two attempts . . . approached the subject from exactly opposite sides. In the one case, that of Varro, the attempt is made to restore old Roman religion by learning; in the other case, that of Lucretius, religion is attacked and an attempt is made to destroy it. . . . The political period, . . . is the first three centuries of the Empire, from the accession of Augustus to the death of Diocletian. . . . From the beginning of his career until almost the close of it, the greatest strength of Augustus lay in his marvelous knowledge of human psychology. . . .

With a quiet unobtrusiveness, which was characteristic of all that he did, Augustus set about the task of awakening in men's minds the long-forgotten chords of patriotism; and the instruments which he used to make this music were of such varied kinds that each man after his own fashion was compelled to hear. . . . If men were ever again to respect the gods, the places where the gods were worshiped must be restored and made worthy of respect. . . . Thus we turn to the most important religious institution in the Augustan scheme, the establishment of emperor worship. It cannot in any sense be affirmed that Augustus invented emperor-worship, nor is it true that he introduced it into Rome. It was in the world long before his day, and to a certain degree it had already entered Rome before he came to power. It is nevertheless strictly true that he controlled it and by very delicate manipulation, by processes of encouragement and discouragement, now by toleration and again by energetic prohibition, he shaped it and welded it into the instrument which it was to be in the subsequent history of the Empire. It is difficult for us to realize the power that emperor-worship possessed during the centuries to come. It was in a sense the only universal form of religion in the Roman Empire. . . . And so Augustus died, and left his scheme of things to his successors to be tried in the succeeding centuries. It is very wonderful how successful that scheme was and how capable of rational alteration; and it is surprising to what an extent it controlled the masses of the people in the two hundred years which followed. . . . If one had spoken to a Roman in the fourth century, or even in the third century, before Christ, concerning his soul, its sinfulness, and its need of salvation, there would have been no discussion possible, for the person addressed would not have understood what it was all about. It is very difficult for us to put ourselves in such a position of innocence; but we can at least realize that there are certain Oriental nations of the present day who do not understand these concepts, who have indeed a sense of right and wrong, but who have not the consciousness of an individual soul, and hence can neither feel its guilt nor desire its salvation. The origin of this idea of the personal soul is obscured in great mystery. It was not present at the time of the Punic Wars. We see only scanty traces of it in the literature of the Ciceronian age, and yet in the time of Seneca it was absolutely prevalent. Various explanations may be suggested. . . . The only explanation which seems in any wise satisfactory is that these ideas were imported from the Orient partly through the doctrines of the later Greek philosophy, which was itself tinged with the Orient, partly through direct contact with the religions of the Orient. . . . But however these ideas may have arisen, they are everywhere present during these centuries of the Empire. . . . These are the questions which men have put to themselves ever since, but which the Romans are now asking for the first time; and the answer is of extreme interest, because it is so particularly pagan and Greek. . . . The answer is: Sin is ignorance; to know the truth is to do it. Knowledge, therefore, perfect knowledge, guarantees freedom from sin. The wise man is the holy man. But if this be true, and if [as was thought] the world be soon to come to an end, then all knowledge is not equally profitable, but rather that knowledge which makes for righteousness; and if life be so short and uncertain, then the wise man will renounce the other things of life and give himself

over to the better part. It is the new scale of valuation which the idea of the approaching end of the world brings with it. It is the gospel of renunciation. It is philosophy and the cure of souls, and its first and greatest spokesman is Seneca. . . . A half a century later, Aurelian built in the Campus Martius the great temple to his Sun-God, the *Deus Sol Invictus*, and at the close of the century, Diocletian, in a court which was entirely governed by Oriental etiquette, boasted that his power depended upon the favor of Mithras. . . . But all these cults of the Orient fade into absolute insignificance in comparison with that of Mithras. [See MITHRAISM.] No matter what a man's beliefs may be, the story of Mithras touches the depths of his being, not because of its romantic interest, but because of its profoundly religious content; or perhaps we ought more truly to say, because its religion is so thoroughly in accord with modern ideas. We cannot here trace in detail the story of the wandering of the god Mithras, out of the theology of India into that of Persia, out of Persia into Asia Minor, and out of Asia Minor into Rome; where his power grew, at first, with Pompey's Cilician pirates, then especially under the Flavians, and most of all at the end of the third century under Diocletian. It was not simply a religion; it was an atmosphere of Oriental ideas in religion, politics, science, and etiquette. It appealed so strongly to the court of Diocletian that the West stood in a graver danger of being conquered by Asia than then even at the hands of the Mohammedans, and yet the religion of Mithras never became an acknowledged religion of the Roman State. . . . In the cult itself we know that there was a form of baptism, and a sacrificial meal, and that there was a ceremony of the blood that was shed for all (*mana cunctis*). They believed also in the immortality of the soul, in the resurrection of the dead, in a place of future punishments and rewards, and in the ascent of Mithras on high. In the nature of things, the Christians asserted that these doctrines had been stolen from them by the demons and revealed to these worshippers of Mithras; and similar accusations seem to have been made by the followers of Mithras. In both cases they were doubtless wrong. It is merely an instance of similar ideas arising under similar circumstances. Thus the whole Roman Empire was girt about by the love of Mithras, and we find the caves which served as churches in almost every province. Spreading at almost the same time as Christianity, it had by the middle of the third century outrun it in numbers and influence. . . . Christianity had the same advantages as the other Oriental cults. The way had been prepared for her as for them. She profited by the same awakened sense of the individual soul and its sinfulness, by the same philosophical ideas of the unity of God, and that the many gods of polytheism were in the last analysis merely many phases of the one divine power. She, too, had found men convinced that the world was soon to come to an end, and that the most important work of man was the purification of the soul so that it might be worthy of immortality. . . . The organization of the Empire rendered possible organized persecution; philosophy created heresies; and the other Oriental religions, which in the main supported rather than opposed one another, ranged themselves unitedly against her."—J. B. Carter, *Religious life of ancient Rome*, pp. 34, 39-46, 48, 55-57, 64, 68, 70-75, 81-82, 87-88, 90, 100-102.—See also PRIESTHOOD: In Greece and Rome; GUILDS: Roman; AUSPICES.

ALSO IN: N. W. Fowler, *Religious experience of the Roman people*.—T. R. Glover, *Conflict of religions in the early Roman empire*.

B. C. 600.—Buddhism.—Relation of Buddhism to Hinduism.—"It is a strange thing, and very characteristic of the real meaning of the true Buddhism, that there is no life of Gotama the Buddha in the Buddhist scriptures. . . . The actual date of the birth of the Buddha is still a matter of controversy, but may be fixed approximately at about B. C. 600. [See **BUDDHA**.] . . . We should never forget, that Gotama was born and brought up and lived and died a Hindu. His teaching, far-reaching and original as it was, and really subversive of the religion of the day, was Indian throughout. Without the intellectual work of his predecessors his own work, however original, would have been impossible. He was no doubt the greatest of them all; and most probably the world will come to acknowledge him as, in many respects, the most intellectual of the religious teachers of mankind. But Buddhism is essentially an Indian system. The Buddha himself was, throughout his career, a characteristic Indian. And, whatever his position as compared with other teachers in the West, we need here only claim for him that he was the greatest and wisest and best of the Hindus."—T. W. Rhys-Davids, *Buddhism*, pp. 87, 90, 116-117.—See also **BUDDHISM**; **INDIA**: B. C. 2000-600; B. C. 600-327.

ALSO IN: P. Carus, *Gospel of Buddha*.—H. C. Warren, *Buddhism in translations*.

B. C. 600-A. D. 30.—Value of Greek religion.—"During its long course over centuries Greek religion never suffered from any internal revolution so that the deposits of earlier ages were never entirely obliterated, but to the last these imprints of the successive periods of culture through which the Hellenic race passed were preserved; thus their religion reveals to us more clearly than anything else the evolution of the Greeks from savagery. As Gilbert Murray says: 'There is hardly any horror of primitive superstition of which we cannot find some distant trace in our Greek record. There is hardly any height of spiritual thought attained in the world that has not its archetype or its echo in the stretch of Greek literature that lies between Thales and St. Paul.' Lastly, we must not forget that the potency of this religion did not end with the greatness of Greece, but continued on into later Europe. It was not blotted out by Christianity. On the contrary, whatever real power it had, passed over into the ideas and forms of our own religion to such an extent that one could maintain that Greek religion has exercised indirectly as much influence on the various phases of modern religious life as mythology has on modern literatures. The influence of the religion of Greece on Christianity is too complex a subject to be more than hinted at in this connection. That ancient rites should have persisted in the Eastern Church under the cover of the new religion, and that ancient gods and heroes should reappear as saints, is not so surprising when we reflect on the summary way in which Constantine established the new faith. It was not difficult to convert the Parthenon into a Christian church, when the virgin goddess of wisdom was supplanted first by St. Sophia and later by Mary. Similarly, it was easy to replace Apollo by St. George and Poseidon by St. Nicholas, the patron saint of sailors. Nor should we be surprised when we see an old Greek rite celebrated now by a Greek priest. The influence of Greek theology and philosophy on Christian belief can be directly traced in the changes wrought in the

concept of Christianity, when it had to be cast into a new mould to meet the changed atmosphere from Palestine to Europe. Though the influence of the old ritual on the plastic ritual of the early church cannot be traced so easily, it may be said in general that the simplicity of the primitive Christian sacrament gradually had given way by the fifth century to the richly developed ritual of the church, which was only an evolution of ancient Greek rites. . . . With the establishment of the Macedonian empire and the conquests of Alexander great changes were wrought not only in the political and social life of Greece, but in religion. Some of these changes were in the direction of decay, while others heralded a new life. . . . Behind all the changes of this period was the consciousness of a wide-spread failure of Greek ideals, which changed the whole viewpoint of men's ideas of life and of the soul. First, there was the failure of the City-State, which was crushed by Philip and later by the military monarchies set up by Alexander's successors. . . . With the loss of the City-State the influence of the old Olympian theology waned, for the two were bound up together. Even before Philip's conquest the philosophical assault on the ancient system had slowly gained ground and had undermined the popular faith without putting an adequate substitute in its place. Men still perfunctorily observed the outward forms of religion but had lost faith in their efficacy. With unbelief came superstition, and comfort was sought in foreign cults. Amid the debris of ancient ideals the Hellenistic Greek looked to himself, to his own feelings and thoughts. Instead of trying to live justly, as Socrates had inculcated, and to help his fellow-men by the example of a pious life, it was not his aim to seek personal holiness and salvation. Whereas the aim of the old religion had been the family, the tribe and the City, the aim of the new was the individual. The old Greek had gloried in good works; the latter gloried in his personal faith. The loss of political hope, the despair of hoping to arrive at truth through patient inquiry, gave birth to a new ideal—mysticism, asceticism, selfish individualism. Consequently, although the new age was one of enlightenment, of great thinkers like Zeno, Cleanthes, Chrysippus, still it was full of morbidity and pessimism. The Greek now turned to revelations and mysteries, to the neglect of this transitory life in the hope of an eternal sinless one to come. . . . Thus in the fourth century the Eleusinia were extended, those of Andania were reorganized, and those of Megalopolis were instituted. In the later centuries foreign ones were added, as those of Samothrace, of Attis, of Isis, of the Great Mother, and finally of Mithra. Some of their ideas passed over into Christianity, such as the saving grace of baptism, the communion with God by a holy sacrament, the mystic death and rebirth of the neophyte. Such rites and beliefs satisfied men's yearning for immortality or absorption in the deity. . . . After Alexander's time things got worse. With the establishment of the kingdoms of his successors, the old gentile barriers of religion broke down completely. The whole later history of paganism is concerned with the gradual influx of Eastern ideas."—W. W. Hyde, *Religion of Greece* (J. A. Montgomery, ed., *Religions of the past and present*, pp. 254-255, 304-306, 308, 309).—See also **EUROPE**: Ancient: Greek civilization: Secularism, etc.; Spread of Hellenism; **PAGANISM**: Heroes and gods; **PRIESTHOOD**: In Greece and Rome.

ALSO IN: L. R. Farnell, *Cults of the Greek*

states.—J. Harrison, *Religion of ancient Greece*.
—G. Murray, *Four stages of Greek religion*.

B. C. 600-A. D. 30.—Inner logic of Hebrew religion.—Semitic religions in general.—“From the first of Israel’s known religious history there was working an inner logic which binds together its beginning and climax. . . . It was Wellhausen who made the classic remark that the Mosaic religion was summed up in this word: Yahwe Israel’s God, Israel Yahwe’s people.’ This axiom developed its logic. The worship of one Deity alone, or the conscience of his jealousy, led to the denial of competitive or antagonistic deities. For if other gods there were, as gods they implicitly deserved service in their lands and empires. If those gods were not to be worshiped, it was a confession by implication that they did not exist. It was a similar and withal uniquely drastic application of logic which shut up all the shrines of the late King Josiah to teach the one national God through the single sanctuary of Jerusalem. And it was by a similar logic that Judaism proceeded to the sense of its missionary duty to the world, as set forth in the Evangelist of the Second Isaiah and the parable of Jonah. If there was only the one God and Israel alone knew him, it was Israel’s commission, if there were any pride and humanity, to make him known to the world. The religion of Israel was led on by the same unconscious logic that has driven every monistic religion into claiming and preaching a Gospel for the world. The same singleness of mind which marks the home religion forces it into the exclusiveness, intolerance, bigotry, if you will, which is the antinomy in every religion which will be catholic. . . . The Hebrew cult is a phase of the old Semitic cult, with its origin in North Arabia and its further developments in Suria, also a land of *genuine* Semitism. . . . In one important respect the phenomenon of the cult in the Hebrew religion is remarkable; that cult was not static, as in the case of Babylonia, it was ever in flux; and further there was in the Hebrew religion the consciousness of this flux and of the epochs of its history. We might best compare the Greek consciousness, in the form of legend, of the introduction of the Orphic and Dionysiac cults. Several clearly marked stages may be marked out in our field. (1) The primitive period, illustrated by the Patriarchal and Mosaic traditions; here we have many reminiscences of the antique Arabian cult. (2) The period of assimilation with the elaborate cult-system of Canaan; this system, which also probably contained elements that had filtered in from Babylonia, the Mediterranean, possibly Egypt, was the principal alien factor in the history, although there was too much of an identity among the various phases of the Semitic cult to allow us to distinguish exactly between Arabian and Canaanitish. (3) The age of reaction, chiefly represented by the Prophets of the 8th century, although earlier prophetic men had taken stand against the Canaanite innovations, for example the prophets who opposed the building of the temple in Jerusalem. (4) The compromise between the Jerusalem hierarchy and the prophetic reformers, appearing in Deuteronomy and carried on into the so-called Law of Holiness (Lev. 17-26) and Ezekiel. The elements of Canaanite religion regarded as antagonistic to the worship of Yahwe were done away with in the drastic reform of Josiah; the cult was absolutely centralized at the temple at Jerusalem. But this centralization only intensified the ritualistic elements of the religion, and these triumphed with the acceptance by the prophetic element of the

purification of patently objectionable features. As in the case of the reforming Aenaten of Egypt, the reform broke down with the death of King Josiah, but, unlike the Egyptian precedent, a composition of contrary forces had been formed which set the order for the future. For it was the element that accepted this reformed order which persisted through the cataclysm of the Exile. Ezekiel, a prophet but still more a priest, and withal an apocalypticist, laid down a typical ritual scheme for the security of holiness in the future. (5) The ecclesiastical establishment of the Post-exilic Age. This conserved the chief theological results of the Prophets, provided them with a shell the world could not break, but made Judaism a typically ritualistic institution. It continued the unobjectional elements of the elder cult, restored ancient forms of practice, added new elements to perfect the scheme, probably introduced Babylonian elements, and in general theorized at will. And the flux-like character of the Law was continued by those High-Church Progressives, the Pharisees. But the same age which saw the intensification of the ritual of the community to an abnormal degree witnessed the rise of its antinomy, the Synagogue, the cultless meeting-house of the Jews. It was the centralization of the cult in Jerusalem which in part produced this pole to itself; but the phenomenon also grew out of older spiritual elements of the religion which the later crystallization could not harden or control. Prayer and praise, in forms which have become classical, took the place of the sacrificial cult for the greater part of life; the Sabbath, with its rest and worship stood for the elaborate calendar of sacrifice; the teacher, wise man and rabbi became the spiritual leaders of Judaism, and ultimately laid down the law to the hierarchy. These spiritual elements kept their place in or made their way into the cult itself. The Psalter of the Christian Church was the hymnal of the temple, many of its songs being the actual accompaniments of the temple ritual; the theologians met in the temple, and there Jesus could preach, for it was his ‘Father’s House.’ After all, the spiritual religion of the Jew found nothing incongruous to itself in that temple ritual which we moderns so superciliously treat. It was reserved for the late Epistle to the Hebrews for the Christian Church to learn that it could dispense with that stay of the Paternal religion. The Hebrew cult is the tremendous interest to the archæologist; it is the equal value to the student of religious thought and life. For in this religion which issued so loftily, whether we consider later Judaism or Christianity, we can mark stage by stage the growth of a wonderful germ, in part struggling with, in part submitting to, outward forms which descended to the utmost superstition, transforming them and yet compromising with them where essentials were not concerned. It was the cult which conserved that religion for us. And in preserving its cult that religion consciously recognized that its truth was not a pure philosophy or an abstract ethic but a religious life for a people as a whole, to be incorporated in forms and symbols of the world. . . . Such is this strange religion. It abounds in inner antinomies, it runs against the usual processes of religious thought. It defies philosophy. It is the riddle of the student of religion. He may whittle it down to its lowest terms, finding in it the most primitive forms of religion common to every folk. But it will not be explained in that way. If it has its feet on the earth, it holds its head in the heavens.”—J. A. Montgomery, *Hebrew religion*

(*Religions of the past and present*, pp. 93-94, 106-109, 112).—See also JEW: Religion and the prophets; PRIESTHOOD: Hebrew priesthood from 3000 B. C.; SEMITES.

ALSO IN: W. E. Addis, *Hebrew religion to the establishment of Judaism under Ezra*.—K. Budde, *Religion of Israel to the exile*.—H. T. Fowler, *Origin and growth of the Hebrew religion*.—J. P. Peters, *Religion of the Hebrews*.

B. C. 400-A. D. 500.—Celtic and Germanic. See CELTS: Religion; DRUIDS; GAUL: Civilization; MYTHOLOGY: Celtic; Germanic: Sources of knowledge, etc.; PRIESTHOOD: Among the Germans and Celts.

A. D. 1st-20th centuries.—Christianity. See CHRISTIANITY; JESUS CHRIST; ABBEY; BIBLE, ENGLISH; BISHOP; CONFESSION; FILIOQUE CONTROVERSY; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN; MONASTERY; MONASTICISM; MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY; NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY; NICENE CREED; PAPACY; PRIESTHOOD: Christian conceptions; RENAISSANCE AND REFORMATION; VATICAN.

622.—Mohammedanism.—Koran.—Relation of Mohammedanism to Judaism, Christianity, Parsism.—“Islam means submission—the submission of the faithful to Allah. This term, which characterizes better than any other the essence of the relation in which Mohammed places the believers to the object of their worship, epitomizes the feeling of dependence on an unlimited Power to whom man must give himself up, willingly or unwillingly. . . . The year 622 marks the first epoch in the history of Islam. Ridiculed by his countrymen and tribesmen, Mohammed flees to the northern city of Yathrib, whose people coming from a southern stock, showed themselves more receptive to religious influences. Here also, owing to the large colony of Jews, the ideas which Mohammed advanced were more familiar, or at least appeared less strange. Because of the help which people of this town gave to the prophet and his followers, whom they sheltered, Yathrib became Medina, ‘the City’ (of the prophet), by which name it has ever since been known. . . . The Hijra (flight to Medina) accordingly is not only an important date in the history of Islam, because of the change it wrought in the outward fortunes of the community; marks, not only the time in which the little group of the prophet’s followers, having found a secure haven, began to take aggressive measures and wage a war against the enemy, which in 630 resulted in the conquest of Mecca and subsequently in the subjection of Arabia; but it also marks an epoch in the religious formation of Islam. . . . Mohammed himself declared his Koran an inimitable work. His followers, without considering any one of its parts as having more merit than another, regarded the book as divinely supernatural, sent to them through the prophet. In fact it was to them the supreme miracle by which the prophet established the truth of his divine mission. It was from the Parsees that he received the far-reaching suggestion which robs the Sabbath of its character as a day of rest. He chose Friday as the weekly day of assembly, but even in adopting the hexameron theory of creation, he emphatically rejects the idea that God rested on the 7th day. Therefore, not the 7th day, but the day preceding is taken, not as a day of rest, but as a day of assembly on which all worldly business is permitted after the close of worship. . . . Throughout the entire history of Islam the Koran remains as a divine foundation deeply revered by the followers of the religion of Mohammed. It is the object of a veneration such as has hardly yet been given to

any other book in the literature of the world.”—I. Goldziher, *Mohammed and Islam*, pp. 2, 7-9, 11, 14, 28-29.—See also MOHAMMEDANISM; CALIPHATE; KORAN; MAHDI.

ALSO IN: T. W. Arnold, *Preaching of Islam*.—C. Snouck, *Hurgronje, Mohammedanism*.—D. S. Margoliouth, *Early development of Mohammedanism*.—E. H. Palmer, *Koran*.—*Preliminary discourse to Sale’s translation of the Koran*.

The following is a list of religious doctrines, sects and organizations.

Adoptionism. See ADOPTIONISM.

Adventists. See ADVENTISTS.

Agnosticism. See AGNOSTICISM.

Albigenses. See ALBIGENSES.

Almohades. See ALMOHADES.

Almoravides. See ALMORAVIDES.

Anabaptists. See ANABAPTISTS; ANABAPTISTS OF MÜNSTER.

Animism. See BABYLONIA: Religion: From animism to polytheism; EGYPT: Religion.

Arianism. See ARIANISM.

Armenian church. See ARMENIAN CHURCH.

Arminians. See ARMINIANS.

Arya Samaj. See ARYA SAMAJ.

Assassins. See ASSASSINS.

Atheism. See ATHEISM.

Averroism. See AVERROISM.

Babism. See BABISM.

Bahaism. See BAHAIISM.

Baptists. See BAPTISTS.

Begging Friars. See FRANCISCAN FRIARS.

Beguines. See BEGUINES.

Benedictines. See BENEDICTINE ORDERS.

Bizochi. See BEGUINES.

Bogomilians. See BOGOMILIANS.

Brahma Samaj. See BRAHMA SAMAJ.

Brahmanism. See BRAHMANISM.

Brethren, United. See MORAVIAN, OR BOHEMIAN, BRETHREN.

Brethren of the Common Life. See BRETHREN OF THE COMMON LOT.

Brethren of the Common Lot. See BRETHREN OF THE COMMON LOT.

Brethren of the Free Spirit. See BEGUINES.

Brethren of the Law of Christ. See BOHEMIA: 1434-1457.

Buddhism. See BUDDHISM.

Bulgarian church. See BULGARIAN CHURCH.

Bushido. See BUSHIDO.

Calvinism. See PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH; GENEVA: 1536-1564.

Camaldolites. See CAMALDOLITES.

Capuchins. See CAPUCHINS.

Carmelites. See CARMELITE FRIARS.

Carthusians. See CARTHUSIAN ORDER.

Catharists. See CATIARL.

Catholic Apostolic church. See CATHOLIC APOSTOLIC CHURCH.

Catholicism. See PAPACY; CHRISTIANITY; MONASTICISM.

Christadelphians. See CHRISTADELPHIANS.

Christian Catholic Apostolic Church in Zion. See CHRISTIAN CATHOLIC APOSTOLIC CHURCH IN ZION.

Christian church. See CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

Christian Endeavor, United Society of. See CHRISTIAN ENDEAVOR, UNITED SOCIETY OF.

Christian Reformed church. See CHRISTIAN REFORMED CHURCH.

Christian Science. See CHRISTIAN SCIENCE.

Christianity. See CHRISTIANITY; JESUS CHRIST.

Church of Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1434-1457.

Church of Christ. See CHURCHES OF CHRIST.

- Church of Daniel's Band. See EVANGELISTIC ASSOCIATIONS.
- Church of England. See CHURCH OF ENGLAND.
- Church of France. See GALLICAN CHURCH.
- Church of God. See CHURCHES OF GOD; CHURCHES OF GOD IN NORTH AMERICA.
- Church of God and Saints of Christ. See CHURCH OF GOD AND SAINTS OF CHRIST.
- Church of God in Christ. See MENNONITES.
- Church of Ireland. See CHURCH OF IRELAND.
- Church of Rome. See CHURCH OF ROME.
- Church of Scotland. See CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.
- Church of the Brethren. See DUNKARDS; MORAVIAN, OR BOHEMIAN, BRETHREN.
- Church of the Living God. See CHURCH OF THE LIVING GOD.
- Church of the Nazarene. See CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE.
- Church of the Universal Messianic Message. See CHURCH OF THE UNIVERSAL MESSIANIC MESSAGE.
- Church of Wales. See CHURCH OF WALES.
- Church Triumphant. See CHURCH TRIUMPHANT.
- Confucianism. See CONFUCIANISM.
- Congregational church. See CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH.
- Convulsionists. See CONVULSIONISTS.
- Dagon cult. See DAGON.
- Deism. See DEISM.
- Dervishes. See DERVISHES.
- Dominicans. See DOMINICAN FRIARS.
- Druidism. See DRUIDS.
- Druses. See DRUSES.
- Dukhobors. See DUKHOBORS.
- Dulcinists. See DULCINISTS.
- Dunkards. See DUNKARDS.
- Eastern Catholic church. See EASTERN ORTHODOX CHURCH.
- Eastern Orthodox church. See EASTERN ORTHODOX CHURCH.
- Ebionism. See EBIONISM.
- Elkesaites. See ELKESAITES.
- Encratites. See ENCRATITES.
- England, Church of. See CHURCH OF ENGLAND.
- Episcopal church. See PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH.
- Essenes community. See ESSENES.
- Euchites. See EUCHITES.
- Eudistes. See FRANCE: 1905-1906.
- Eudoxians. See EUDOXIANS.
- Evangelical Association. See EVANGELICAL ASSOCIATION.
- Evangelical church. See EVANGELICAL PROTESTANT CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA.
- Evangelical Lutheran church. See LUTHERAN CHURCH: 1517-1852.
- Evangelical Protestant church. See EVANGELICAL PROTESTANT CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA.
- Evangelical Synod of North America. See EVANGELICAL SYNOD OF NORTH AMERICA.
- Evangelical Union. See GERMANY: 1608-1618; 1621-1623.
- Evangelistic associations. See EVANGELISTIC ASSOCIATIONS.
- Febronianism. See FEBRONIUS.
- Franciscans. See FRANCISCAN FRIARS.
- Fratricelli. See BEGUINES.
- Friends. See FRIENDS, SOCIETY OF.
- Gallican church. See GALLICAN CHURCH.
- Gomerists. See NETHERLANDS: 1603-1619.
- Greek church. See EASTERN ORTHODOX CHURCHES.
- Gregorians. See BRETHREN OF THE COMMON LOT.
- Independents. See INDEPENDENTS OR SEPARATISTS.
- Ireland, Church of. See CHURCH OF IRELAND.
- Jacobites. See JACOBITE CHURCH.
- Jainism. See JAINISM.
- Jansenists. See PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS.
- Jeronymians. See BRETHREN OF THE COMMON LOT.
- Jesuits. See JESUITS.
- Judaism. See JEWS.
- Lamaism. See LAMAS.
- Latter Day Saints. See MORMONISM: 1805-1830.
- Lazarists. See LAZARISTS.
- Lollards. See LOLLARDS.
- Lutheran church. See LUTHERAN CHURCH.
- Manicheans. See MANICHEANS.
- Mennonites. See MENNONITES.
- Methodists. See METHODISTS; METHODIST CHURCH.
- Mithraism. See MITHRAISM.
- Mohammedanism. See MOHAMMEDANISM; CALIPHATE.
- Moravian Brethren. See MORAVIAN, OR BOHEMIAN, BRETHREN.
- Mormonism. See MORMONISM.
- Muggletonians. See RANTERS.
- Oblates. See OBLATES.
- Pantheism. See BABYLONIA: Religion; AVERROISM; DEISM.
- Parsees. See PARSEES.
- Paulitians. See PAULITIANS.
- Pelagianism. See PELAGIANISM.
- Plymouth Brethren. See BRETHREN, PLYMOUTH.
- Presbyterian church. See PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.
- Puritans. See PURITANS.
- Quakers. See FRIENDS, SOCIETY OF.
- Ranters. See RANTERS.
- Rechabites. See RECHABITES.
- River Brethren. See BRETHREN, RIVER.
- Rome, Church of. See PAPACY.
- Russian church. See RUSSIAN ORTHODOX CHURCH.
- Salvation Army. See SALVATION ARMY.
- Sandemanians. See SANDEMANIANS.
- Scotland, Church of. See CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.
- Senussians. See SENUSSIA.
- Separatists. See INDEPENDENTS AND SEPARATISTS.
- Shakers. See SHAKERS.
- Shintoism. See JAPAN: Religions.
- Shütes. See SHÜTES.
- Sikhs. See SIKHS.
- Spiritualism. See SPIRITUALISM.
- Stundists. See STUNDISTS.
- Sunnites. See SUNNITES.
- Swedenborgians. See SWEDENBORG.
- Taoism. See TAOISM.
- Theism. See THEISM.
- Theosophy. See THEOSOLOGY.
- Totemism. See CHURCH AND STATE: Totemism.
- Trappists. See TRAPPISTS.
- Turlupins. See BENGUINES.
- Uniate churches. See UNIATE CHURCHES.
- Unitarians. See UNITARIANISM.
- Universalism. See UNIVERSALISM; UNIVERSALISTS.
- Ursulines. See URSULINES.
- Vedantism. See VEDANTISM.
- Wahhabis. See WAHHABIS.
- Waldenses. See WALDENSES.
- Wales, Church of. See CHURCH OF WALES.
- Yezidis. See YEZIDIS.

Young Men's Christian Association. See **YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.**

Young Women's Christian Association. See **YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.**

Zoroastrianism. See **ZOROASTRIANS.**

See also **ECCLESIASTICAL LAW**; **ETHICS**; **EUROPE**: Map of central Europe showing distribution of religions about 1618; **IDOLATRY AND IMAGE WORSHIP**; **MYTHOLOGY**; **PAGANISM**; **PRIESTHOOD**; **SUPERSTITIONS.**

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS ACT, Russia. See **RUSSIA**: 1907-1912.

RELIGIOUS FREEDOM. See **CHURCH AND STATE**: Revolutionary idea of religious toleration; **TOLERATION, RELIGIOUS.**

RELIGIOUS OATH. See **COMMON LAW**: 1739-1744.

RELIGIOUS PAINTING. See **PAINTING**: Early Christian and Byzantine.

RELIGIOUS PERSECUTIONS. See **PERSECUTIONS, RELIGIOUS.**

RELIGIOUS SCHOOLS, Ancient. See **EDUCATION**: Ancient: B. C. 14th-A. D. 6th centuries.

RELIGIOUS SUFFRAGE QUALIFICATION, United States. See **SUFFRAGE**; **MANHOOD**: United States: 1621-1776.

RELIGIOUS TOLERATION. See **TOLERATION, RELIGIOUS.**

RELIGIOUS WARS. See **CRUSADES**; **FRANCE**: 1560-1563; 1563-1570; 1572 (August); 1572-1573; **GERMANY**: 1627-1629.

RELLY, James (c. 1722-1778), English religious writer. See **UNIVERSALISTS.**

REMBRANDT (Rembrandt Harmens van Rijn) (1606-1669), Dutch painter. Son of a Leyden miller; studied under Jacob van Swanenburch and Peter Lastman; removed to Amsterdam, 1631, where he became wealthy and famous; forced into bankruptcy, 1656, and spent the remainder of his life in poverty. He is ranked as one of the world's greatest painters, and is also noted as an etcher. Some of his more famous works are: "The Night Watch" (Ryks Museum); "The Anatomical Lecture" (Hague); and "The Syndics of the Cloth Workers" (Ryks Museum). He also painted a number of noted portraits.—See also **PAINTING**: Dutch; **AMSTERDAM.**

REMI, people of Belgic Gaul. See **BELGAE**; **TRÈVES**: Under the Romans.

REMLINGTON TYPEWRITER. See **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Typewriter.

REMO, tribe of South American Indians. See **Andesians.**

REMONSTRANCE, Grand. See **GRAND REMONSTRANCE**; **ENGLAND**: 1641 (November).

REMONSTRANTS AND COUNTER-REMONSTRANTS.—A group of Dutch Protestants, followers of Arminius (see **ARMINIANS**), drew up a remonstrance in 1610 setting forth their disapproval of certain strict Calvinistic doctrines. Hence they were called "Remonstrants." A counter-remonstrance was at once drawn up by an opposing faction, the Gomerists, who were called "Counter-remonstrants." See **NETHERLANDS**: 1603-1619.

REMUNERATION, Labor. See **LABOR REMUNERATION.**

REMUS, brother of Romulus, and founder, with him, of the city of Rome. See **LUPERCAL.**

RENAISSANCE. See **EUROPE**: Renaissance and Reformation; **ARCHITECTURE**: Renaissance; **COSTUME**: 16th century; **EDUCATION**: Modern; **Influence of Renaissance**; **Modern**: 15th-16th centuries; **Relation of Renaissance and Reformation**; **ENGLAND**: 15th-16th centuries; **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1530-1660; **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1498-1550;

HISTORY: 22; **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1450-1595; **ITALY**: 14th century; 1500-1600; **JEWS**: 16th century; **LIBRARIES**: Renaissance; **PAINTING**: Italian: Early Renaissance; Italian: High Renaissance; **ROME**: Modern city: 1450-1527; **SCULPTURE**: Early Renaissance; High Renaissance.

RENAN, Ernest (1823-1892), French philosopher, orientalist and historian. Became professor of Hebrew at the Collège de France, 1861; on return from a visit to Syria, wrote "La Vie de Jesus" and was forced to resign his chair; elected to the French Academy, 1878. Among his works are: "Histoire des origines du Christianisme," "Histoire du peuple d'Israel," and "L'Eglise chrétienne."

RENARD (d. 1905), French aviator and inventor. See **AVIATION**: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1884-1897.

RENARD, Roman de, early French poetic cycle. A lost version is thought to have been the foundation for the great beast epic, Reynard the Fox. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1050-1350.

RENAUDOT, Théophraste (1586-1653), French physician and editor. Published the first French newspaper, the *Gazette*, in 1631. See **PRINTING AND THE PRESS**: 1631.

RENAULT, Louis (1843-), French jurist. Became professor of international law at the University of Paris, 1881; president of the Institute of International Law; member of Hague tribunals; received half the Nobel prize for peace, 1907. See **NOBEL PRIZES**: Peace: 1907.

RENDITION, Interstate. See **EXTRADITION.**

RENÉ I (1409-1480), duke of Anjou, Lorraine and Bar; count of Provence and Piedmont; and king of Naples. See **ANJOU**: 1206-1442.

RENNENKAMPE, Paul (1854-1918), Russian general. Served in the war with China, 1900; distinguished for service in Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905; commanded the 1st Army in East Prussia, 1914; recalled after the failure of the invasion of Prussia, 1915, and later dismissed. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: II. Eastern front: b; c, 1; c, 3; d, 1.

RENNER, Karl (1870-), Austrian statesman. Chancellor of the republic of Austria, 1918-1920; headed Austrian delegation at the negotiation of the Treaty of St. Germain, 1919; minister of foreign affairs, 1920. See **AUSTRIA**: 1918-1919; 1919 (September); 1920.

RENSELAER, Killian Van (1595-1644), Dutch merchant. One of the organizers of the Dutch West India Company; instrumental in the settlement of New Amsterdam; owner of one of the largest patroonships in the country. See **NEW YORK**: 1621-1646.

RENSELAERWYCK, patroonship on the Hudson river owned by Killian Van Rensselaer. It comprised the land now included in the counties of Rensselaer, Albany and Columbia, New York. Rensselaer himself never came to America, but administered the estate through an agent. See **NEW YORK**: 1621-1646.

RENT, Feudal. See **FEUDALISM**: Organization.

RENT LAWS, New York. See **HOUSING**: United States: New York state legislation.

RENT QUESTION, Ireland. See **IRELAND**: 1885-1891; 1903.

RENUNCIATION, Act of (1782). See **IRELAND**: 1778-1782.

REPARATIONS, World War: Austria. See **ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF**; **AUSTRIA**: 1910.

Bulgaria. See **NEUILLY, TREATY OF**; **BULGARIA**: 1919.

Germany. See **PARIS, CONFERENCE OF**: Course of discussion; **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF**: Part VIII; **BELGIUM**: 1919: At the peace conference; 1920 (June-July); **DEBTS, PUBLIC**: Problem of paying;

FRANCE: 1919 (January-October); 1922 (August-October); GERMANY: 1921 (May-June); (November-December); 1922 (January-February), to 1922 (December); 1923 (January); SPA, CONFERENCE OF; U.S.A.: 1921 (April-May); German appeal. Turkey. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF (1920): Part VIII.

REPARATIONS COMMISSION. See VER-SAILLES, TREATY OF: Part VIII: Section I; Section I: Annex II; GERMANY: 1922 (December); 1923 (January); U.S.A.: 1921 (May).

REPARATIONS CONFERENCES: London. See GERMANY: 1922 (December).

Paris. See GERMANY: 1923 (January).

REPARTIMIENTOS, ENCOMIENDAS.—Columbus, as governor of Hispaniola (Hayti), made an arrangement "by which the caciques in their vicinity, instead of paying tribute, should furnish parties of their subjects, free Indians, to assist the colonists in the cultivation of their lands: a kind of feudal service, which was the origin of the repartimientos, or distributions of free Indians among the colonists, afterwards generally adopted, and shamefully abused, throughout the Spanish colonies; a source of intolerable hardships and oppressions to the unhappy natives, and which greatly contributed to exterminate them from the island of Hispaniola. Columbus considered the island in the light of a conquered country, and arrogated to himself all the rights of a conqueror, in the name of the sovereigns for whom he fought."—W. Irving, *Life and voyages of Columbus*, v. 3, bk. 12, ch. 4.—"Repartimiento," a distribution; 'repartir,' to divide; 'encomienda,' a charge, a commandery; 'encomendar,' to give in charge; 'encomendero,' he who holds an encomienda. In Spain an encomienda, as here understood, was a dignity in the four military orders, endowed with a rental, and held by certain members of the order. It was acquired through the liberality of the crown as a reward for services in the wars against the Moors. The lands taken from the Infidels were divided among Christian commanders; the inhabitants of those lands were crown tenants, and life-rights to their services were given these commanders. In the legislation of the Indies, encomienda was the patronage conferred by royal favor over a portion of the natives, coupled with the obligation to teach them the doctrines of the Church, and to defend their persons and property. . . . The system begun in the New World by Columbus, Bobadilla, and Ovando was continued by Vasco Nuñez, Pedrarias, Cortés, and Pizarro, and finally became general."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 1, p. 262, footnote.—See also COLONIZATION: Spanish; SLAVERY: 1493-1542.

REPETUNDÆ, practice of Roman governors of securing money by irregular means. See CALPURNIAN LAW.

REPHEIM. See HORITES.

REPLEVIN ACT, United States (1833). See U.S.A.: 1828-1833.

REPRESENTATION, Proportional. See PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

REPRESENTATION OF THE PEOPLE ACT: 1884. See ENGLAND: 1884-1885.

1918. See ENGLAND: 1918: Representation of the People Act; PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION: England.

REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT. — "This [representative government] is the great distinction between free states of the modern type, whether kingly or republican, and the city-commonwealths of old Greece. It is the great political invention of Teutonic Europe, the one

form of political life to which neither Thucydides, Aristotle, nor Polybios ever saw more than the faintest approach. In Greece it was hardly needed, but in Italy a representative system would have delivered Rome from the fearful choice which she had to make between anarchy and despotism."—E. A. Freeman, *History of federal government*, ch. 2.—"Examples of nearly every form of government are to be found in the varied history of Greece: but nowhere do we find a distinct system of political representation. There is, indeed, a passage in Aristotle which implies a knowledge of the principles of representation. He speaks of 'a moderate oligarchy, in which men of a certain census elect a council entrusted with the deliberative power, but bound to exercise this power agreeably to established laws.' There can be no better definition of representation than this: but it appears to express his theoretical conception of a government, rather than to describe any example within his own experience. Such a system was incompatible with the democratic constitutions of the city republics: but in their international councils and leagues, we may perceive a certain resemblance to it. There was an approach to representation in the Amphictyonic Council, and in the Achaian League; and the several cities of the Lycian League had a number of votes in the assembly, proportioned to their size—the first example of the kind—being a still nearer approximation to the principles of representation. But it was reserved for later ages to devise the great scheme of representative government, under which large States may enjoy as much liberty as the walled cities of Greece, and individual citizens may exercise their political rights as fully as the Athenians, without the disorders and perils of pure democracy."—T. E. May, *Democracy in Europe*, v. 1, ch. 3.—"The most interesting, and on the whole the most successful, experiments in popular government, are those which have frankly recognized the difficulty under which it labours. At the head of these we must place the virtually English discovery of government by Representation, which caused Parliamentary institutions to be preserved in these islands from the destruction which overtook them everywhere else, and to devolve as an inheritance upon the United States."—H. S. Maine, *Popular government*, p. 92.—"To find the real origin of the modern representative system we must turn to the assemblies of the second grade in the early German states. In these the freemen of the smaller locality—the Hundred or Canton—came together in a public meeting which possessed no doubt legislative power over matters purely local, but whose most important function seems to have been judicial—a local court, presided over by a chief who suggested and announced the verdict, which, however, derived its validity from the decision of the assembly, or, in later times, of a number of their body appointed to act for the whole. Those local courts, probably, as has been suggested, because of the comparatively restricted character of the powers which they possessed, were destined to a long life. On the continent they lasted until the very end of the middle ages, when they were generally overthrown by the introduction of the Roman law, too highly scientific for their simple methods. In England they lasted until they furnished the model, and probably the suggestion, for a far more important institution—the House of Commons. How many grades of these local courts there were on the continent below the national assembly is a matter of dispute. In England there was clearly a series of three. The lowest was the township assembly, concerned

only with matters of very slight importance and surviving still in the English vestry meeting and the New England town-meeting. Above this was the hundred's court formed upon a distinctly representative principle, the assembly being composed, together with certain other men, of four representatives sent from each township. Then, third, the tribal assembly of the original little settlement, or, the small kingdom of the early conquest, seems to have survived when this kingdom was swallowed up in a larger one, and to have originated a new grade in the hierarchy of assemblies, the county assembly or shire court. At any rate, whatever may have been its origin, and whatever may be the final decision of the vigorously disputed question, whether in the Frankish state there were any assemblies or courts for the counties distinct from the courts of the hundreds, it is certain that courts of this grade came into existence in England and were of the most importance there. In them, too, the representative principle was distinctly expressed, each township of the shire being represented, as in the hundred's court, by four chosen representatives. These courts, also, pass essentially unchanged through the English feudal and absolutist period, maintaining local self-government and preserving more of the primitive freedom than survived elsewhere. We shall see more in detail, at a later point, how the representative principle originating in them is transferred to the national legislature, creating our modern national representative system."—G. B. Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, ch. 5.—"Among representative Governments three specially deserve to be studied—the Parliamentary and Cabinet System of Britain, which, reproduced in the British self-governing Dominions and France, has been more or less imitated in other European countries; the Presidential system of the United States, adopted in many of the other American republics, and the Executive Council system of Switzerland. As each of these has been described in the chapters of Part II. dealing with France, America, and Switzerland, this chapter is intended only to compare each with the others in respect of characteristic merits and defects."—J. Bryce, *Modern democracies*, v. 2, p. 506.—See also AP-PORTIONMENT; CABINET; CITY MANAGER PLAN OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT; CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES; DEMOCRACY; ELECTIONS; EUROPE: Modern: Political revolution of 1848; INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM; PARLIAMENT; PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION; RECALL; STATE GOVERNMENT; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD; SUFFRAGE, WOMAN.

REPRESENTATIVES AT LARGE.—When, after an increase in its number of representatives, the state has failed to redistribute its districts, the additional member or members are voted for upon a general state ticket, and are called "representatives at large."

REPRISAL. See RETORSION; BUCCANEERS: Privateering caused by rigid restrictions.

REPRODUCTION. See EVOLUTION: Weismann's theory, etc.; Mendel's law; Mutation theory of De Vries.

REPUBLIC, White Star liner wrecked off Nan-tucket, 1909. It was one of the first instances of the use of wireless for summoning aid in ocean disasters. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Wireless, or radio: 1909-1912.

REPUBLIC OF THE SEVEN ISLANDS. See IONIAN ISLANDS: To 1814.

REPUBLICA DOMINICANA. See SANTO DOMINGO.

REPUBLICA ORIENTAL DEL URUGUAY. See URUGUAY.

REPUBLICAN CALENDAR, France. See CHRONOLOGY: French revolutionary era and calendar.

REPUBLICAN PARTY: France. See FRANCE: 1801-1803; 1830-1840.

Spain. See SPAIN: 1900-1909: Parties and conflicts; 1921: Political outlook in Spain.

United States. See U.S.A.: 1789-1792; 1798; 1825-1828; 1848: Free Soil convention at Buffalo; 1854-1855; 1856: Eighteenth presidential election; 1872; 1896: Party platforms and nominations: Republican; 1900 (May-November); 1904 (May-November); 1908 (April-November); 1910 (August-September); (August-November); 1911-1912 (January-June); 1912: Election; 1918 (November); 1920 (May-November); IOWA: 1848-1860; LOUISIANA: 1874-1877; MINNESOTA: 1854-1855; OREGON: 1876-1898; WISCONSIN: 1854; 1856-1893; STEAM ROLLER.

REPUBLICANS, Independent. See U.S.A.: 1884: Twenty-fifth presidential election.

RERUM NOVARUM, encyclical of Pope Leo XIII on labor question, 1891. See GERMANY: 1889-1892.

RES JUDICATÆ. See CIVIL LAW: B. C. 450-100.

RESACA, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May: Georgia).

RESACA DE LA PALMA, Battle of (1846). See MEXICO: 1846-1847.

RESAINA, Battle of.—A battle, fought 241, in which Sapor I, the Persian king, was defeated by the Roman emperor Gordian, in Mesopotamia.—Based on G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 4.

RESCH-GLUTHA, "Prince of the Captivity." See PATRIARCH OF THE WEST; JEWS: 200-400.

RESCINDING ACT, Georgia (1796). See FLETCHER VS. PECK.

RESCISSORY ACT (1661). See SCOTLAND: 1660-1666.

RESEN, ancient city of Assyria. See ROTENNU.

RESERVATIONS, Indian. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Statistics of population; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY; U.S.A.: 1885-1891; OKLAHOMA: 1824-1837; 1830-1844; 1845-1861; 1866-1879; 1891-1901; 1895-1902; WYOMING: 1906.

RESERVOIRS, Egyptian. See EGYPT: 1898-1901.

RESHT, city in Persia, about 150 miles northwest of Tcheran, near the southwest coast of the Caspian sea. It was entered by the Russians in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: a, 7.

RESIDENCIA.—"Residencia was the examination or account taken of the official acts of an executive or judicial officer [Spanish] during the term of his residence within the province of his jurisdiction, and while in the exercise of the functions of his office. . . . While an official was undergoing his residencia it was equivalent to his being under arrest, as he could neither exercise office nor, except in certain cases specified, leave the place."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 1, p. 250, footnote.—See also AUDIENCIAS.

ALSO IN: F. W. Blackmar, *Spanish institutions of the Southwest*, p. 69.

RESISTANCE, Right of.—"Whilst merchantmen may not take part in offensive operations, they are permitted to evade search or defend themselves in case of attack it may not be prudent to offer resistance to a warship, but it is not illegal. The use of arms by a merchant ship for purposes of self-defence is legitimate; the practice is sanctioned by the long-established custom

of many maritime powers, and in . . . [England] it has been in use for at least three centuries. It has been recognized in courts of law and in the naval codes and ordinances of several states; and during the Great War various neutral Governments have admitted its legality. Hence, all that has been said above with regard to unarmed merchantmen applies equally to armed merchantmen."—F. E. Smith (Lord Birkenhead), *International law*, pp. 423-424.

RESPONSA PRUDENTIUM. See CIVIL LAW: B. C. 450-100.

RESTITUTION, Edict of (1629). See GERMANY: 1627-1629.

RESTORATION, English. See ENGLAND: 1658-1660; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1660-1780; Drama: 1660-1800.

RESTRAINING ACT (1775). See U.S.A.: 1775-1776: Effect on association.

RESTRAINING BILL. See ENGLAND: 1641 (March-May).

RESTRAINT OF TRADE. See TRUSTS.

RESUMPTION, Act of (1331). See IRELAND: 1327-1367.

RETALIATION. See RETORSION.

RETALIATION LAW. See BREHON LAWS: Description.

RETENNU. See ROTENNU.

RETHÉL, town in France, on the Aisne, about twenty-three miles northeast of Rheims. It was captured by the French from the Spaniards, in 1650, and recovered by Condé in 1653. In 1918 it was entered by the French. See FRANCE: 1650-1651; 1653-1656; WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: x, 2.

Battle of (1650). See FRANCE: 1650-1651.

RETHONDES, hamlet six miles east of Compiègne, northeastern France. Here, on November 6, 1918, the Allied generalissimo, Marshal Foch, delivered the terms of the armistice to the German envoys. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. End of the war: a, 7.

RETORSION, RETALIATION, REPRISAL.

—**Definition.**—The use of these terms is not uniform, and they are frequently almost interchangeable. Careful distinctions are, however, made by some writers. All three words include in their meaning the idea of extra legal pressure for purposes of compensation for or prevention of illegal and injurious acts on the part of another state, or its citizens. Lorimer would deny any such right. But the usage of nations undeniably allows it in war, and in some forms also in peace. "Retorsion in war is the action of a belligerent against whom a law has been broken, and who retorts by breaking the same or some other law, in order to compensate himself for the damage which he has suffered and to deter his enemy from continuing or repeating the offence. Where the same law is broken the proper term is retaliation, but there is no difference of principle between the cases, and the term retorsion covers both."—J. Westlake, *Collected papers*, p. 259.—"The only solid distinction between retorsion and reprisal is to be found in the nature of the act. A reprisal may be confined to a seizure of persons or property within or without the jurisdiction. A retorsion may be confined to acts within the jurisdiction. . . . In the medieval times, when there was no strong central government and Europe was divided among a number of petty feudal states, in fact independent, reprisals were frequently resorted to not only by the princes themselves, but by their subjects, for redress of damages inflicted on an individual or the prince by another state or its members. It has been suggested that this practice

was on the conception which then prevailed of a solidarity existing between a state and its members by which each member of a state was responsible for acts of damage committed by the state or one of the members, and when anyone had suffered damage from another state or its members the obtaining of redress for that damage was the concern of all. It is probable also that the general state of lawlessness and weakness of government induced monarchs and princes to view with indifference reprisals by other states or its members on a subject who was too powerful to be compelled to do justice. . . . The resort to reprisals was indeed an application of the law of self-help, and was not necessarily regarded as an act of war, the distinction between the two being clearly apprehended. The growth of commerce and the increasing value of private property, together with the increasing strength of the central governments, operated to gradually repress reprisals. The first step appears to have been by the various princes repressing independent acts of reprisal by their subjects and requiring authority from the state before proceeding. This license was designated as a special reprisal and when the act contemplated was on the high sea by a vessel, was called letters of marque and reprisal, and the person operating thereunder, if a private citizen, was called a privateer. The increase in commerce and civilization soon outgrew these restrictions and various treaties were negotiated in the effort to suppress a practice which was clearly inconsistent with the growth in law and in order in western Europe and on the high seas. In modern times the practice has been abandoned altogether so far as individuals or states are concerned in times of peace, and the practice of seizing property in time of war may be regarded as the only aspect of the former unrestrained exercise of the power to seize which remains in modern times."—R. R. Foulke, *International law*, v. 2, pp. 100-103, 110.—"Reprisals as a mode of seeking redress or exerting pressure without war were a firmly established institution of the law of nations, and were very often resorted to in former days. They have now fallen much into disuse, mainly because their place has to a large extent been taken by pacific blockade, which is in truth a new form of reprisals, elaborated during the last three-quarters of a century."—J. Westlake, *Collected papers*, p. 569.—All writers are agreed that reprisals should be very sparingly exercised. But very little is to be found in the books. The authors of the *Handbuch des Völkerrechts* deal with the matter under the head of *kriegsraison*, a term which we have rendered by the words 'the casuistry of war.' They argue with some justification that reprisals are the kind of exception which proves the rule, and declare that the relation of *Kriegsraison* to *Kriegsrecht*, of reprisals in war to the laws of war, is analogous to that of Necessity to Criminal Law. This is a fair statement of the case. The analogy suggests the relation of justifiable homicide to murder. The matter has never been regulated, and the disinclination to do so is intelligible enough, for this is certainly a case where regulation might seem to suggest recognition. Professor Holland, who writes with unrivalled authority on these matters, summarises prevalent authoritative opinion upon this subject in the form of four restrictions. (1) The offence in question must have been carefully inquired into. (2) Redress for the wrong, or punishment of the real offender, must be unattainable. (3) The reprisals must be authorized, unless under very special circumstances, by the commander-in-chief. (4) They must not

be disproportioned to the offence and must in no case be of a barbarous character. That is as far as it is possible to go."—T. Baty and J. H. Morgan, *War: Its conduct and legal results*, p. 198-199. —"Reprisals in war occur where one of the belligerents performs an act in the conduct of hostilities which the other belligerent regards as calling for some measure of attempted protection or punishment. The other belligerent will then perform some act by way of damage to the interests of the enemy, in the hope that by so doing, it will deter him from further proceeding in the original act. Different opinions have been expressed as to reprisals, but in practice they have been freely resorted to, and the question as to the adoption depends entirely upon the necessities of the case and the civilization and humanity of the contending parties."—R. R. Foulke, *International law*, v. 2, p. 260.

ALSO IN: C. S. Davison, *Reprisal*.

RETREAT OF THE TEN THOUSAND.

See PERSIA: B. C. 401-400.

RETZ, Jean François Paul de Gondi, Cardinal de (1614-1679), French ecclesiastic and political leader. Took active part in the movement against Cardinal Mazarin, 1648-1649; imprisoned at Vincennes, 1652; escaped, 1654; returned to France, 1662; wrote his "Memoirs," for which he is chiefly noted. See FRANCE: 1649, to 1651-1653.

REUDIGNI, Germanic tribe formerly inhabiting the region of the Elbe, Germany. See AVIONES.

RÉUNION, or Bourbon, island in the Indian ocean, 400 miles southeast of Tamatave, Madagascar, and 130 miles southwest of Port Louis, Mauritius. It is a French possession, and has an area of 965 square miles. Its population in 1921 was 173,190. See MASCARENE ISLANDS; MAURITIUS.

REUSS, formerly two sovereign principalities of central Germany which merged into one republic of the same name on April 4, 1919, and in May, 1919, combined with other Thuringian states to form the republic of Thuringia with the capital at Weimar. See GERMANY: 1918-1920.

REVAL, or Revel, capital and seaport of Esthonia, on the Gulf of Finland, about fifty miles south of Helsingfors. (See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states.) In 1922 the population was 123,496. The city is said to have been founded by Waldemar II of Denmark in 1219. It joined the Hanseatic League in 1284, and passed to the sovereignty of the Teutonic Knights in 1346. In 1561 it was acquired by Sweden and Peter the Great annexed it to Russia in 1710. It became the capital of the republic of Esthonia in 1919.—See also BALTIC PROVINCES: 1920; RUSSIA: 1920.

REVENUE CUTTER SERVICE, United States.—Organization.—Duties.—Life saving.—Service in war.—"After the freedom of the American colonies had been won through the War of the Revolution the country returned to a peace basis and the Continental Navy was disbanded. From that time on there was no sea force available for the protection of the coasts and the maritime interests of the newly constituted United States until the organization of the Revenue-Cutter Service, under an act of the First Congress, approved by President Washington on August 4, 1790. By the first of November, 1791, ten vessels were ready for duty, and during a period of six years and eleven months revenue cutters formed the only armed force afloat belonging to the young Republic, and were engaged in patrolling the coast line of the country and enforcing its maritime

laws. The first appointments of officers in the Revenue-Cutter Service were made from amongst those who had served in the Continental Navy, and the first commission granted by President Washington to any officer afloat was issued to Captain Hopley Yeaton, of New Hampshire, in the United States Revenue-Cutter Service. This officer had previously served as a lieutenant on the frigates *Kaleigh* and *Dean* of the Continental Navy. The organization of the Revenue-Cutter Service is similar to the naval establishment and it is mainly due to the constant system of drills and discipline incident to military training that the vessels are always ready for prompt response to calls for help. The exactions of military training are found to be of the greatest value in the humanitarian work on the seas. . . . From the standpoint of national economics the Revenue-Cutter Service occupies a peculiarly advantageous and unique position in that, while steadily employed in times of peace in conserving life and property on the seas, it is in constant readiness for the purely military duty of destroying life and property on the seas should the unfortunate necessity for such action arise. The work of the . . . Service, as defined by law, consists in the enforcement of almost every statute bearing upon the maritime interests of the Nation. Its duties embrace the protection of the customs revenue, involving the right of search of all merchant vessels arriving within the United States or within four leagues thereof if bound to a port in the United States; the suppression of piracy; the search for wrecked and missing vessels; the enforcement of the neutrality laws, by preventing armed expeditions against friendly Governments; the suppression of mutiny; the drilling of the life-saving crews; the enforcement of law and the protection of property in Alaska; the protection of seal and other fisheries in Alaskan waters; the destruction of derelicts and other dangers to navigation along our coasts; the rendering of assistance to vessels in distress and aiding the shipwrecked; the enforcement of the navigation laws and of the national marine quarantine regulations; guarding the safety of the public at yacht races and regattas; the supervision of anchorages at certain ports; the protection of the sponge fisheries in the Gulf of Mexico and the Straits of Florida; the patrol of the ice fields and the destruction of derelicts in the North Atlantic Ocean, both under international agreement; the extending of medical and surgical aid to the crews of American vessels engaged in the deep-sea fisheries. . . . The work of assisting the maritime and commercial interests of the country is not confined to the Atlantic, Pacific, and Gulf coasts, and to the Great Lakes, but extends to the Hawaiian Islands, Porto Rico, the Bering Sea, and Arctic Ocean. In the Arctic regions the laws are upheld and enforced, the seal and other fisheries are protected, and the merchant vessels which sail those northern seas are aided when help is needed. . . . From the date of the establishment of the Life-Saving Service commissioned officers of the Revenue-Cutter Service have been detailed to duty in connection with it, and its efficiency is largely due to their efforts. Under the direction of the General Superintendent of the Life-Saving Service they drill the crews of life-saving stations and investigate cases of loss of life within the scope of life-saving operations. They have given to that Service the benefits of a number of inventions and appliances for the furtherance of its humane work. . . . The revenue cut-

ters co-operate with the Navy whenever the President so directs, and in time of war the duties of the Service are self-evident. . . . In the wars in which the United States has been involved the Revenue-Cutter Service has been to the front with the Navy and the Army. In 1798 and 1799, during the troubles with France, the revenue cutter *Pickering* captured ten prizes in engagements with the French, and another cutter, the *Eagle*, captured five. During the War of 1812 the first capture made was that of the British topsail schooner *Patriot* by the revenue cutter *Jefferson*. A total of fourteen British vessels captured, with their guns, officers, and men, tells briefly the story of the operations of the Revenue-Cutter Service during this war. The troubles with the Seminole Indians also called for the aid of the revenue cutters, in co-operation with the Army and the Navy. An excerpt from the report of Captain Thomas T. Webb, U.S.N., commanding the sloop-of-war *Vandalia*, to Commodore Dallas, in command of the naval squadron, shows the value of the work of the revenue cutters in this war when he says, 'Their prompt and ready co-operation with the Army has called forth the highest commendations from the commanding generals, who take occasion to eulogize the services rendered by the *Vandalia* and revenue cutters.' In the War with Mexico, five revenue cutters were engaged in naval operations and performed efficient service in the attacks on Alvarado and Tabasco. Excellent work was also done in connection with the blockading fleet off the Mexican coast. When a naval force was sent to Paraguay in 1858 the revenue cutter *Harriet Lane* was ordered to join the squadron. In his report to the Secretary of the Navy on the operations . . . during this expedition Commodore Shubrick says, in part, 'I should express my sense of the skill and zeal with which Captain Faunce [U.S.R.C.S.] had used the very efficient vessel under his command in extricating us from our difficulties [in grounding]. At one time I feared that the services of the *Fulton* would be lost altogether to the expedition, and they certainly would have been for a great length of time if not entirely, but for the assistance afforded by the *Harriet Lane*.' The Revenue-Cutter Service participated in the Civil War (1861-1865) both in naval engagements and in the more trying blockade duty. At the attack on Fort Hatteras; in the reconnaissance of the batteries at Norfolk; in the bombardment of Drewry's Bluff, on the James River; and in operations in the Chesapeake Bay the revenue cutters were actively engaged. During the Spanish-American War there were thirteen revenue cutters co-operating with the Navy, one of which, the *McCulloch*, was the subject of commendation by Admiral Dewey in one of his reports to the Secretary of the Navy, in which he speaks of that ship as being 'a valuable auxiliary to the squadron.' It was during this war that the revenue cutter *Hudson*, Lieutenant Frank H. Newcomb, U.S.R.C.S., commanding, took part in the action at Cardenas, Cuba. In this engagement such bravery was shown by Lieutenant Newcomb, his officers and crew, in the rescue of the torpedo boat *Winslow* from imminent danger of destruction by the shore batteries, that Congress awarded a gold medal to Lieutenant Newcomb, and silver and bronze medals, respectively, to the other officers and the members of the crew of the *Hudson*."—United States Treasury Department, *United States Revenue Cutter Service* (pamphlet).—In 1914 a bill was passed by the United States

Congress combining the Revenue Cutter Service and the Life Saving Service into one organization, known as The Coast Guard. "The Coast Guard Cutters automatically came under control of the Navy when . . . [the World War] was declared. Its vessels, its trained officers and men proved a valuable addition to . . . [the forces of the United States] and rendered notable service in various areas and in many lines of activity at home and abroad. They formed a very important part of . . . [the] forces at Gibraltar . . . constantly engaged in escorting convoys."—J. Daniels, *Our navy at war*, p. 332.

REVERE, Giuseppe (1812-1889), Italian poet and humorist. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1830-1912.

REVERE, Paul (1735-1818), American patriot. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April); NEW YORK: 1773-1774.

REVIVAL OF LEARNING. See EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Renaissance from various points of view; CLASSICS: Renaissance; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1283-1375.

REVOLUTIONARY TRIBUNAL. See FRANCE: 1793 (February-April).

REVOLUTIONS: The following is a list of the principal revolutions in history:

- American. See U.S.A.: 1775, and after.
- Argentine: 1810. See ARGENTINA: 1806-1820.
- Austrian. See AUSTRIA: 1848, to 1848-1850.
- Austro-Hungarian: 1918. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1918: German Austria becomes a republic.
- Belgian: 1830. See BELGIUM: 1830-1832.
- Brazilian: 1822. See BRAZIL: 1808-1822.
- 1889. See BRAZIL: 1889-1891.
- Chilean: 1810. See CHILE: 1810-1818.
- Chinese: 1911. See CHINA: 1911 (April-December), and after.
- Colombian: 1810. See COLOMBIA: 1810-1819.
- Egyptian: 1919. See EGYPT: 1918-1919.
- English: 1688. See ENGLAND: 1688 (November-December).
- French: 1789. See FRANCE: 1787-1789, and after.
- 1830. See FRANCE: 1815-1830.
- 1848. See FRANCE: 1841-1848; 1848 (February-May); (April-December).
- German: 1848. See GERMANY: 1848 (March), to 1848-1850.
- 1918. See GERMANY: 1918 (November), and after.
- Greek: 1821. See GREECE: 1821-1829, and after.
- 1922. See GREECE: 1922 (September-October).
- Hawaiian: 1893. See HAWAII: Discovery and early history.
- Hungarian: 1848. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849.
- 1918. See HUNGARY: 1918 (November), and after.
- Japanese: 1868. See JAPAN: 1863-1868.
- Italian: 1848. See ITALY: 1848-1849, and after.
- Mexican: 1810. See MEXICO: 1810-1819.
- 1862. See MEXICO: 1861-1867.
- 1910. See MEXICO: 1910-1913.
- Polish: 1830. See POLAND: 1830-1832.
- 1863. See POLAND: 1863-1869.
- Portuguese: 1820. See PORTUGAL: 1820-1824.
- 1910. See PORTUGAL: 1910.
- Russian: 1905. See RUSSIA: 1904-1905; Outline of leading events in revolution, and after.
- 1917. See RUSSIA: 1917 (March 8-15), to 1917-1920.
- Spanish: 1820. See SPAIN: 1814-1827.
- 1843. See SPAIN: 1833-1846.
- 1868. See SPAIN: 1868-1873.
- Swiss: 1847. See SWITZERLAND: 1803-1848.

Turkish: 1908. See **TURKEY**: 1908, and after.
Venezuelan: 1810. See **COLOMBIA**: 1810-1819.

REVOLVERS. See **RIFLES AND REVOLVERS.**

REYDANIYA, Battle of (1517). See **TURKEY**: 1481-1520.

REYES, Bernardo (d. 1913), Mexican soldier and political leader. Instigated revolt in 1911; surrendered and was imprisoned in the same year. See **MEXICO**: 1910-1913.

REYES, Rafael (1852-), Colombian statesman and soldier. President of Colombia, 1904-1910. See **COLOMBIA**: 1904-1909; 1909.

REYNOLDS, John (1713-1788), colonial governor of Georgia, c. 1752-1757. See **GEORGIA**: 1743-1764.

REYNOLDS, Sir Joshua (1723-1792), English painter. See **PAINTING**: English.

REYNOSA, Battle of. See **SPAIN**: 1808 (September-December).

REZA, or Riza Khan, Persian minister of war, 1921-1923. See **PERSIA**: 1911-1923.

REZANOV, Nicolai Petrovitch de (1764-1807), Russian statesman and administrator. Became privy councillor, 1803; appointed ambassador to Japan, 1804; led an expedition to California, 1806. See **CALIFORNIA**: 1806-1846.

REZON, Rasun, or Rezin (fl. 730 B.C.), founder of Damascus. See **DAMASCUS**.

RHÆTIA, **RHÆTIANS**, **VINDELICIANS**.—"The Alps from the Simplon pass to the sources of the Drave were occupied by the Rhætians. [See **SWITZERLAND**: B.C. 1st century.] Beyond the Inn and the Lake of Constance, the plain which slopes gently towards the Danube was known by the name of Vindelicia. Styria, the Kammergut of Salzburg, and the southern half of the Austrian Archduchy, belonged to the tribes of Noricum, while the passes between that country and Italy were held by the Carnians." The Roman conquest of this Alpine region was effected in the years 16 and 15 B.C. by the two stepsons of the Emperor Augustus, Tiberius and Drusus. (See **ROME**: Empire: B.C. 31-A.D. 14.) In addition to the people mentioned above, the Camuni, the Vennones, the Brenni and the Genauni were crushed. "The free tribes of the eastern Alps appear then for the first time in history, only to disappear again for a thousand years."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 35.—See also **TYROL**: Origin.

Settlement of Alemanni. See **ALEMANNI**: 496-504.

RHAGES. See **RAGA**.

RHAKOTIS, ancient village in Egypt, on the present site of Alexandria. See **ALEXANDRIA**: B.C. 332; B.C. 282-246.

RHALLES, Demetrios. See **RALLI**, **DEMETRIOS**.

RHEDONES, Gallic tribe. See **VENETI OF WESTERN GAUL**.

RHEGIUM, Siege of (387 B.C.).—Rhegium, an important Greek city, in the extreme south of Italy, on the strait which separates the peninsula from Sicily, incurred the hostility of the tyrant of Syracuse, the elder Dionysius, by scornfully refusing him a bride whom he solicited. The savage-tempered despot made several attempts without success to surprise the town, and finally laid siege to it with a powerful army and fleet. The inhabitants resisted desperately for eleven months, at the end of which time (387 B.C.) they were starved into surrender. "Dionysius, on entering Rhegium, found heaps of unburied corpses, besides 6,000 citizens in the last stage of emaciation. All these captives were sent to Syracuse, where those who could provide a mina (about £3.17s.) were allowed to ransom themselves, while the rest were

sold as slaves. After such a period of suffering, the number of those who retained the means of ransom was probably very small."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 83.

RHEIMS, or Reims, city in northeastern France, on the Vesle, about ninety-eight miles northeast of Paris. In 1921 the population numbered 76,645. The city is built on the site of a stronghold of the Rimi, which was later a Roman camp. It was here that Clovis received baptism, and the cathedral was the place of coronation of the French kings from the thirteenth to the nineteenth century.

Origin of name. See **BELGÆ**.

1094.—Council of. See **PAPACY**: 1056-1122.

1429.—Crowning of Charles VII. See **FRANCE**: 1429-1431.

1814.—Capture by Allies and recovery by Napoleon. See **FRANCE**: 1814 (January-March).

1874.—Modern fortifications.—In 1874, Rheims was chosen as one of the outer defences of Paris, and the construction of a chain of detached forts was begun.

1914-1918.—Siege by German army.—In August 1914, the city was occupied by the Germans in their march on Paris. After the battle of the Marne they fell back; but throughout the World War the city was bombarded from time to time, and the cathedral was made the object of persistent attack. Irreparable damage was done to this ancient monument, and Rheims itself was practically destroyed. See also **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: s, 5; 1917: II. Western front: b, 1; b, 1, i; 1918: II. Western front: a, 3; c, 4; d, 19; g, 6; **FRANCE**: 1917; **LIBRARIES**: Modern: Carnegie library gifts.

RHEINBERG, town in Germany, on the Rhine, about fifty miles northwest of Cologne. It was captured by the Prussians in 1703. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1702-1704.

RHEINFELDEN, Siege and Battle of (1638). See **GERMANY**: 1634-1639.

RHENANUS, Beatus (1485-1547), German scholar and historian. See **HISTORY**: 22.

RHIND MATHEMATICAL PAPYRUS, ancient, manuscript showing Egyptian arithmetical system. See **SCIENCE**: Ancient Egyptian and Babylonian.

RHINE, one of the largest rivers in Europe. It rises in the canton of the Grisons, Switzerland, borders France, flows north and west through Germany and the Netherlands, and empties into the North sea.

Roman passage. See **USIPETES AND TENCTHERI**. Campaign of the French. See **FRANCE**: 1795 (June-December).

Left bank ceded to France by Treaty of Lunéville (1801). See **GERMANY**: 1801-1803.

Project to connect with the Danube. See **CANALS**: Principal European canals: Germany.

Project to connect with Elbe. See **GERMANY**: 1901 (January).

Provisions regarding navigation and fortification in Treaty of Versailles (1919). See **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF**: Part III: Section III; Part XII: Section II: Chapter IV.

French occupation of left bank. See **GERMANY**: 1920 (March-April).

RHINE, Circle of the. See **GERMANY**: 1403-1519.

RHINE, Confederation of the. See **GERMANY**: 1801-1803, to 1806 (January-August); 1809 (July-September); 1813 (October-December); **FRANCE**: 1814 (January-March).

RHINE BRIDGEHEADS.—The principal Rhine bridgeheads are Mainz, Coblenz and Cologne.

They were occupied after the World War armistice by French, American and British troops, respectively.

RHINE LEAGUE.—The Rhine League was one of several Bunds, or confederations formed among the German trading towns in the Middle Ages, for the common protection of their commerce. It comprised the towns of southwest Germany and the Lower Rhine provinces. Prominent among its members were Cologne, Wessel and Münster. Cologne, already a large and flourishing city, the chief market of the trade of the Rhine lands, was a member, likewise, of the Hanseatic League (see HANSA TOWNS).—Based on J. Yeats, *Growth and vicissitudes of commerce*, p. 158.—See also CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY; FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval leagues in Germany.

RHODE ISLAND: Area.—Geographic description.—Industries.—Population.—Rhode Island is the smallest state in the Union, having a total area of 1,248 square miles. It is bounded



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north and east by the state of Massachusetts; south by the Atlantic Ocean and west by the state of Connecticut. Manufacturing is the most important industry of Rhode Island. Since 1870 over twenty-two per cent. of the population have been engaged as wage-earners in factories. The state ranks first in the dyeing and finishing of textiles and in the manufacture of silverware and jewelry; second in the refining of gold and silver. There are some fisheries in Rhode Island, but the shell-fish industry suffered severe loss owing to the pollution of the Providence river and the upper waters of the Narragansett. Agriculture has been steadily on the decline since 1850. In 1920, the population numbered 604,397.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

1631-1636.—Roger Williams, the founder, in Massachusetts.—Offenses against Boston Puritanism.—Banishment.—On February 5, 1631, "the ship Lyon arrived at Nantasket, with twenty passengers and a large store of provisions. Her arrival was most timely, for the [Massachusetts] colonists were reduced to the last exigencies of famine. Many had already died of want, and

many more were rescued from imminent peril by this providential occurrence. A public fast had been appointed for the day succeeding that on which the ship reached Boston. It was changed to a general thanksgiving. There was another incident connected with the arrival of this ship, which made it an era, not only in the affairs of Massachusetts, but in the history of America. She brought to the shores of New England the founder of a new State, the exponent of a new philosophy, the intellect that was to harmonize religious differences, and soothe the asperities of the New World; a man whose clearness of mind enabled him to deduce, from the mass of crude speculations which abounded in the 17th century, a proposition so comprehensive, that it is difficult to say whether its application has produced the most beneficial result upon religion, or morals, or politics. This man was Roger Williams, then about thirty-two years of age. He was a scholar, well versed in the ancient and some of the modern tongues, an earnest inquirer after truth, and an ardent friend of popular liberty as well for the mind as for the body. As a 'godly minister,' he was welcomed to the society of the Puritans, and soon invited by the church in Salem to supply the place of the lamented Higginson, as an assistant to their pastor Samuel Skelton. The invitation was accepted, but the term of his ministry was destined to be brief. The authorities at Boston remonstrated with those at Salem against the reception of Williams. The Court at its next session addressed a letter to Mr. Endicott to this effect: 'That whereas Mr. Williams had refused to join with the congregation at Boston, because they would not make a public declaration of their repentance for having communion with the churches of England, while they lived there; and, besides, had declared his opinion that the magistrate might not punish the breach of the Sabbath, nor any other offence, as it was a breach of the first table; therefore they marvelled that they would choose him without advising with the council, and withal desiring him, that they would forbear to proceed till they had conferred about it.' This attempt of the magistrates of Boston to control the election of a church officer at Salem, met with the rebuke it so richly merited. The people were not ignorant of the hostility their invitation had excited; yet on the very day the remonstrance was written, they settled Williams as their minister. The ostensible reasons for this hostility are set forth in the letter above cited. That they were to a great extent the real ones cannot be questioned. The ecclesiastical polity of the Puritans sanctioned this interference. Their church platform approved it. Positive statute would seem to require it. Nevertheless, we cannot but think that, underlying all this, there was a secret stimulus of ambition on the part of the Boston Court to strengthen its authority over the prosperous and, in some respects, rival colony of Salem. . . . As a political measure this interference failed of its object. The people resented so great a stretch of authority, and the church disregarded the remonstrance. . . . What could not as yet be accomplished by direct intervention of the Court was effected in a surer manner. The fearlessness of Williams in denouncing the errors of the times, and especially the doctrine of the magistrate's power in religion, gave rise to a system of persecution which, before the close of the summer, obliged him to seek refuge beyond the jurisdiction of Massachusetts in the more liberal colony of the Pilgrims. At Plymouth 'he was well accepted as an assistant in the ministry to Mr. Ralph Smith, then pastor of the church there.'

The principal men of the colony treated him with marked attention. . . . The opportunities there presented for cultivating an intimate acquaintance with the chief Sachems of the neighboring tribes were well improved, and exerted an important influence, not only in creating the State of which he was to be the founder, but also in protecting all New England amid the horrors of savage warfare. Ousamequin, or Massasoit, as he is usually called, was the Sachem of the Wampanoags, called also the Pokanoket tribe, inhabiting the Plymouth territory. His seat was at Mount Hope, in what is now the town of Bristol, R. I. With this chief, the early and steadfast friend of the English, Williams established a friendship which proved of the greatest service at the time of his exile."—S. G. Arnold, *History of the state of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations*, v. 1, ch. 1.—Williams "remained at Plymouth, teaching in the church, but supporting himself by manual labor, nearly two years. His ministry was popular in the main and his person universally liked. Finally, however, he advanced some opinions which did not suit the steady-going Plymouth elders, and therefore, departing 'something abruptly,' he returned to Salem. There he acted as assistant to Mr. Skelton, the aged pastor of the church, and when Mr. Skelton died, less than a year later, became his successor. At Salem he was again under the surveillance of the rulers and elders of the Bay, and they were swift to make him sensible of it. He had written in Plymouth, for the Plymouth Governor and Council a treatise on the Massachusetts Patent, in which he had maintained his doctrine that the King could not give the settlers a right to take away from the natives their land without paying them for it. He was not a lawyer but an ethical teacher, and it was doubtless as such that he maintained this opinion. In our day its ethical correctness is not disputed. It has always been good Rhode Island doctrine. He also criticised the patent because in it King James claimed to be the first Christian prince who discovered New England, and because he called Europe Christendom or the Christian World. Williams did not scruple to denounce these formal fictions in downright Saxon as lies. He does not appear to have been, at any period of his life, a paragon of conventional propriety. A rumor of the treatise got abroad, though it remained unpublished. The patent happened to be a sensitive point with the magistrates. It had been granted in England to an English trading company, and its transfer to Massachusetts was an act of questionable legality. Moreover it was exceedingly doubtful whether the rulers, in exercising the extensive civil jurisdiction which they claimed under it, did not exceed their authority. They were apprehensive of proceedings to forfeit it, and therefore were easily alarmed at any turning of attention to it. When they heard of the treatise they sent for it, and, having got it, summoned the author 'to be censured.' He appeared in an unexpectedly placable mood, and not only satisfied their minds in regard to some of its obscurer passages, but offered it, since it had served its purpose, to be burnt. The magistrates, propitiated by his complaisance, appeared to have accepted the offer as equivalent to a promise of silence, though it is impossible that he, the uncompromising champion of aboriginal rights, can ever have meant to give, or even appear to give, such a promise. Accordingly when they heard soon afterwards that he was discussing the patent they were deeply incensed, though it was doubtless the popular curiosity excited by their own indiscreet action which

elicited the discussion. Their anger was aggravated by another doctrine then put forth by him, namely, that an oath ought not to be tendered to an unregenerate, or, as we should say, an unreligious man, because an oath is an act of worship, and cannot be taken by such a man without profanation. . . . He also taught that an oath being an act of worship, could not properly be exacted from any one against his will, and that even Christians ought not to desecrate it by taking it for trivial causes. . . . The magistrates again instituted proceedings against him, at first subjecting him to the ordeal of clerical visitation, then formally summoning him to answer for himself before the General Court. At the same time the Salem church was arraigned for contempt in choosing him as pastor while he was under question. The court, however, did not proceed to judgment, but allowed them both further time for repentance. It so happened that the inhabitants of Salem had a petition before the court for 'some land at Marblehead Neck, which they did challenge as belonging to their town.' The court, when the petition came up, refused to grant it until the Salem church should give satisfaction for its contempt, thus virtually affirming that the petitioners had no claim to justice even, so long as they adhered to their recusant pastor. Williams was naturally indignant. He induced his church—'enchanted his church,' says Cotton Mather—to send letters to the sister churches, appealing to them to admonish the magistrates and deputies of their 'heinous sin.' He wrote the letters himself. His Massachusetts contemporaries say he was 'unlamb-like.' Undoubtedly they heard no gentle bleating in those letters, but rather the reverberating roar of the lion chafing in his rage. The churches repelled the appeal; and then turning to the Salem church, besieged it only the more assiduously, laboring with it, nine with one, to alienate it from its pastor. What could the one church do,—with the magistracy against it, the clergy against it, the churches and the people against it, muttering their vague anathemas, and Salem town suffering unjustly on its account,—what could it do but yield? It yielded virtually if not yet in form; and Williams stood forth alone in his opposition to the united power of Church and State. . . . The fateful court day came at last. The court assembles, magistrates and deputies, with the clergy to advise them. Williams appears, not to be tried, but to be sentenced unless he will retract. He reaffirms his opinions. Mr. Hooker, a famous clerical dialectician, is chosen to dispute with him, and the solemn mockery of confutation begins. . . . Hour after hour, he argues unsubdued, till the sun sinks low and the weary court adjourns. On the morrow [Friday, October 9, 1635], still persisting in his glorious 'contumacy,' he is sentenced, the clergy all save one advising, to be banished, or, to adopt the apologetic but felicitous euphemism of his great adversary, John Cotton, 'enlarged' out of Massachusetts. He was allowed at first six weeks, afterwards until spring, to depart. But in January the magistrates having heard that he was drawing others to his opinion, and that his purpose was to erect a plantation about Narragansett Bay, 'from whence the infection would easily spread,' concluded to send him by ship, then ready, to England. [See MASSACHUSETTS: 1636.] The story is familiar how Williams, advised of their intent, baffled it by plunging into the wilderness, where, after being 'sorely tost for one fourteen weeks, in a bitter winter season, not knowing what bread or bed did mean,' he settled with the opening spring, on the east bank of the Secokn,

and there built and planted.”—T. Durfee, *Historical discourse: Two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the settlement of Providence, 1886*.—“The course pursued towards Roger Williams was not exceptional. What was done to him had been done in repeated instances before. Within the first year of its settlement the colony had passed sentence of exclusion from its territory upon no less than fourteen persons. It was the ordinary method by which a corporate body would deal with those whose presence no longer seemed desirable. Conceiving themselves to be by patent the exclusive possessors of the soil,—soil which they had purchased for the accomplishment of their personal and private ends,—the colonists never doubted their competency to fix the terms on which others should be allowed to share in their undertaking. . . . While there is some discrepancy in the contemporary accounts of this transaction, there is entire agreement on one point, that the assertion by Roger Williams of the doctrine of ‘soul-liberty’ was not the head and front of his offending. Whatever was meant by the vague charge in the final sentence that he had ‘broached and divulged new and dangerous opinions, against the authority of magistrates,’ it did not mean that he had made emphatic the broad doctrine of the entire separation of church and state. We have his own testimony on this point. In several allusions to the subject in his later writings,—and it can hardly be supposed that in a matter which he felt so sorely his memory would have betrayed him,—he never assigns to his opinion respecting the power of the civil magistrate more than a secondary place. He repeatedly affirms that the chief causes of his banishment were his extreme views regarding separation, and his denouncing of the patent. Had he been himself conscious of having incurred the hostility of the Massachusetts colony for asserting the great principle with which he was afterwards identified, he would surely have laid stress upon it. . . . It is . . . clear that in the long controversy it had become covered up by other issues, and that his opponents, at least, did not regard it as his most dangerous heresy. So far as it was a mere speculative opinion it was not new. . . . To upbraid the Puritans as unrelenting persecutors, or extol Roger Williams as a martyr to the cause of religious liberty, is equally wide of the real fact. On the one hand, the controversy had its origin in the passionate and precipitate zeal of a young man whose relish for disputation made him never unwilling to encounter opposition, and on the other, in the exigencies of a unique community, where the instincts of a private corporation had not yet expanded into the more liberal policy of a body politic. If we cannot impute to the colony any large statesmanship, so neither can we wholly acquit Roger Williams of the charge of mixing great principles with some whimsical conceits. The years which he passed in Massachusetts were years of discipline and growth, when he doubtless already cherished in his active brain the germs of the principles which he afterwards developed; but the fruit was destined to be ripened under another sky.”—J. L. Diman, *Orations and essays*, pp. 114-117.

1636.—Wanderings of the exiled Roger Williams.—His followers.—Settlement at Providence.—Dealings with the Indians.—The little that is known of the wanderings of Roger Williams after his banishment from Salem, until his settlement at Providence, is derived from a letter which he wrote more than thirty years afterwards (June 22, 1670) to Major Mason, the hero of the

Pequot War. In that letter he says: “When I was unkindly and unchristianly, as I believe, driven from my house and land and wife and children, (in the midst of a New England winter, now about thirty-five years past,) at Salem, that ever honored Governor, Mr. Winthrop, privately wrote to me to steer my course to Narragansett Bay and Indians, for many high and heavenly and public ends, encouraging me, from the freeness of the place from any English claims or patents. I took his prudent motion as a hint and voice from God, and waving all other thoughts and motions, I steered my course from Salem (though in winter snow, which I feel yet) unto these parts, wherein I may say Peniel, that is, I have seen the face of God. . . . I first pitched, and began to build and plant at Seekonk, now Rehoboth, but I received a letter from my ancient friend, Mr. Winslow, then Governor of Plymouth, professing his own and others love and respect to me, yet lovingly advising me, since I was fallen into the edge of their bounds, and they were loath to displease the Bay, to remove but to the other side of the water, and then he said, I had the country free before me, and might be as free as themselves, and we should be loving neighbors together. These were the joint understandings of these two eminently wise and Christian Governors and others, in their day, together with their counsel and advice as to the freedom and vacancy of this place, which in this respect, and many other Providences of the Most Holy and Only Wise, I called Providence. . . . Some time after, the Plymouth great Sachem, (Oufamaquin,) upon occasion affirming that Providence was his land, and therefore Plymouth’s land, and some resenting it, the then prudent and godly Governor, Mr. Bradford, and others of his godly council, answered, that if, after due examination, it should be found true what the barbarian said, yet having to my loss of a harvest that year, been now (though by their gentle advice) as good as banished from Plymouth as from the Massachusetts, and I had quietly and patiently departed from them, at their motion to the place where now I was, I should not be molested and tossed up and down again, while they had breath in their bodies; and surely, between those, my friends of the Bay and Plymouth, I was sorely tossed, for one fourteen weeks, in a bitter winter season, not knowing what bread or bed did mean, beside the yearly loss of no small matter in my trading with English and natives, being debarred from Boston, the chief mart and port of New England.”—J. R. Bartlett, ed., *Letters of Roger Williams*, pp. 335-336.—“According to the weight of authority and the foregoing extract, when Williams left Salem he made his way from there by sea, coasting, probably, from place to place during the ‘fourteen weeks’ that ‘he was sorely tossed,’ and holding intercourse with the native tribes, whose language he had acquired . . . during his residence at Plymouth. Dr. Dexter and Professor Diman interpret this and other references differently, and conclude that the journey must have been by land. See Dexter, p. 62, note; Nar. Club Pub., Vol. II, p. 87. Perhaps the true interpretation is that the journey was partly by sea and partly by land; that is, from the coast inward—to confer with the natives—was by land, and the rest by sea.”—O. S. Straus, *Roger Williams*, ch. 5, and footnote.—Mr. Rider, the well-known critical student of Rhode Island history, has commented on the above passage in Mr. Straus’s work as follows: “The distance from Salem by sea to Seekonk was across Massachusetts Bay, Cape Cod Bay, the Atlantic Ocean, Vineyard Sound, Buzzard’s Bay, the At-

lantic Ocean again, and Narragansett Bay,—a distance scarcely less than 500 miles, in and out, by the line of the coast; all of which had to be covered either in a birch bark canoe or in a shallop; if in a canoe, then to be paddled, but if in a shallop, where did Williams get it, and what became of it? History does not answer. If Williams was in a boat sailing into Narragansett Bay, 'the pleasure of the Most High to direct my steps into the Bay' would become a positive absurdity unless the Most High meant that Williams should jump overboard! He certainly could have taken no steps in a boat. But if Williams was in a boat, what sense could there be in his saying 'I was sorely tossed for one fourteen weeks, in a bitter (hyperbole again) winter season, not knowing what bread or bed did mean.' Did they not have beds in boats, nor bread? As to the expression in the Cotton Letter, it was his soul, and not his body, which was exposed to poverties, &c.; observe the quotation. . . . When Mr. Straus in his foot-note, speaks of Williams's journey, 'partly by sea and partly by land, that is from the coast inward, to confer with the natives,' he is dealing solely with the imagination. No such conference ever took place."—S. S. Rider, *Roger Williams (Book notes, v. 11, p. 148)*.—It was the opinion of Prof. Gammell that, when Roger Williams fled from Salem, "he made his way through the forest to the lodges of the Pokanokets, who occupied the country north from Mount Hope as far as Charles River. Ousemaguin, or Massasoit, the famous chief of this tribe, had known Mr. Williams when he lived in Plymouth, and had often received presents and tokens of kindness at his hands; and now, in the days of his friendless exile, the aged chief welcomed him to his cabin at Mount Hope, and extended to him the protection and aid he required. He granted to him a tract of land on the Seekonk River, to which, at the opening of spring, he repaired, and where 'he pitched and began to build and plant' [near the beautiful bend in the river, now known as 'Manton's Cove,' a short distance above the upper bridge, directly eastward of Providence.—Foot-note]. At this place, also, at the same time, he was joined by a number of his friends from Salem. . . . But scarcely had the first dwelling been raised . . . when he was again disturbed, and obliged to move still further from Christian neighbors and the dwellings of civilized men [as related in his letter quoted above]. He accordingly soon abandoned the fields which he had planted, and the dwelling he had begun to build, and embarked in a canoe upon the Seekonk River, in quest of another spot where, unmolested, he might rear a home and plant a separate colony. There were five others, who, having joined him at Seekonk, bore him company. [Coasting along the stream and] round the headlands now known as Fox Point and India Point, up the harbor, to the mouth of the Mooshausic River, [he landed, and] upon the beautiful slope of the hill that ascends from the river, he descried the spring around which he commenced the first 'plantations of Providence.' It was in the latter part of June, 1636, as well as can be ascertained, that Roger Williams and his companions began the settlement at the mouth of the Mooshausic River. A little north of what is now the centre of the city, the spring is still pointed out which drew the attention of the humble voyagers from Seekonk. Here, after so many wanderings, was the weary exile to find a home, and to lay the foundations of a city, which should be a perpetual memorial of pious gratitude to the superintending Providence which had pro-

tected him and guided him to the spot. . . . The spot at which he had landed . . . was within the territory belonging to the Narragansetts. Canonicus, the aged chief of the tribe, and Miantonomo, his nephew, had visited the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay, while Williams resided there, and had learned to regard him, in virtue of his being a minister, as one of the sachems of the English. He had also taken special pains to conciliate their good-will and gain their confidence. . . . Indeed, there is reason to believe that, at an early period after his arrival in New England, on finding himself so widely at variance with his Puritan brethren, he conceived the design of withdrawing from the colonies, and settling among the Indians, that he might labor as a missionary. . . . In all his dealings with the Indians, Mr. Williams was governed by a strict regard to the rights which, he had always contended, belonged to them as the sole proprietors of the soil. . . . It was by his influence, and at his expense, that the purchase was procured from Canonicus and Miantonomo, who partook largely of the shyness and jealousy of the English so common to their tribe. He says, 'It was not thousands nor tens of thousands of money that could have bought of them an English entrance into this bay.'—W. Gammell, *Life of Roger Williams (Library of American Biography, series 2, v. 4, ch. 6-7)*.—See also U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

ALSO IN: S. G. Arnold, *History of Rhode Island, v. 1, ch. 1, 4*.—W. R. Staples, *Annals of Providence, ch. 1*.

1636-1661.—Sale and gift of lands by Indians to Roger Williams.—Transfer to associates.—"The first object of Mr. Williams would naturally be, to obtain from the sachems a grant of land for his new colony. He probably visited them, and received a verbal cession of the territory, which, two years afterwards, was formally conveyed to him by a deed. This instrument may properly be quoted here. 'At Narraganset, the 24th of the first month, commonly called March, the second year of the plantation or planting at Moshassuck, or Providence [1638]; Memorandum, that we, Canonicus and Miantinomo, the two chief sachems of Narraganset, having two years since sold unto Roger Williams the lands and meadows upon the two fresh rivers, called Moshassuck and Wanasquatucket, do now, by these presents, establish and confirm the bounds of these lands, from the river and fields of Pawtucket, the great hill of Notaquoncanot, on the northwest, and the town of Mashapaug, on the west. We also in consideration of the many kindnesses and services he hath continually done for us, both with our friends of Massachusetts, as also at Connecticut, and Apaum, or Plymouth, we do freely give unto him all that land from those rivers reaching to Pawtucket river; as also the grass and meadows upon the said Pawtucket river. In witness whereof, we have hereunto set our hands. [The mark (a bow) of Canonicus. The mark (an arrow) of Miantonomo]. In the presence of [The mark of Sohash. The mark of Alsomunsit]. . . . The lands thus ceded to Mr. Williams he conveyed to twelve men, who accompanied, or soon joined, him, reserving for himself an equal part only." Twenty-three years later, on the 20th of December, 1661, he executed a more formal deed of conveyance to his associates and their heirs of the lands which had unquestionably been partly sold and partly given to himself personally by the Indians. This latter instrument was in the following words. "Be it known unto all men by these presents, that I, Roger Williams, of the town of Providence, in

the Narraganset Bay, in New England, having, in the year one thousand six hundred thirty-four, and in the year one thousand six hundred thirty-five had several treaties with Canonicus and Miantinomo, the two chief sachems of the Narraganset, and in the end purchased of them the lands and meadows upon the two fresh rivers called Moshas-suck and Wanasquatucket, the two sachems having, by a deed under their hands, two years after the sale thereof, established and confirmed the bounds of these lands from the rivers and fields of Paw-tucket, the great hill of Notaquoncanot on the northwest, and the town of Mashapaug on the west, notwithstanding I had the frequent promise

receive into the fellowship and society of enjoying and disposing of the said purchase; and besides the first that were admitted, our town records declare, that afterwards we received Chad Brown, William Field, Thomas Harris, Senior, William Wickenden, Robert Williams, Gregory Dexter, and others, as our town book declares; and whereas, by God's merciful assistance, I was the procurer of the purchase, not by monies nor payment, the natives being so shy and jealous that monies could not do it, but by that language, acquaintance and favor with the natives, and other advantages, which it pleased God to give me, and also bore the charges and venture of all the gratuities, which I gave



ROGER WILLIAMS OPPOSING THE PEQUOT EMISSARIES

of Miantinomo, my kind friend, that it should not be land that I should want about these bounds mentioned, provided that I satisfied the Indians there inhabiting. I having made covenant of peaceable neighborhood with all the sachems and natives round about us, and having, of a sense of God's merciful Providence unto me in my distress, called the place Providence, I desired it might be for a shelter for persons distressed for conscience. I then considering the condition of divers of my distressed countrymen, I communicated my said purchase unto my loving friends, John Throckmorton, William Arnold, William Harris, Stukely Westcott, John Greene, Senior, Thomas Olney, Senior, Richard Waterman, and others, who then desired to take shelter here with me, and in succession unto so many others as we should

to the great sachems and other sachems and natives round about us, and lay engaged for a loving and peaceable neighborhood with them, to my great charge and travel; it was therefore thought fit by some loving friends, that I should receive some loving consideration and gratuity, and it was agreed between us, that every person, that should be admitted into the fellowship of enjoying land and disposing of the purchase, should pay thirty shillings unto the public stock; and first, about thirty pounds should be paid unto myself, by thirty shillings a person, as they were admitted; this sum I received, and in love to my friends, and with respect to a town and place of succor for the distressed as aforesaid, I do acknowledge the said sum and payment as full satisfaction; and whereas in the year one thousand six hundred and

thirty-seven, so called, I delivered the deed subscribed by the two aforesaid chief sachems, so much thereof as concerneth the aforementioned lands, from myself and from my heirs, unto the whole number of the purchasers, with all my power, right and title therein, reserving only unto myself one single share equal unto any of the rest of that number; I now again, in a more formal way, under my hand and seal, confirm my former resignation of that deed of the lands aforesaid, and bind myself, my heirs, my executors, my administrators and assigns, never to molest any of the said persons already received, or hereafter to be received, into the society of purchasers, as aforesaid; but that they, their heirs, executors, administrators and assigns, shall at all times quietly and peaceably enjoy the premises and every part thereof, and I do further by these presents bind myself, my heirs, my executors, my administrators and assigns never to lay any claim, nor cause any claim to be laid, to any of the lands aforementioned, or unto any part or parcel thereof, more than unto my own single share, by virtue or pretence of any former bargain, sale or mortgage whatsoever, or jointures, thirds or entails made by me, the said Roger Williams, or of any other person, either for, by, through or under me. In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal, the twentieth day of December, in the present year one thousand six hundred sixty-one. Roger Williams.' . . . From this document, it appears, that the twelve persons to whom the lands, on the Moshassuck and Wanasquatucket rivers, were conveyed by Mr. Williams, did not pay him any part of the thirty pounds, which he received; but that the sum of thirty shillings was exacted of every person who was afterwards admitted, to form a common stock. From this stock, thirty pounds were paid to Mr. Williams, for the reasons mentioned in the instrument last quoted."—J. D. Knowles, *Memoir of Roger Williams*, ch. 8.

1637.—Pequot War.—"Williams was banished in 1636 and settled at Providence. The Pequot war took place the next year following. The Pequots were a powerful tribe of Indians, dwelling . . . in the valley of the Thames at the easterly end of Connecticut, and holding the lands west to the river of that name. The parties to this war were, the Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut colonies, assisted by the Narragansett and Mohegan tribes of Indians on one side, against the Pequots, single-handed, on the other. The Pequots undertook to make an alliance with the Narragansetts and the Mohegans (Hubbard's Indian Wars, 1677, p. 118), and but for Williams would have succeeded, (Narr. Club, v. 6, p. 269). Williams had obtained a powerful influence over Canonius and Miantinomi, the great Sachems of the Narragansetts, (Narr. Club, v. 6, p. 17,) and Massachusetts having just banished him, sent at once to him to prevent if possible this alliance, (Narr. Club, v. 6, p. 269). By his influence a treaty of alliance was made with Miantinomi, Williams being employed by both sides as a friend, the treaty was deposited with him and he was made interpreter by Massachusetts for the Indians upon their motion, (Winthrop's Hist. N. E., 1853, v. 1, p. 237). The Narragansetts, the Mohegans, the Niantics, the Nipmucs, and the Cowesets, were by this treaty either neutrals or fought actively for the English in the war."—S. S. Rider, *Political results of the banishment of Williams* (Book notes, v. 8, no. 17).—See also NEW ENGLAND: 1637.

1638-1640.—Purchase, settlement and naming of the island.—Coming of Anne Hutchinson.—Founding of Newport.—Early in the spring of

1638, while Mrs. Anne Hutchinson was undergoing imprisonment at Boston (see MASSACHUSETTS: 1636-1638), "Mrs. Hutchinson's husband, Coddington, John Clarke, educated a physician, and other principal persons of the Hutchinsonian party, were given to understand that, unless they removed of their own accord, proceedings would be taken to compel them to do so. They sent, therefore, to seek a place of settlement, and found one in Plymouth patent; but, as the magistrates of that colony declined to allow them an independent organization, they presently purchased of the Narragansetts, by the recommendation of Williams, the beautiful and fertile Island of Aquiday [or Aquetnet, or Aquidneck]. The price was 40 fathoms of white wampum; for the additional gratuity of ten coats and twenty hoes, the present inhabitants agreed to remove. The purchasers called it the Isle of Rhodes—a name presently changed by use to Rhode Island. Nineteen persons, having signed a covenant 'to incorporate themselves into a body politic,' and to submit to 'our Lord Jesus Christ,' and to his 'most perfect and absolute laws,' began a settlement at its northern end, with Coddington as their judge or chief magistrate, and three elders to assist him. They were soon joined by others from Boston; but those who were 'of the rigid separation, and savored Anabaptism,' removed to Providence, which now began to be well peopled."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 9.—"This little colony increased rapidly, so that in the following spring some of their number moved to the south-west part of the island and began the settlement of Newport. The northern part of the island which was first occupied was called Portsmouth. Both towns, however, were considered, as they were in fact, as belonging to the same colony. To this settlement, also, came Anne Hutchinson with her husband and family after they had been banished from Massachusetts. There is no record that in this atmosphere of freedom she occasioned any trouble or disturbance. Here she led a quiet and peaceable life until the death of her husband in 1642, when she removed to the neighborhood of New York, where she and all the members of her family, sixteen in number, were murdered by the Indians, with the exception of one daughter, who was taken into captivity. In imitation of the form of government which existed under the judges of Israel, during the period of the Hebrew Commonwealth, the two settlements, Rhode Island and Portsmouth, chose Coddington to be their magistrate, with the title of Judge, and a few months afterward they elected three elders to assist him. This form of government continued until 1640."—O. S. Straus, *Roger Williams*, ch. 6.

1638-1647.—Constitution of Providence Plantation.—Charter and union.—Religious liberty as understood by Roger Williams.—"The colonists of Plymouth had formed their social compact in the cabin of the Mayflower. The colonists of Providence formed theirs on the banks of the Mooshausick. 'We, whose names are hereunder,' it reads, 'desirous to inhabit in the town of Providence, do promise to subject ourselves in active or passive obedience to all such orders or agreements as shall be made for public good for the body, in an orderly way, by the major assent of the present inhabitants, masters of families, incorporated together into a town fellowship, and such others as they shall admit unto them only in civil things.' Never before, since the establishment of Christianity, has the separation of Church from State been definitely marked out by this limitation of the authority of the magistrate to civil things; and

never, perhaps, in the whole course of history, was a fundamental principle so vigorously observed. Massachusetts looked upon the experiment with jealousy and distrust, and when ignorant or restless men confounded the right of individual opinion in religious matters with a right of independent action in civil matters, those who had condemned Roger Williams to banishment, eagerly proclaimed that no well ordered government could exist in connection with liberty of conscience. . . . Questions of jurisdiction also arose. Massachusetts could not bring herself to look upon her sister with a friendly eye, and Plymouth was soon to be merged in Massachusetts. It was easy to foresee that there would be bickerings and jealousies, if not open contention between them. Still the little Colony grew apace. The first church was founded in 1639. To meet the wants of an increased population the government was changed, and five disposers or selectmen charged with the principal functions of administration, subject, however, to the superior authority of monthly town meetings; so early and so naturally did municipal institutions take root in English colonies. A vital point was yet untouched. Williams, indeed, held that the Indians, as original occupants of the soil, were the only legal owners of it, and carrying his principle into all his dealings with the natives, bought of them the land on which he planted his Colony. The Plymouth and Massachusetts colonists, also, bought their land of the natives, but in their intercourse with the whites founded their claim upon royal charter. They even went so far as to apply for a charter covering all the territory of the new Colony. Meanwhile two other colonies had been planted on the shores of the Narragansett Bay: the Colony of Aquidnick, on the Island of Rhode Island, and the colony of Warwick. The sense of a common danger united them, and, in 1643, they appointed Roger Williams their agent to repair to England and apply for a royal charter. It has been treasured up as a bitter memory that he was compelled to seek a conveyance in New York, for Massachusetts would not allow him to pass through her territories. His negotiations were crowned with full success. . . . He found the King at open war with the Parliament, and the administration of the colonies entrusted to the Earl of Warwick and a joint committee of the two Houses. Of the details of the negotiation little is known, but on the 14th of March of the following year [1644], a 'free and absolute charter was granted as the Incorporation of Providence Plantations in Narragansett Bay in New England.' . . . Civil government and civil laws were the only government and laws which it recognized; and the absence of any allusion to religious freedom in it shows how firmly and wisely Williams avoided every form of expression which might seem to recognize the power to grant or to deny that inalienable right. . . . Yet more than three years were allowed to pass before it went into full force as a bond of union for the four towns. Then, in May, 1647, the corporators met at Portsmouth in General Court of Election, and, accepting the charter, proceeded to organize a government in harmony with its provisions. Warwick, although not named in the charter, was admitted to the same privileges with her larger and more flourishing sisters. This new government was in reality a government of the people, to whose final decision in their General Assembly all questions were submitted. 'And now,' says the preamble to the code, . . . 'it is agreed by this present Assembly thus incorporated and by this present act declared, that the form of government

established in Providence Plantations is Democratical.'—G. W. Greene, *Short history of Rhode Island*, ch. 3, 5.—'The form of government being settled, they now prepared such laws as were necessary to enforce the due administration of it; but the popular approbation their laws must receive, before they were valid, made this a work of time; however, they were so industrious in it, that in the month of May, 1647, they completed a regular body of laws, taken chiefly from the laws of England, adding a very few of their own forming, which the circumstances and exigencies of their present condition required. These laws, for securing of right, for determining controversies, for preserving order, suppressing vice, and punishing offenders, were, at least, equal to the laws of any of the neighbouring colonies; and infinitely exceeded those of all other Christian countries at that time in this particular,—that they left the conscience free, and did not punish men for worshipping God in the way, they were persuaded, he required. . . . It was often objected to Mr. Williams, that such great liberty in religious matters, tended to licentiousness, and every kind of disorder: To such objections I will give the answer he himself made, in his own words [Letter to the Town of Providence, January, 1654-5]. 'Loving Friends and Neighbours, It pleaseth God yet to continue this great liberty of our town meetings, for which, we ought to be humbly thankful, and to improve these liberties to the praise of the Giver, and to the peace and welfare of the town and colony, without our own private ends. I thought it my duty, to present you with this my impartial testimony, and answer to a paper sent you the other day from my brother,—"That it is blood-guiltiness, and against the rule of the gospel, to execute judgment upon transgressors, against the private or public weal." That ever I should speak or write a title that tends to such an infinite liberty of conscience, is a mistake; and which I have ever disclaimed and abhorred. To prevent such mistakes, I at present shall only propose this case.—There goes many a ship to sea, with many a hundred souls in one ship, whose weal and wo is common; and is a true picture of a commonwealth, or an human combination, or society. It hath fallen out sometimes, that both Papists and Protestants, Jews and Turks, may be embarked into one ship. Upon which supposal, I do affirm, that all the liberty of conscience that ever I pleaded for, turns upon these two hinges, that none of the Papists, Protestants, Jews, or Turks, be forced to come to the ship's prayers or worship; nor, secondly, compelled from their own particular prayers or worship, if they practise any. I further add, that I never denied that, notwithstanding this liberty, the commander of the ship ought to command the ship's course; yea, and also to command that justice, peace, and sobriety, be kept and practised, both among the seamen and all the passengers. If any seamen refuse to perform their service, or passengers to pay their freight;—if any refuse to help in person or purse, towards the common charges, or defence;—if any refuse to obey the common laws and orders of the ship, concerning their common peace and preservation;—if any shall mutiny and rise up against their commanders, and officers;—if any shall preach or write, that there ought to be no commanders, nor officers, because all are equal in Christ, therefore no masters, nor officers, no laws, nor orders, no corrections nor punishments—I say I never denied, but in such cases, whatever is pretended, the commander or commanders may judge, resist, compel, and punish such transgressors, according to

their deserts and merits. This, if seriously and honestly minded, may, if it so please the Father of lights, let in some light, to such as willingly shut not their eyes. I remain, studious of our common peace and liberty,—Roger Williams.' This religious liberty was not only asserted in words, but uniformly adhered to and practised; for in the year 1656, soon after the Quakers made their first appearance in New England, and at which most of these colonies were greatly alarmed and offended: Those at that time called the four united colonies, which were the Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, wrote to this colony, to join with them in taking effectual methods to suppress them, and prevent their pernicious doctrines being spread and propagated in the country.—To this request the Assembly of this colony gave the following worthy answer: 'We shall strictly adhere to the foundation principle on which this colony was first settled; to wit, that every man who submits peaceably to the civil authority, may peaceably worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, without molestation.' And not to the people of the neighbouring governments only, was this principle owned; but it was asserted in their applications to the ruling powers in the mother country; for in the year 1659, in an address of this colony to Richard Cromwell, then lord protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland, there is this paragraph,—'May it please your highness to know, that this poor colony of Providence Plantations, mostly consists of a birth and breeding of the providence of the Most High.—We being an outcast people, formerly from our mother nation, in the bishops' days; and since from the rest of the New English over-zealous colonies: Our frame being much like the present frame and constitution of our dearest mother England; bearing with the several judgments, and consciences, each of other, in all the towns of our colony.—The which our neighbour colonies do not; which is the only cause of their great offence against us.' But as every human felicity has some attendant misfortune, so the people's enjoyment of very great liberty, hath ever been found to produce some disorders, factions, and parties amongst them. . . . It must be confessed, the historians and ministers of the neighbouring colonies, in all their writings for a long time, represented the inhabitants of this colony as a company of people who lived without any order, and quite regardless of all religion; and this, principally, because they allowed an unlimited liberty of conscience, which was then interpreted to be profane licentiousness, as though religion could not subsist without the support of human laws, and Christians must cease to be so, if they suffered any of different sentiments to live in the same country with them. Nor is it to be wondered at, if many among them that first came hither, being tintured with the same bitter spirit, should create much disturbance; nor that others, when got clear of the fear of censure and punishment should relax too much, and behave as though they were become indifferent about religion itself. With people of both these characters, the fathers of this colony had to contend. . . . In this age it seemed to be doubted whether a civil government could be kept up and supported without some particular mode of religion was established by its laws, and guarded by penalties and tests: And for determining this doubt, by an actual trial, appears to have been the principal motive with King Charles the Second, for granting free liberty of conscience to the people of this colony, by his charter of 1663,—in which he makes use of these words: 'That they

might hold forth a lively experiment, that a most flourishing civil state may stand, and best be maintained, and that amongst our English subjects, with a full liberty in religious concerns. And that true piety, rightly grounded on gospel principles, will give the best and greatest security to sovereignty, and will lay in the hearts of men the strongest obligations to true loyalty.'—S. Hopkins, *Historical account of the planting and growth of Providence (Massachusetts Historical Society Collections, 2nd series, v. 9).*

ALSO IN: S. G. Arnold, *History of Rhode Island, v. 1, ch. 4.—Records of the Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, v. 1.*

1639.—Religious tenets of first settlers.—First Baptist church.—'There can be little doubt, as to what were the religious tenets of the first settlers of Providence. At the time of their removal here, they were members of Plymouth and Massachusetts churches. Those churches, as it respects government, were Independent or Congregational, in doctrine, moderately Calvinistic and with regard to ceremonies, Pedobaptists. The settlers of Providence, did not cease to be members of those churches, by their removal, nor did the fact of their being members, constitute them a church after it. They could not form themselves into a church of the faith and order of the Plymouth and Massachusetts churches, until dismissed from them; and after such dismissal, some covenant or agreement among themselves was necessary in order to effect it. That they met for public worship is beyond a doubt; but such meetings, though frequent and regular, would not make them a church. Among the first thirteen, were two ordained ministers, Roger Williams and Thomas James. That they preached to the settlers is quite probable, but there is no evidence of any intent to form a church, previous to March 1639. When they did attempt it, they had ceased to be Pedobaptists, for Ezekiel Holyman, a layman, had baptized Roger Williams, by immersion, and Mr. Williams afterwards had baptized Mr. Holyman and several others of the company, in the same manner. By this act they disowned the churches of which they had been members, and for this, they were soon excommunicated, by those churches. After being thus baptized, they formed a church and called Mr. Williams to be their pastor. This was the first church gathered in Providence. . . . Mr. Williams held the pastoral office about four years, and then resigned the same. Mr. Holyman was his colleague. . . . A letter of Richard Scott, appended to 'A New England Fire-Brand Quenched,' and published about 1673, states that Mr. Williams left the Baptists and turned Seeker, a few months after he was baptized. Mr. Scott was a member of the Baptist church for some time, but at the date of this letter, had united with the Friends. According to Mr. Williams' new views as a Seeker, there was no regularly constituted church on earth, nor any person authorized to administer any church ordinance, nor could there be, until new apostles should be sent by the Great Head of the church, for whose coming he was seeking. He was not alone in these opinions. Many in his day believed that the ministry and ordinances of the christian church were irretrievably lost, during the papal usurpation. It has been supposed, by some, that Mr. Williams held these opinions while in Massachusetts, and that this was the reason he denied the church of England to be a true church, and withdrew from his connexion with the Salem church. Aside from the statement of Mr. Scott, above quoted, that Mr. Williams turned Seeker, after he joined the Baptists and walked with them

some months, the supposition is shown to be groundless, by his administering baptism in Providence, as before stated, and joining with the first Baptist church there. These acts he could not have performed, had he then been a Seeker."—W. R. Staples, *Annals of the town of Providence*, ch. 7.

1641-1647.—Samuel Gorton.—Warwick Plantation.—First charter.—"Among the supporters of Mrs. Hutchinson, after her arrival at Aquedneck, was a sincere and courageous, but incoherent and crotchety man named Samuel Gorton. In the denunciatory language of that day he was called a 'proud and pestilent seducer,' or, as the modern newspaper would say, a 'crank.' It is well to make due allowances for the prejudice so conspicuous in the accounts given by his enemies, who felt obliged to justify their harsh treatment of him. But we have also his own writings from which to form an opinion as to his character and views. . . . Himself a London clothier, and thanking God that he had not been brought up in 'the schools of human learning,' he set up as a preacher without ordination, and styled himself 'professor of the mysteries of Christ.' He seems to have cherished that doctrine of private inspiration which the Puritans especially abhorred. . . . Gorton's temperament was such as to keep him always in an atmosphere of strife. Other heresiarchs suffered persecution in Massachusetts, but Gorton was in hot water everywhere. His arrival in any community was the signal for an immediate disturbance of the peace. His troubles began in Plymouth, where the wife of the pastor preferred his teachings to those of her husband. In 1638 he fled to Aquedneck, where his first achievement was a schism among Mrs. Hutchinson's followers, which ended in some staying to found the town of Portsmouth while others went away to found Newport. Presently Portsmouth found him intolerable, flogged and banished him, and after his departure was able to make up its quarrel with Newport. He next made his way with a few followers to Pawtuxet, within the jurisdiction of Providence, and now it is the broad-minded and gentle Roger Williams who complains of his 'bewitching and madding poor Providence.' . . . Williams disapproved of Gorton, but was true to his principles of toleration and would not take part in any attempt to silence him. But in 1641 we find thirteen leading citizens of Providence, headed by William Arnold, sending a memorial to Boston, asking for assistance and counsel in regard to this disturber of the peace. How was Massachusetts to treat such an appeal? She could not presume to meddle with the affair unless she could have permanent jurisdiction over Pawtuxet; otherwise she was a mere intruder. . . . Whatever might be the abstract merits of Gorton's opinions, his conduct was politically dangerous; and accordingly the jurisdiction over Pawtuxet was formally conceded to Massachusetts. Thereupon that colony, assuming jurisdiction, summoned Gorton and his men to Boston, to prove their title to the lands they occupied. They of course regarded the summons as a flagrant usurpation of authority, and instead of obeying it they withdrew to Shawomet [Warwick], on the western shore of Narragansett bay, where they bought a tract of land from the principal sachem of the Narragansetts, Miantonomi."—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, pp. 163-168.—"Soon afterward, by the surrender to Massachusetts of a subordinate Indian chief, who claimed the territory . . . purchased by Gorton of Miantonomi [or Miantonomo], that Government made a demand of jurisdiction there also; and as

Gorton refused their summons to appear at Boston, Massachusetts sent soldiers, and captured the inhabitants in their homes, took them to Boston, tried them, and sentenced the greater part of them to imprisonment for blasphemous language to the Massachusetts authorities. They were finally liberated, and banished; and as Warwick was included in the forbidden territory, they went to Rhode Island. Gorton and two of his friends soon afterward went to England." Subsequently, when, in 1647, the government of Providence Plantations was organized under the charter which Roger Williams had procured in England in 1644 in the form of a patent from the Long Parliament, "Warwick, whither Gorton and his followers had now returned, though not named in the charter, was admitted to its privileges."—C. Deane, *New England (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 3, ch. 9)*.

1647-1776.—Religious liberty in the colony.—Statutes affecting Roman Catholics.—Position of Jews.—Roger Williams' ideal of religious liberty was fully lived up for close upon a century. But "in 1745 there was printed a revision or compilation of all the laws of the colony since its first charter, which was called the 'Revision of 1745.' This makes reference to a law said to have been passed in 1663-64 to the effect, that 'all men professing Christianity, and of competent estates and civil conversation (Roman Catholics excepted), shall be admitted freemen, or may choose or be chosen colonial officers.' This . . . is referred to by Chalmers, an English author, in his 'Political Annals,' London (1780). Judge Samuel Eddy, . . . who was Secretary of State in Rhode Island from 1797 to 1819, and had all the records at command, says that he carefully investigated all the laws of the colony from the first Charter (1643-44) to 1719, and that 'there is not a word on record of the act, referred to by Chalmers' and contained in the 'Revision of 1745' prior to that year. . . . [W. M. West, in 'American Democracy,' p. 131, states that this disfranchising act was passed in 1719.] The following appears as the law in 1798: 'Whereas a principal object of our venerable ancestors, in their migration to this country and settlement in this State, was, as they expressed it, to hold forth a lively experiment, that a most flourishing civil State may stand and be best maintained with a full liberty in religious concerns: Be it therefore enacted by the General Assembly, and by the authority thereof it is enacted, that no man shall be compelled, nor shall he be enforced, restrained or burdened in his body or goods, nor shall otherwise suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief, but that all men shall be free to profess and by argument to maintain their opinions in matters of religion, and that the same shall in nowise diminish, enlarge or affect their civil capacities.' This whole legal presentation is found in Robert Walsh's 'Appeal,' an octavo, published in Philadelphia, 1819, pp. 429-435. Religious liberty for Jews in Rhode Island must be referred to here. At the opening of the seventeenth century, Holland was the only country where they enjoyed this blessing. Their largest European congregation was in Amsterdam, also their Talmud Tora, or school for Hebrew youth. Leonard Busher made the first plea for their liberty in England, in 1614, saying: 'The king and Parliament may please to permit all Christians, yea, Jews, Turks and pagans, so long as they are peaceable and no malefactors.' A second plea was made by Roger Williams, in three passages of his 'Bloody Tenet,' published in London, 1644,

one of which reads thus, and the others are of the same tenor: 'It is the will and command of God, that since the coming of his Son, the Lord Jesus, a permission of the most paganish, Jewish, Turkish or antichristian consciences, and worships, be granted to men in all nations and all countries. That civil States with their officers of justice are not governors or defenders of the spiritual and Christian state and worship.' Drs. Featley, Baillie and others charged him with the most shocking blasphemy for this doctrine, and popular indignation was so savage that his book was burned. . . . The Jews had been driven from England in 1290, and after banishment for 364 years, they petitioned Cromwell and Parliament for permission to return, that they might trade in the realm and follow their religion. What influence Williams's book had exerted in favor of their return does not appear, but about six years after its publication their request was granted, and in 1665 they built their first synagogue in King Street. The General Assembly of Rhode Island decreed, in 1647, three years after . . . [the] publication of the 'Bloody Tenet,' and three years before England permitted Jews to return to the realm, that in this colony, 'all men may walk as their consciences persuade them, every one in the name of his God.' . . . On the same high authority [that of the Jewish Calendar by Rabbi Lyons], we find that the Jewish congregation, *Teshuat Israel*, was openly organized in Newport, Rhode Island, in 1658, under the broad provision of 1647, that 'all men,' in that Colony 'May walk as their consciences persuade them, every one in the name of his God.' Such liberty they had not elsewhere on this globe at that time, Holland not excepted. . . . They labored under . . . [no] restrictions in Rhode Island, but in all . . . respects stood upon a perfect equality with Baptists, Quakers and other religionists, and that congregation has remained undisturbed to this day, . . . and is but fourteen years younger than the first Baptist Church of that city. Arnold says that they did much to build up the commercial interests of Newport. Some of them rose in public favor for their services to the State, and on August 20th, 1750, 'Moses Lopez, of Newport, was excused at his own request from all other civil duties, on account of his gratuitous services to the government in translating Spanish documents.' This indicates that he had done all the civil duties of a freeman up to that time. By the year 1763, the little Jewish congregation at Newport had increased to sixty families, their necessities demanding the erection of a synagogue, which they began to build in 1762, and which their rabbi, Isaac Touro, dedicated to Jehovah in 1763, with 'great pomp and ceremony.' This large increase in their number was due chiefly to the great earthquake of 1755. . . . These [and other] facts entirely disprove the alleged fact that in 1663-1664 Rhode Island passed a law restricting religious liberty to those 'professing Christianity.' Some writers have fallen into singular confusion in treating of this subject, making Roger Williams and Rhode Island identical on the one hand, by holding them responsible for each other's acts, and on the other by confounding the civil and religious liberties of that Colony as if they were one. A noted case cited under this groundless assumption is that of Aaron Lopez and Isaac Elizur. These two Hebrews petitioned the Superior Court of Rhode Island, at its March term, in 1762, for naturalization under an Act of Parliament, and were rejected on the ground, that to naturalize them

would violate the spirit of the charter; that none could be made citizens but Christians; and that the Colony was too full of people already. The last of these reasons throw suspicion on the other two given for the decision. . . . The question before . . . [the court] was a purely civil question, involving only the naturalization of a foreigner, and not his right to religious liberty under the laws of Rhode Island. . . . [Charles Deane states that] Rhode Island has always granted liberty to persons of every religious opinion, but has placed a hedge about the franchise [the Catholic exclusion clause]. . . . Was it not natural for the founders of Rhode Island to keep the government in the hands of its friends, while working out their experiment, rather than to put it into the hands of the enemies of religious liberty? . . . [The] distinction between the civil and religious questions involved here is precisely as clear in the case of the Jews as of the Catholics. 'The decision in the case of Lopez appears to be irregular in every respect. It subverts an Act of Parliament, violates the spirit of the charter, enunciates principles never acted upon in the Colony, and finally dismisses the case on a false issue. . . . The reasons assigned for the rejection, in the decree above given, were false. . . . If that had been the fundamental law from the beginning, no one could have been admitted a freeman who was not a Christian; but Jews were admitted to freemanship again and again by the Assembly. . . . The charter of Rhode Island guaranteed, and the action of the Colony uniformly secured, to all people perfect religious freedom. It did not confer civil privileges as a part of that right upon any one, such only were entitled to those whom the freemen saw fit to admit.'—T. Armitage, *History of the Baptists*, pp. 650-656.—See also *Jews: United States: 17th-18th centuries*.

1651-1652.—Coddington's usurpation.—Second mission of Roger Williams to England.—Restoration of the charter.—First enactment against slavery.—In 1651, William Coddington, who had been chosen president some time before, but who had gone to England without legally entering the office, succeeded by some means in obtaining from the Council of State a commission which appointed him governor of Rhode Island and Connecticut for life, with a council of six to assist him in the government. This apparently annulled the charter of the colony. Again the colony appealed to Roger Williams to plead its cause in England and again he crossed the ocean, "obtaining a hard-wrung leave to embark at Boston. . . . In the same ship went John Clarke, as agent for the Island towns, to ask for the revocation of Coddington's commission. On the success of their application hung the fate of the Colony. Meanwhile the Island towns submitted silently to Coddington's usurpation, and the main-land towns continued to govern themselves by their old laws, and meet and deliberate as they had done before in their General Assembly. It was in the midst of these dangers and dissensions that on the 19th of May, in the session of 1652, it was 'enacted and ordered . . . that no black mankind or white being forced by covenant, bond or otherwise shall be held to service longer than ten years,' and that 'that man that will not let them go free, or shall sell them any else where to that end that they may be enslaved to others for a longer time, he or they shall forfeit to the Colonie forty pounds.' This was the first legislation concerning slavery on this continent. If forty pounds should seem

a small penalty, let us remember that the price of a slave was but twenty. If it should be objected that the act was imperfectly enforced, let us remember how honorable a thing it is to have been the first to solemnly recognize a great principle. Soul liberty had borne her first fruits. . . . Welcome tidings came in September, and still more welcome in October. Williams and Clarke . . . had obtained, first, permission for the colony to act under the charter until the final decision of the controversy, and a few weeks later the revocation of Coddington's commission. The charter was fully restored."—G. W. Greene, *Short history of Rhode Island*, ch. 6.

1656.—Refusal to join in persecution of Quakers. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1656-1661.

1660-1663.—Charter from Charles II, and boundary conflicts with Connecticut.—"At its first meeting after the King [Charles II] came to enjoy his own again, the government of Rhode Island caused him to be proclaimed, and commissioned Clarke [agent of the colony in England] to prosecute its interests at court, which he accordingly proceeded to do. . . . He was intrusted with his suit about a year before Winthrop's arrival in England; but Winthrop [the younger, who went to England on behalf of Connecticut] had been there several months, attending to his business, before he heard anything of the designs of Clarke. His charter of Connecticut had passed through the preliminary forms, and was awaiting the great seal, when it was arrested in consequence of representations made by the agent from Rhode Island. . . . Winthrop, in his new charter, had used the words 'bounded on the east by the Narragansett River, commonly called Narragansett Bay, where the said river falleth into the sea.' To this identity between Narragansett River and Narragansett Bay Clarke objected, as will be presently explained. A third party was interested in the settlement of the eastern boundary of Connecticut. This was the Atherton Company, so called from Humphrey Atherton of Dorchester, one of the partners. They had bought of the natives a tract of land on the western side of Narragansett Bay; and when they heard that Connecticut was soliciting a charter, they naturally desired that their property should be placed under the government of that colony, rather than under the unstable government of Rhode Island. Winthrop, who was himself one of the associates, wrote from London that the arrangement he had made accorded with their wish. Rhode Island, however, maintained that the lands of the Atherton purchase belonged to her jurisdiction. . . . When Winthrop thought that he had secured for Connecticut a territory extending eastward to Narragansett Bay, Clarke had obtained for Rhode Island the promise of a charter which pushed its boundary westward to the Paucatuck River, so as to include in the latter colony a tract 25 miles wide, and extending in length from the southern border of Massachusetts to the sea. The interference of the charters with each other endangered both. The agents entered into a negotiation which issued, after several months, in a composition effected by the award of four arbiters. Two articles of it were material. One was that Paucatuck River should 'be the certain bounds between the two colonies, which said river should, for the future, be also called, alias, Narragansett, or Narragansett River.' The other allowed the Atherton Company to choose 'to which of these colonies they would belong.' The undesirable consequences of a dispute were thus

averted; though to say that 'Paucatuck River' meant Narragansett Bay was much the same as to give to the Thames the name of the British Channel; and if the agreement between the agents should stand, Connecticut would be sadly curtailed of her domain. [On July 8, 1663], Clarke's charter, which the King probably did not know that he had been contradicting, passed the seals. It created 'a body corporate and politic, in fact and name, by the name of the Governor and Company of the English Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations in New England in America.' Similar to the charter of Connecticut in grants marked by a liberality hitherto unexampled, it added to them the extraordinary provision that 'no person within the said colony, at any time thereafter, should be anywise molested, punished, disquieted, or called in question, for any difference of opinion in matters of religion which did not actually disturb the civil peace of the said colony.' . . . Matters were now all ripe for a conflict of jurisdiction between Rhode Island and Connecticut. Using the privilege of choice secured by the compact between the agents, the Atherton Company elected to place their lands, including a settlement known by the name of Wickford, under the government of the latter colony. Rhode Island enacted that all persons presuming to settle there without her leave should be 'taken and imprisoned for such their contempt.' . . . This proved to be the beginning of a series of provocations and reprisals between the inharmonious neighbors."—J. G. Palfrey, *Compendious history of New England*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: S. S. Rider, *Book notes*, v. 10, pp. 109-110.—S. G. Arnold, *History of Rhode Island*, v. 1, ch. 8.—I. B. Richman, *Rhode Island, its making and meaning*, ch. 12.

1674-1678.—King Philip's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675, to 1676-1678.

1683.—Death of Roger Williams.—Influence on political development of the United States.—Estimates of his character.—Roger Williams having given all to his colony, seems to have died without property, dependent upon his children. His son, Daniel, in a letter written in 1710, says: "He never gave me but about three acres of land, and but a little afore he deceased. It looked hard, that out of so much at his disposing, that I should have so little, and he so little. . . . If a covetous man had that opportunity as he had, most of this town would have been his tenants." "Of the immediate cause and exact time of Mr. Williams' death we are not informed. It is certain, however, that he died at some time between January 16, 1682-3, and May 10, 1683. . . . He was in the 84th year of his age."—J. D. Knowles, *Memoir of Roger Williams*, pp. 111, 354.—"We call those great who have devoted their lives to some noble cause, and have thereby influenced for the better the course of events. Measured by that standard, Roger Williams deserves a high niche in the temple of fame, alongside of the greatest reformers who mark epochs in the world's history. He was not the first to discover the principles of religious liberty, but he was the first to proclaim them in all their plenitude, and to found and build up a political community with those principles as the basis of its organization. The influence and effect of his 'lively experiment' of religious liberty and democratic government upon the political system of our country, and throughout the civilized world, are admirably stated by Professor Gervinus in his 'Intro-

duction to the History of the Nineteenth Century.' He says: 'Roger Williams founded in 1636 a small new society in Rhode Island, upon the principles of entire liberty of conscience, and the uncontrolled power of the majority in secular affairs. The theories of freedom in Church and State, taught in the schools of philosophy in Europe, were here brought into practice in the government of a small community. It was prophesied that the democratic attempts to obtain universal suffrage, a general elective franchise, annual parliaments, entire religious freedom, and the Miltonian right of schism would be of short duration. But these institutions have not only maintained themselves here, but have spread over the whole union. They have superseded the aristocratic commencements of Carolina and of New York, the high-church party in Virginia, the theocracy in Massachusetts, and the monarchy throughout America; they have given laws to one quarter of the globe, and, dreaded for their moral influence, they stand in the back-ground of every democratic struggle in Europe.'—O. S. Straus, *Roger Williams*, p. 233. —"Roger Williams, as all know, was the prophet of complete religious toleration in America. . . . That as a man he was 'conscientiously contentious' I should naturally be among the last to deny; most men who contribute materially towards bringing about great changes, religious or moral, are 'conscientiously contentious.' Were they not so they would not accomplish the work they are here to do."—C. F. Adams, *Massachusetts: Its historians and its history*, p. 25.—"The world, having at last nearly caught up with him, seems ready to vote—though with a peculiarly respectable minority in opposition—that Roger Williams was after all a great man, one of the true heroes, seers, world-movers, of these latter ages. Perhaps one explanation of the pleasure which we take in now looking upon him, as he looms up among his contemporaries in New England, may be that the eye of the observer, rather fatigued by the monotony of so vast a throng of sages and saints, all quite immaculate, all equally prim and stiff in their Puritan starch and uniform, all equally automatic and freezing, finds a relief in the easy swing of this man's gait, the limberness of his personal movement, his escape from the pasteboard proprieties, his spontaneity, his impetuosity, his indiscretions, his frank acknowledgments that he really had a few things yet to learn. Somehow, too, though he sorely vexed the souls of the judicious in his time, and evoked from them words of dreadful reprehension, the best of them loved him; for indeed this headstrong, measureless man, with his flashes of Welsh fire, was in the grain of him a noble fellow; 'a man,' as Edward Winslow said, 'lovely in his carriage.' . . . From his early manhood even down to his late old age, Roger Williams stands in New England a mighty and benignant form, always pleading for some magnanimous idea, some tender charity, the rectification of some wrong, the exercise of some sort of forbearance toward men's bodies or souls. It was one of his vexatious peculiarities, that he could do nothing by halves—even in logic. Having established his major and his minor premises, he utterly lacked the accommodating judgment which would have enabled him to stop there and go no further whenever it seemed that the concluding member of his syllogism was likely to annoy the brethren. To this frailty in his organization is due the fact that he often seemed to his contemporaries an impracticable person, presumptuous, turbulent,

even seditious."—M. C. Tyler, *History of American literature*, ch. 9, sect. 4.

1686-1689.—Consolidation of New England under Governor-general Andros. See NEW ENGLAND: 1686; 1686-1689.

1689-1701.—Charter government reinstated and confirmed. See CONNECTICUT: 1689-1701.

1690.—King William's War.—First Colonial Congress. See CANADA: 1689-1690; U.S.A.: 1690. 1719-1776.—Suffrage qualifications and restrictions. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1747.—Founding of Redwood library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Redwood library.

1754.—Colonial Congress at Albany, and Franklin's Plan of Union. See U.S.A.: 1754.

1760-1766.—Question of taxation by Parliament.—Sugar Act.—Stamp Act and its repeal.—Declaratory Act.—Stamp Act Congress. See U.S.A.: 1760-1775; 1763-1764; 1765: Stamp Act; News of the Stamp Act in the colonies; 1766: Repeal of the Stamp Act.

1764.—Founding of Brown University.—Brown University was founded in 1764, especially in the interest of the Baptist church, and with aid from that denomination in other parts of the country. It was placed first at Warren, but soon removed to Providence, where it was named in honor of its chief benefactor, John Brown.—See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1762-1769.

1766-1768.—Townshend measures.—Circular letter of Massachusetts. See U.S.A.: 1766-1767; 1767-1768.

1770-1773.—Repeal of the Townshend duties, except on tea.—Committees of Correspondence instituted. See U.S.A.: 1770: 1772-1773.

1774.—Further introduction of slaves prohibited. See SLAVERY: 1774.

1774 (September-October).—First Continental Congress.—Its work. See U.S.A.: 1774 (September); (September-October).

1775 (May-August).—Second Continental Congress. See U.S.A.: 1775 (May-August).

1775-1783.—War of the American Revolution. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April), to 1783 (September).

1776.—Allegiance to the king renounced.—State independence declared.—British occupation.—"The last Colonial Assembly of Rhode Island met on the 1st of May [1776]. On the 4th, two months before the Congressional Declaration of Independence, it solemnly renounced its allegiance to the British crown, no longer closing its session with 'God save the King,' but taking in its stead as expressive of their new relations, 'God save the United Colonies.' . . . The Declaration of Independence by Congress was received with general satisfaction, and proclaimed with a national salute and military display. At Providence the King's arms were burned, and the Legislature assumed its legal title, 'The State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.' . . . From the 4th of May, 1776, the Declaration of Independence of Rhode Island, to the battle of Tiverton Heights, on the 20th of August, 1778, she lived with the enemy at her door, constantly subject to invasion by land and by water, and seldom giving her watch-worn inhabitants the luxury of a quiet pillow. . . . In November . . . a British fleet took possession of her waters, a British army of her principal island. The seat of government was removed to Providence."—G. W. Greene, *Short history of Rhode Island*, ch. 24-25.—See U.S.A.: 1776 (January-June): King George's war measure, etc.

1776-1784.—Attitude towards western domain. See MARYLAND: 1776-1784.

1777-1781.—Adoption and ratification of Articles of Confederation. See U.S.A.: 1777-1781.

1778.—Failure of attempts to drive the British from Newport. See U.S.A.: 1778 (July-November).

1783-1790.—Conditions after the War of Independence.—Paper money.—Opposition to the Federal constitution.—Tardy entrance into the Union.—Rhode Island emerged from the war of independence bankrupt. "The first question was how to replenish the exhausted treasury. The first answer was that money should be created by the fiat of Rhode Island authorities. Intercourse with others was not much thought of. Fiat money would be good at home. So the paper was issued by order of the Legislature which had been chosen for that purpose. A 'respectable minority' opposed the insane measure, but that did not serve to moderate the insanity. When the credit of the paper began to fall, and traders would not receive it, laws were passed to enforce its reception at par. Fines and punishments were enacted for failure to receive the worthless promises. Starvation stared many in the face. Now it was the agricultural class against the commercial class; and the former party had a large majority in the state and General Assembly. When dealers arranged to secure trade outside the state, that they might not be compelled to handle the local paper currency, it was prohibited by act. When three judges decided that the law compelling men to receive this 'money' was unconstitutional, they were brought before that august General Assembly, and tried and censured for presuming to say that constitutional authority was higher than legislative authority. At last, however, that lesson was learned, and the law was repealed. Before this excitement had subsided the movement for a new national Constitution began. But what did Rhode Island want of a closer bond of union with other states? . . . She feared the 'bondage' of a centralized government. She had fought for the respective liberties of the other colonies, as an assistant in the struggle. She had fought for her own special, individual liberty as a matter of her own interest. Further her needs were comparatively small as to government machinery, and taxation must be small in proportion; and she did not wish to be taxed to support a general government. . . . So when the call was made for each state to hold a convention to elect delegates to a Constitutional Convention, Rhode Island paid not the slightest attention to it. All the other states sent delegates, but Rhode Island sent none; and the work of that convention, grand and glorious as it was, was not shared by her. . . . The same party that favored inflation, or paper money, opposed the Constitution; and that party was in the majority and in power. The General Assembly had been elected with this very thing in view. Meanwhile the loyal party, which was found mostly in the cities and commercial centres, did all in its power to induce the General Assembly to call a convention; but that body persistently refused. Once it suggested a vote of the people in their own precincts; but that method was a failure. As state after state came into the Union, the Union party, by bonfire, parade, and loud demonstration, celebrated the event."—G. L. Harney, *How Rhode Island received the constitution* (*New England Magazine*, May, 1890).—"The country party was in power, and we have seen that elsewhere as well as in Rhode Island, it was the rural population that hated change. The ac-

tion of the other states had been closely watched and their objections noted. One thing strikes a Rhode Islander very peculiarly in regard to the adoption of the federal constitution. The people were not to vote directly upon it, but only second-hand through delegates to a state convention. No amendment to our state constitution, even at this day, can be adopted without a majority of three-fifths of all the votes cast, the voting being directly on the proposition, and a hundred years ago no state was more democratic in its notions than Rhode Island. Although the Philadelphia Convention had provided that the federal constitution should be ratified in the different states by conventions of delegates elected by the people for that purpose, upon the call of the General Assembly, yet this did not accord with the Rhode Island idea, so in February, 1788, the General Assembly voted to submit the question whether the constitution of the United States should be adopted, to the voice of the people to be expressed at the polls on the fourth Monday in March. The federalists fearing they would be outvoted, largely abstained from voting, so the vote stood two hundred and thirty-seven for the constitution, and two thousand seven hundred and eight against it, there being about four thousand voters in the state at that time. Governor Collins, in a letter to the president of Congress written a few days after the vote was taken, gives the feeling then existing in Rhode Island, in this wise:—"Although this state has been singular from her sister states in the mode of collecting the sentiments of the people upon the constitution, it was not done with the least design to give any offence to the respectable body who composed the convention, or a disregard to the recommendation of Congress, but upon pure republican principles, founded upon that basis of all governments originally derived from the body of the people at large. And although, sir, the majority has been so great against adopting the Constitution, yet the people, in general, conceive that it may contain some necessary articles which would well be added and adapted to the present confederation. They are sensible that the present powers invested with Congress are incompetent for the great national government of the Union, and would heartily acquiesce in granting sufficient authority to that body to make, exercise and enforce laws throughout the states, which would tend to regulate commerce and impose duties and excise, whereby Congress might establish funds for discharging the public debt." A majority of the voters of the country was undoubtedly against the constitution, but convention after convention was carried by the superior address and management of its friends. Rhode Island lacked great men, who favored the constitution, to lead her. . . . The requisite number of states having ratified the constitution, a government was formed under it April 30, 1789. . . . [The] General Assembly, at its September session in that year, sent a long letter to Congress explanatory of the situation in Rhode Island. . . . 'The people of this state from its first settlement,' ran the letter, 'have been accustomed and strongly attached to a democratical form of government. They have viewed in the new constitution an approach, though perhaps but small, toward that form of government from which we have lately dissolved our connection at so much hazard and expense of life and treasure,—they have seen with pleasure the administration thereof from the most important trusts downward, com-

mitted to men who have highly merited and in whom the people of the United States place unbounded confidence. Yet, even on this circumstance, in itself so fortunate, they have apprehended danger by way of precedent. Can it be thought strange, then, that with these impressions, they should wait to see the proposed system organized and in operation, to see what further checks and securities would be agreed to and established by way of amendments, before they would adopt it as a constitution of government for themselves and their posterity?' . . . Rhode Island never supposed she could stand alone. In the words of her General Assembly in the letter just referred to:—'They know themselves to be a handful, comparatively viewed.' She, like New Hampshire, Massachusetts, New York, Virginia, and North Carolina, hoped to see the constitution amended. Like the latter state she believed in getting the amendments before ratification, and so strong was the pressure for amendments that at the very first session of Congress a series of amendments was introduced and passed for ratification by the states, and Rhode Island, though the last to adopt the constitution, was the ninth state to ratify the first ten amendments to that instrument now in force; ratifying both constitution and amendments at practically the same time. One can hardly wonder at the pressure for amendments to the original constitution when the amendments have to be resorted to for provisions that Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free use thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the government for a redress of grievances; that excessive bail should not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted; for right of trial by jury in civil cases; and for other highly important provisions."—H. Rogers, *Rhode Island's adoption of the Federal constitution* (Rhode Island Historical Society, 1890).—The convention which finally accepted for Rhode Island and ratified the federal constitution met at South Kingston in March, 1790, then adjourned to meet at Newport in May, and there completed its work. See also U.S.A.: 1787-1789.

1810-1860.—Agricultural revolution. See U.S.A.: 1810-1860.

1814.—Hartford Convention. See U.S.A.: 1814 (December): Hartford Convention.

1819-1888.—Struggle for democratic constitution.—Inequalities in suffrage provisions.—Property qualification.—Discrimination against foreigners.—Final achievement of democratic government.—'The adoption [in 1888] of the Amendment to the Constitution of Rhode Island . . . relating to the elective franchise, . . . [brought] to a close a political struggle which began in earnest in 1819. [So great a political change did this amendment make that it is well] . . . to note briefly some of the steps by which the change came to pass. . . . The qualifications of electors was not defined by the charter. That power was given to the General Assembly. A property qualification was first introduced into the laws of 1665, and . . . [even under the law of 1888] in part retained. It was not at first specified to be land, but men of competent estates, without regard to the species of property, 'may be admitted to be freemen.' Even so accurate a scholar as the late Judge Potter, has erred in his statement of the case. He says that by the act of March, 1663-4,

all persons were required to be of 'competent estate.' This is not correct. The proposition was made two years subsequent to the establishment of the charter, and was made by the King of England, and sent by him by commissioners to Rhode Island and was then adopted and enacted by the General Assembly. . . . This qualification was made to depend only on land, by the act of the General Assembly of February 1723-4, and was a purely Rhode Island measure (Digest. of R.I., 1730, p. 110). From that time until the present, . . . this qualification has in some measure remained. The value was then (in 1723) fixed at £100, and practically, it was never changed. It was raised or lowered from time to time to meet the fluctuation of paper money. Sometimes it was in 'old tenor' and sometimes in 'lawful money,' both of which were in paper, and reckoned usually in pounds, shillings and pence. In 1760, the amount was £40 lawful money. In 1763 'lawful money' was defined to be gold or silver. After the decimal system came into use, the mode of reckoning was changed into dollars. Thus in £40 are 800 shillings, which at six shillings to the dollar, which was then New England currency, is equal to \$133.33; by the law of 1798 the sum was made \$134, and so . . . under the recent amendment [of 1888] it remains as a qualification of an elector, who can vote on a question of expenditure, or the levying of a tax. . . . There was practically no change in the qualifications required of a man to become an elector from the earliest times down to 1842. In 1819 a serious attempt was made to obtain a constitution. A convention was called and a constitution was framed and submitted to the people, that is, to the Freemen, for adoption; but the General Assembly enacted that a majority of three-fifths should be required for its adoption. . . . It did not enlarge the suffrage; a proposition to that end received only 3 votes against 61, nor was it of any general benefit, and it was as well that it failed. The political disabilities of men were confined to two classes, to wit: The second son, and other younger sons of freemen, and those other native American citizens of other states who had removed into Rhode Island, and therein acquired a residence. To these two classes, although possessed of abundant personal property, and upon which the state levied and collected taxes, and from whom the state exacted military service, the right to vote was denied, because among their possessions there was no land. It was taxation without representation, the very principle upon which the Revolution had been fought. In 1828 more than one-half the taxes paid in Providence were paid by men who could not vote upon any question. In 1830, in North Providence, there were 200 freemen and 579 native men, over twenty-one years, who were disfranchised. . . . There were in 1832 five men in Pawtucket who had fought the battles for Rhode Island through the Revolution, but who, possessing no land, had never been able to vote upon any question. . . . In another respect a great wrong was done. It was in the representation of the towns in the General Assembly. Jamestown had a representative for every eighteen freemen. Providence, one to every 275. Smithfield, one in every 206. Fifty dollars in taxes, in Barrington, had the same power in the representation that \$750 had in Providence. The minority of legal voters actually controlled the majority. . . . Such then was the political condition of men in Rhode Island in 1830. There were about 8,000 Freemen and

about 13,000 unenfranchised Americans with comparatively no naturalized foreigners among them. The agitation of the question did not cease. In 1829 it was so violent that the General Assembly referred the question to a committee, of which Benjamin Hazard was the head, and which committee made a report, always since known as Hazard's Report, which it was supposed would quiet forever the agitation. But it did not; for five years later a convention was called and a portion of a constitution framed. The question of foreigners was first seriously raised by Mr. Hazard in this report. By this term Mr. Hazard intended not only citizens of countries outside of the United States, but he intended American citizens of other American States. He would deny political rights to a man born in Massachusetts, who came to dwell in Rhode Island, in the same way that he would deny them to a Spaniard. A Massachusetts man must live here one year, the Spaniard three, but both must own land. These ideas were formulated in the constitution of 1834 as far as it went. . . . Fortunately it fell through and by the most disgraceful of actions; and its history when written will form one of the darkest chapters in Rhode Island history. This discrimination against foreign born citizens, that is, men born in countries outside of the United States, became more pointed in the proposed Landholders' Constitution of November 1841. A native of the United States could vote on a land qualification, or if he paid taxes upon other species of property. A foreigner must own land and he could not vote otherwise. This Constitution was defeated. Then came the People's Constitution, (otherwise known as the Dorr Constitution). It made no restrictions upon foreigners; it admitted all citizens of the United States upon an equal footing; negroes were excluded in both documents. This Constitution never went into effect. Then came the . . . Constitution, adopted in September, 1842, by which all the disabilities complained of were swept away with the exception of the discrimination in the case of foreigners. By it negroes were admitted, but foreigners were required to hold lands, as all the various propositions had provided with the single exception of the People's Constitution. Now comes the amendment . . . [of 1888 (see below: 1887-1893)], and parallel with it . . . [is] reproduced the section relating to the same matter from the People's Constitution:

"Qualification of Electors under Amendment (Bourn) to Constitution, adopted April, 1888.	"Qualification of Electors under the People's (Dorr) Constitution, 1842.
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"Section 1. Every male citizen of the United States of the age of 21 years, who has had his residence and home in this State for two years, and in the town or city in which he may offer to vote six months next preceding the time of his voting, and whose name shall be registered in the town or city where he resides on or before the last day of Dec., in the year next preceding to

"Section 1. Every white male citizen of the United States of the age of twenty-one years, who has resided in this State for one year, and in any town, city or district of the same for six months next preceding the election at which he offers to vote, shall be an elector of all officers, who are elected, or may hereafter be made eligible by the people * *

"Sec. 4. No elector

the time of his voting, shall have a right to vote in the election of all civil officers and on all question in all legally organized town or ward meetings: Provided, that no person shall at any time be allowed to vote in the election of the City Council or any city, or upon any proposition to impose a tax, or for the expenditure of money in any town or city, unless he shall within the year next preceding have paid a tax assessed upon his property therein, valued at least at one hundred and thirty-four dollars.

who is not possessed of, and assessed for ratable property in his own right to the amount of one hundred and fifty dollars, or, who shall have neglected, or refused to pay any tax assessed upon him in any town or city or district, for one year preceding the * * meeting at which he shall offer to vote, shall be entitled to vote on any question of taxation, or the expenditure of any public moneys * *

"Sec. 7. There shall be a strict registration of all qualified voters * * * and no person shall be permitted to vote whose name has not been entered upon the list of voters before the polls are opened.

"It thus appears that the people of Rhode Island . . . at last adopted an amendment to the Constitution, more liberal in its qualifications of electors, than the terms asked by Mr. Dorr, in 1842. . . . All that was asked by Mr. Dorr, and even by those of his party, more radical than himself . . . [was] granted, and even more. And yet they were denounced with every species of vile epithet as Free Suffrage Men."—S. S. Rider, *End of a great political struggle in Rhode Island* (Book notes, v. 5, pp. 53-57).—See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1800-1864.

1840.—Child labor law.—Its failure. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1813-1871.

1841.—Judicial contest between Rhode Island and Massachusetts on boundary question.—Case for Rhode Island.—Decision against Rhode Island.—In 1841 the Supreme Court of the United States settled a boundary dispute with Massachusetts which had already endured for more than a century. "The case . . . made by the bill, and to be now taken as true, is substantially this: The charter boundary between these colonies was three miles south of Charles River; and the parties intending to mark a line in that place, marked it by mistake, four miles further south, encroaching so much on the territory of Rhode Island; and the complainant [Rhode Island] was led into this mistake by confiding in the representations of the commissioners of the defendant. And as soon as the error was discovered, she made claim to the true line and has ever since contended for it. . . . This dispute is between two sovereign and independent states. It originated in the infancy of their history, when the question in contest was of little importance. And fortunately steps were taken to settle it, in a mode honorable and just, and one most likely to lead to a satisfactory result. In 1754, William Murray, then attorney-general, afterwards Lord Mansfield, was consulted by Connecticut, whether the agreement with Massachusetts respecting their common boundary, in 1713, would be set aside by a commission appointed by the crown. To which Mr. Murray replied,—'I am of opinion, that, in settling the above-mentioned boundary, the crown will not disturb

the settlement by the two provinces so long ago as 1713. I apprehend his Majesty will confirm their agreement, which of itself is not binding on the crown, but neither province should be suffered to litigate such an amicable compromise of doubtful boundaries.' . . . If the matter was open, the same construction already made in the case of Merrimac River must be put upon the same words in the same charter applied to Charles River. . . . From the settlement referred to up to that time this opinion was given by Mr. Murray, forty-one years only had elapsed. And if that time was sufficient to protect that agreement, with how much greater force does the principle apply to the agreements under consideration, which are protected by the lapse of more than a century and a quarter. More than two centuries have passed since Massachusetts claimed and took possession of the territory up to the line established by Woodward and Saffrey. This possession has ever since been steadily maintained, under an assertion of right. It would be difficult to disturb a claim thus sanctioned by time, however unfounded it might have been in its origin. Forty years elapsed before a mistake was alleged, and since such allegation was made nearly a century has transpired. If in the agreements there was a departure from the strict construction of the charter, the commissioners of Rhode Island acted within their powers, for they were authorized 'to agree and settle the line between the said colonies in the best manner they can, as near agreeable to the royal charter as in honor they can compromise the same.' Under this authority, can the complainant insist on setting aside the agreements, because the words of the charter were not strictly observed? It is not clear that the calls of the charter were deviated from by establishing the station of Woodward and Saffrey. . . . The State of Rhode Island, in pursuing this matter, has acted in good faith and under a conviction of right. Possessing those elements, in an eminent degree, which constitute moral and intellectual power, it has perseveringly and ably submitted its case for final decision. [Judgment was given in favor of Massachusetts.]"—J. B. Scott, *Judicial settlement of controversies between states of American Union*, v. 1, p. 873.—See also SUPREME COURT: 1835-1864.

1841-1843.—Dorr rebellion.—Attempt to force constitutional revision.—Old charter replaced by state constitution.—The old colonial charter of Rhode Island remained unchanged until 1843. Its property qualification of the right of suffrage, and the inequality of representation in the legislature which became more flagrant as the state and its cities increased in population, became causes of great popular discontent. The legislature turned a deaf ear to all demands for a democratic basis of government, and in 1841 a serious attempt was made by a resolute party to initiate and carry through a revision of the constitution independently of legislative action. A convention was held in October of that year which framed a constitution and submitted it to the vote of the people. It was adopted by a majority of the votes cast, and, in accordance with its provisions, an election was held the following April. Thomas Wilson Dorr was chosen governor, and on May 3, 1842, the new government was formally inaugurated by its supporters at Providence, where they were in the majority. "If Mr. Dorr and his officers, supported by the armed men then at their command, had taken possession of the State House, Arsenal and other state property, and acted as if

they had confidence in themselves and their cause, the result might have been different. This was the course desired and advocated by Mr. Dorr, but he was overruled by more timid men, who dared go just far enough to commit themselves, disturb the peace of the state, and provoke the Law and Order government, but not far enough to give themselves a chance of success. While the People's government was being organized in Providence, the regularly elected General Assembly met on the same day at Newport, inaugurated the officers as usual, and passed resolutions declaring that an insurrection existed in the state and calling on the President for aid, which was . . . declined with good advice as to amnesty and concession, which was not heeded. On the following day a member of the People's legislature was arrested under the Algerine law, and this arrest was followed by others, which in turn produced a plentiful crop of resignations from that body. . . . At the request of his legislature, Mr. Dorr now went to Washington and unsuccessfully tried to secure the aid and countenance of President Tyler. . . . During Mr. Dorr's absence, both parties were pushing on military preparations. . . . The excitement at this time was naturally great, though many were still inclined to ridicule the popular fears, and the wildest rumors filled the air." On the 18th, the Dorr party made an attempt to gain possession of the state arsenal, but it failed rather ignominiously, and Dorr himself fled to Connecticut. One more abortive effort was made, by others less sagacious than himself, to rally the supporters of the constitution, in an armed camp, formed at Chepachet; but the party in power confronted it with a much stronger force, and it dispersed without firing a gun. This was the end of the "rebellion." "In June, 1842, while the excitement was still at its height, the General Assembly had called still another convention, which met in September and . . . framed . . . [a new] constitution, making an extension of the suffrage nearly equivalent to that demanded by the suffrage party previous to 1841. [See above: 1819-1888.] In November this constitution was adopted, and in May, 1843, went into effect with a set of officers chosen from the leaders of the Landholders' party, the same men who had always ruled the state. . . . Early in August, Governor Dorr, who had remained beyond the reach of the authorities, against his own will and in deference to the wishes of his friends who still hoped, issued an address explaining and justifying his course and announcing that he should soon return to Rhode Island. Accordingly, on October 31, he returned to Providence, without concealment, and registered himself at the principal hotel. Soon afterwards, he was arrested and committed to jail, without bail, to await trial for treason. . . . The spirit in which this trial was conducted does no credit to the fairness or magnanimity of the court or of the Law and Order party. Under an unusual provision of the act, although all Dorr's acts had been done in Providence County, he was tried in Newport, the most unfriendly county in the state. . . . Every point was ruled against Mr. Dorr, and the charge to the jury, while sound in law, plainly showed the opinion and wishes of the court. It was promptly followed by a verdict of guilty, and on this verdict Mr. Dorr, on June 25, just two years from his joining the camp at Chepachet, was sentenced to imprisonment for life. . . . Declining an offer of liberation if he would take the oath to support the new constitution, Mr. Dorr went

to prison and remained in close confinement until June, 1845, when an act of amnesty was passed, and, he was released. A great concourse greeted him with cheers at the prison gates, and escorted him with music and banners to his father's house, which he had not entered since he began his contest for the establishment of the People's constitution. The newspapers all over the country, which favored his cause, congratulated him and spoke of the event as an act of tardy justice to a martyr in the cause of freedom and popular rights. . . . But Mr. Dorr's active life was over. He had left the prison broken in health and visibly declining to his end. The close confinement, dampness, and bad air had shattered his constitution, and fixed upon him a disease from which he never recovered. He lived nine years longer but in feeble health and much suffering."—C. H. Payne, *Great Dorr War* (*New England Magazine*, June, 1890).

ALSO IN: D. King, *Life and times of Thomas Wilson Dorr*.

1861-1865.—Civil War.—Ease in recruiting.—Governor Sprague's financial aid.—Statistics of military contributions.—"The part that the State of Rhode Island took in the . . . [Civil War] was alike creditable to her citizens and to her public men then in positions of authority. No half-hearted measures were pursued, but a quick response was made to all demands for troops or money. An active patriotism animated the people, which found vent in the rapid equipment of regiment after regiment, until in the end it was found that the state had sent into the field more than her quota of troops. . . . On April 16, the day after the President's proclamation, Governor Sprague issued an order for the organization of the First Regiment of Infantry. This was accomplished so promptly that on April 20 the first detachment left Providence under command of Colonel Ambrose E. Burnside, and the second on April 24, under command of Lieutenant-Colonel Joseph S. Pitman. Great credit is given Governor Sprague for his course during the early days of the war, not only for the energy he displayed in raising and equipping troops, but also for the great financial assistance he furnished at the same time. Much money was needed, and the state was not in a position to provide it immediately. The firm of A. & W. Sprague at once offered to guarantee the payment of all accounts for equipping the troops, and as the credit of this manufacturing house at that time was unlimited, there was no difficulty under such circumstances in organizing regiments and securing all the necessary supplies. Governor William Sprague . . . resigned as Governor to take his seat as senator from Rhode Island in the United States Congress, March 3, 1863, and his unexpired term as Governor was completed by William C. Cozzens, who held the office from March 3 to May. James Y. Smith was then elected and held that office until 1866. . . . During Governor Sprague's term the troops went to the front, while . . . during Governor Smith's incumbency recruiting went on to keep the regiments up to their war footing. . . . A branch of the United States Sanitary Commission was established in Providence, October, 1861, and it did good service in collecting and forwarding medicines and supplies. The Providence Ladies' Volunteer Relief Association made and forwarded garments and clothing, and many of the women of the city were actively engaged in the work of this organization, which accomplished a great deal

of good. In the spring of 1863, this society became known as the Rhode Island Relief Association, and worked as auxiliary to the Sanitary Commission. . . . Rhode Island sent into the field during the . . . [war] 24,042 men. . . . These figures, however, include re-enlistments, and the actual quota has been given as 23,778. . . . The casualties were: 255 killed, 1,265 died of wounds or disease, and 1,249 were wounded."—E. Field, *State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations at the end of the century*, v. 1, pp. 375-379.

1867-1887.—Attempts to amend the state constitution.—Prohibition.—Extension of franchise.—Legislation in regard to Indians.—"Immediately succeeding the period of the . . . [Civil War attempts were] made to extend the elective franchise to naturalized citizens of Rhode Island who were excluded by the constitution of 1843. . . . [See above: 1819-1888.] 'In 1867 and 1868 attempts were made to remove . . . restrictions by framing a new constitution . . . [but] although the house did pass these proposals as amendments to the constitution, the senate rejected them and the attempt failed. During the administration of Seth Padelord, who succeeded Burnside in 1869 and was governor for four years, similar bills were introduced providing for a constitutional convention, but failed of passage. . . . In 1871, the assembly voted to submit to the people the following amendments: That the property qualification clause should be repealed so far as related to foreign-born citizens, that the registry tax should be repealed and that state appropriation for sectarian purposes should be prohibited. These all failed to receive the necessary three-fifths vote of the people, the third amendment alone obtaining even a majority. . . . Governor Howard was succeeded in 1875 by Henry Lippitt, who headed the administration for two years and was followed, in 1877, by Charles C. Van Zandt. Attempts to change certain provisions in the constitution during this period were frequent, although generally unsuccessful. In 1873 a motion to introduce a woman's suffrage amendment failed, as did a conditional motion of a similar nature, championed by Amasa M. Eaton in the following year. . . . Governor Van Zandt, whose administration began in 1877, was succeeded by Alfred H. Littlefield, 1880-'83, Augustus O. Bourn, 1883-'85, and George P. Wetmore, 1885-'87. In this decade the attempts to alter the constitution were chiefly in regard to the introduction of woman's suffrage, the repeal of the registry tax, the prohibition of liquor, and the extension of the franchise to naturalized citizens who served in the Union army or navy during the Civil War. Only the last two propositions met with favor. Liquor legislation had often been a subject of discussion before the assembly. Although a sort of prohibitory law had been tried for a short period, the state had been under some form of license for practically its whole existence. There had been a growing feeling that the license system had not accomplished the best results, and of course absolute lack of any restraint was too dangerous a procedure. . . . With the hope of thus bettering the situation, the legislature, in 1886, voted to submit to the people the following amendment: 'The manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors to be used as a beverage shall be prohibited. The general assembly shall provide by law for carrying this article into effect.' In the April election the people sealed their approval of the new system by a vote of 15,113 to 9,230. But the prohibitory method proved far from satis-

factory. The violation and defiance of the law were general, and cases were rarely pressed. In January, 1889, the assembly voted that the previous prohibitory amendment should be annulled, and in June the people concurred in their opinion by a vote of 28,315 to 9,956. A special session of the legislature was called in July, when a new license law was passed. At the same session of March, 1886, that passed the prohibitory amendment, the following amendment was also passed for the second time and offered to the approval of the people: 'All soldiers and sailors of foreign birth, citizens of the United States, who served in the army or navy of the United States for this state in the late Civil War, and who were honorably discharged from such service, shall have the right to vote on all questions in all legally organized town, district or ward meetings, upon the same conditions and under and subject to the same restrictions as native born citizens.' At the election in April, it was formally approved by the people by a vote of 18,903 to 1,477.

"During this decade, from 1877 to 1887, among the acts passed of some importance was that abolishing tribal authority and tribal relations of the Narragansett Indians. This tribe had been undergoing a gradual process of degeneration, and for many years the annual appropriation for the Indian school had proved of no practical benefit. Accordingly, on March 31, 1880, all distinctive legislation connected with them was repealed, and a few months later the state purchased their tribal lands, which were sold at auction."—E. Field, *State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations at the end of the century*, v. 1, pp. 380-381, 384.

1877-1887.—**Harbor improvements.**—"An important movement, initiated by the harbor commissioners in 1877, was that of improving the harbor facilities in Narragansett Bay and its estuaries. Congress, by 1883, had appropriated \$355,000 for this purpose, and thereafter made such further appropriations as the necessity of the work required. During the process of operations, the channel of the bay, and also of the Providence and Pawtucket rivers was widened and dredged, Newport harbor was deepened, work on the Block Island break-water and harbor was begun, and improvements were made in several of the smaller rivers. This aid given to the facilities for navigation was well placed, and resulted in increased commercial enterprise. Other important measures of this same period were the final adjusting of the two boundary questions—the northern line with Massachusetts in March, 1883, and the western line with Connecticut in May, 1887."—E. Field, *State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations at the end of the century*, v. 1, p. 385.

1887-1893.—**Suffrage amendment to constitution.—Provision for plurality.**—"At the January session in 1887 a motion was successfully introduced, promising the long sought for extension of the suffrage. Senator Bourn of Bristol presented an amendment to the constitution, providing for the substitution of a poll-tax for the registry tax, and the removal of discriminations against naturalized citizens. [See above: 1819-1888.] It again passed both houses at a special November session in 1887, and when submitted to the people on April 4, 1888, it was adopted by a vote of 20,068 to 12,193. A difference of opinion then arose as to the operation of this amendment upon the registry laws mentioned in Chapter VII of the Public Statutes. Upon requisition of the Governor as to the subject, the Supreme Court de-

cided that any provisions in the constitution conflicting with the amendment were annulled and that the present registry laws was fully operative. . . . During the years from 1889 to 1893 the requirements of a majority instead of a plurality vote seemed frequently to defeat the choice of the people in their election of a Governor. In 1887 Governor Wetmore had been defeated for re-election by John W. Davis, the Democratic candidate, who in turn was defeated in 1888 by Royal C. Taft, the Republican candidate. In 1889 the popular vote was considerably increased by the enfranchisement of naturalized citizens under the Bourn amendment, and ex-Governor Davis received a large plurality, but he failing to receive a majority over all, the Republican candidate, Herbert W. Ladd, was elected by the grand committee. Ex-Governor Davis again received a plurality over Governor Ladd in 1890, and failing of a majority was elected by the grand committee. In 1891 he received a plurality again, but the Republicans having a majority in grand committee, ex-Governor Ladd was elected Governor. In 1892 D. Russell Brown and William C. T. Wardwell were the candidates respectively of the Republicans and Democrats, and the former was chosen by the people. The next year Governor Brown's opponent was David S. Baker, who was given a small plurality of the popular vote. Owing to a disagreement of the two houses, one of which was controlled by the Republicans and the other by the Democrats, they did not meet in grand committee, and the old state officials held over. This frequent defeat of the popular will showed that some change was needed. Accordingly a constitutional amendment providing for plurality instead of majority elections was passed and submitted to the people in November, 1893. It was approved by a vote of 26,703 to 3,331."—E. Field, *State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations at the end of the century*, v. 1, pp. 386-387.

1893-1898.—**Judiciary Act.—Factory inspection law.—Improvement of highways.—Part in Spanish-American War.**—"Under the title of 'An act to simplify the duties, equalize the burdens, and increase the efficiency of the Judiciary of the State,' [in 1893] an act was passed altering those chapters of the public laws that related to the judiciary, repealing those measures that were obsolete, and harmonizing conflicting statutes. The most important act of 1894 was the factory inspection law, passed on April 26. This provided for the appointment of two factory inspectors, regulated the employment of child labor, and required better sanitary arrangements in factories. On May 23, 1895, an act was passed for the improvement of state highways. A commission had been appointed in 1892 to inquire into this matter, and upon their report, it was enacted that a state highway commissioner should be appointed whose duty it was to provide for the improvement of highways and to encourage better methods of roadmaking. Provision was also made for the more effective maintenance and repair of highways and bridges. . . . The most important events of the year 1898 were those connected with the war with Spain. At the very beginning of the struggle, the general assembly, on April 21, 1898, appropriated \$150,000 'to defray such military and naval expenses as may be necessary by reason of the existing conditions between the United States and the Kingdom of Spain.' When, on April 23, 1898, President McKinley issued the call for troops, recruiting offices were immediately opened in Providence, Newport,

Pawtucket, Woonsocket and Westerly. Regiments . . . [were] quickly enlisted."—E. Field, *State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations at the end of the century*, v. 1, pp. 388-389.

1900.—Constitutional amendments.—Erection of new state house.—Capital located in Providence.—The propositions for a constitutional convention had received somewhat of a drawback through the opinion rendered by the Supreme Court in 1883, that the constitution could be amended only in the way provided for by the instrument itself. The only feasible method in order to remove objectionable features in the constitution, was for one legislature to submit to the succeeding legislature specific amendments to separate provisions. At the January session of 1900 a series of amendments were introduced abolishing the May session [which sat in Newport] and therefore Newport as a state capital; increasing the pay of assemblymen to five dollars a day, for not more than sixty days in a year; changing the date of the state election from April to November, extending the time for registration of voters to June 30 of each year; and making several minor provisions for the election of general officers. This motion passed both houses at the January session and again at the following May session. In November, 1900, it was submitted to the people, and was accepted by a vote of 24,351 to 11,959. In many ways the most important movement inaugurated toward the close of the century was the building of the new marble State House. . . . In 1890 a committee was finally appointed to consider and report upon the subject. In accordance with the recommendation, a statehouse commission consisting of thirteen men was chosen by the assembly with full powers to select a site and build a new capitol. An enabling act, authorizing the assembly to provide for the issue of \$1,500,000 in statehouse bonds was passed and in November, 1892, was sealed with the popular approval. Additional issues of bonds to the amount of \$800,000 in April, 1898, and \$700,000 in November, 1900, brought the total up to \$3,000,000. Ground was broken for the building on September 16, 1895, when Governor Lippitt removed the first spadeful of earth, and the corner-stone was laid with impressive Masonic ceremonies on October 15, 1896. The assembly held its first session in the new building in January, 1901. The completion of this beautiful marble palace and the creation of Providence as the sole capital city mark an epoch in Rhode Island's history. For the first two centuries of the state's existence, . . . the assembly had been making a circuit of Narragansett Bay in its endeavor to hold legislative sessions. In 1854, the number of capitals was reduced from five to two. Providence and Newport were the two largest towns, and henceforth Rhode Island indulged in the peculiar distinction of having two capitals. But as the manufacturing population in the northern part of the state gradually increased, the business of government centered more in that section and especially in the rapidly growing city of Providence. At the very close of the century, when Providence showed such gains as to have a population nearly five times as large as any other city in the state, the inevitable change came."—E. Field, *State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations at the end of the century*, v. 1, pp. 390, 392.

1909-1922.—Constitutional amendments.—Taxation and workmen's compensation.—Factory laws.—Woman suffrage.—Bond issue.—Part in

World War.—Action on Volstead Act.—In 1909 important constitutional amendments were passed. One of these provided for a needed redistricting of the state, another made the lieutenant-governor presiding officer in the Senate, the third and perhaps most important gave the governor, for the first time, the veto power. In 1912 a tax act was passed providing for a board of tax commissioners and a state tax upon corporations. An employers' liability act was also passed in this year (1912). (See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: United States: 1920.) Factory laws regarding hours of labor for persons under twenty-one were amended, and in 1913 a fifty-four hour week for women and children was established in certain employments. In 1916 a bond issue of \$850,000 for new buildings for the state penal and charitable institutions was passed by referendum. The following year (1917) the board of control and supply and the board of charities and correction were succeeded by a state penal and charitable commission. In 1917 women received the right to vote for presidential electors. Rhode Island furnished 16,861 men for service in the World War or .45% of the whole force. Liberty and Victory Loans were subscribed to the amount of \$209,444,110. On March 13, 1918, Rhode Island refused to ratify the Eighteenth Amendment. In 1920 the state brought suit in the United States Supreme court to test the validity of the Amendment and the Volstead Act but it was dismissed. [See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1919-1920.] A special committee was appointed in 1922 to determine how far the statutes of Rhode Island deny or abridge the political and civil rights of women.

1918-1922.—Textile strikes. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918; 1922: New England textile strike.

See also NEW ENGLAND; AMERICA: Map of King James' grants; U.S.A.: Economic map.

RHODE ISLAND VS. MASSACHUSETTS (1841). See SUPREME COURT: 1835-1864.

RHODES, Cecil John (1853-1902), British colonial statesman and financier. Prime minister of Cape Colony, 1890-1896; entered privy council, 1895.

Founder of British South Africa Company.—Name given to its dominions.—Resignation from board of directors of British South Africa Company. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1884-1894; 1894-1895; 1896 (June); RHODESIA: 1887-1889; CAPITALISM: 19th century: Capital in empire building; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

Connection with Jameson raid.—Resignation of Cape Colony premiership.—Responsibility in Jameson raid.—Testimony before British parliamentary committee.—Report of the committee. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1895-1896; 1896 (July): Investigation, etc.; 1897 (February-July).

Dealing with Matabele revolt. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (March-September).

Project of Cape-to-Cairo railway. See CAPE-TO-CAIRO RAILWAY; RAILROADS: 1895; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Lack of railway and industrial development.

Beleaguered in Kimberly. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-November).

Death.—Policies carried on by Dr. Jameson. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1902-1904.

Will endowing scholarships at Oxford for students in the British colonies and the United States. See RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.

RHODES, James Ford (1848-), American historian. See HISTORY: 32.

RHODES, Colossus of.—"In the elementary works for the instruction of young people, we find frequent mention of the Colossus of Rhodes. The statue is always represented with gigantic limbs, each leg resting on the enormous rocks which face the entrance to the principal port of the Island of Rhodes; and ships in full sail passed easily, it is said, between its legs; for, according to Pliny the ancient, its height was 70 cubits. This Colossus was reckoned among the seven wonders of the world, the six others being, as is well known, the hanging gardens of Babylon, devised by Nitocris, wife of Nebuchadnezzar; the pyramids of Egypt; the statue of Jupiter Olympus; the Mausoleum of Halicarnassus; the temple of Diana at Ephesus; and the Pharos of Alexandria, completely destroyed by an earthquake in 1303. Nowhere has any authority been found for the assertion that the Colossus of Rhodes spanned the entrance to the harbour of the island and admitted the passage of vessels in full sail between its widestretched limbs. . . . The following is the real truth concerning the Colossus." After the abandonment of the siege of Rhodes, in 305, by Demetrius Poliorcetes, "the Rhodians, inspired by a sentiment of piety, and excited by fervent gratitude for so signal a proof of the divine favour, commanded Chares to erect a statue to the honour of their deity [the sun-god Helios]. An inscription explained that the expenses of its construction were defrayed out of the sale of the materials of war left by Demetrius on his retreat from the island of Rhodes. This statue was erected on an open space of ground near the great harbour, and near the spot where the pacha's seraglio now stands; and its fragments, for many years after its destruction, were seen and admired by travellers."—O. Delepierre, *Historical difficulties*, ch. 1.—"The ancient authors have told us little of this great work of Chares, but his was a Herculean task. For twelve . . . years he laboured, and . . . in the year 280 B.C., his task was completed. Section by section the brass had been cast in moulds, and was ready to be raised on its foundation in the harbour. As the monstrous brass legs were erected, the great hollows within were filled with stone masonry, lest the body become top heavy and fall over. Thus the statue grew upward. . . . The height of the Colossus is generally given as seventy cubits, or about one hundred and five feet. . . . Within was a spiral stairway leading to its head, where, if mediæval tradition were true, was a beacon light to guide the ships to the city. No authoritative picture of the statue has survived, and so meagre are the ancient descriptions that every attempt to restore it would be in vain. We only know that it was of brass, and so immense in size, and so beautiful in workmanship, that it won the admiration of the world."—E. J. Banks, *Seven wonders of the ancient world*, pp. 151-163.—In 244 B.C. the Colossus was destroyed by an earthquake and its restoration was forbidden by the oracle at Delphi.

RHODES, Island of: Ancient history.—"The most easterly of the Ægean islands is Rhodes [see *ÆGEAN*], lying twelve miles from the Asia Minor shore, just where Cape Alypo juts into the sea. It is the largest of the Sporades group, yet its length from north-east to south-west is but forty-five miles; its width is half its length; its area . . . 424 square miles. [See *CRUSADES*: Map of Mediterranean lands after 1240.] . . . History has not yet told us the name of the first people who lived upon the island, or when or whence they came, yet we know that Rhodes was inhabited centuries before Homer sang of Troy. Tradition says that

the Telchines, renowned for their skill as metal workers, were the first to settle there. The earliest Rhodian inhabitants of whom history speaks were the Greek colonists from Argos. . . . At the extreme north-eastern end of the island is a large harbour embraced by two of the arms projecting from the mountains. There small bands of colonists had built their homes, but it was not till 408 B.C. that the harbour was selected as the site of the city of Rhodes. Hippodamus, an architect of Miletus, was selected to lay out its plan, and the new capital of the thriving little kingdom soon rivalled the older cities of Greece. . . . The fame of Rhodes aroused the covetousness of her neighbours. Its independence was brief. Successively it became subject to Sparta and to Athens, and to Artemisia of Halicarnassus, who built the wonderful tomb to her husband Mausolus."—E. J. Banks, *Seven wonders of the ancient world*, pp. 156-158.

B. C. 412.—Revolt from Athens. See *GREECE*: B. C. 413-412.

B. C. 378-357.—In the new Athenian confederacy.—Revolt and secession.—Social War. See *ATHENS*: B. C. 378-357.

B. C. 340.—Capture by Persians.—"It is not known when or how Artemisia's troops were driven out: but the fact is certain, for her successor, Idreus, had to seize the place afresh."—C. Torr, *Rhodes in ancient times*, p. 12.

B. C. 332.—Capture by Alexander the Great.—Eighty years after its capture by the Persians the city "fell into the hands of Alexander the Great. But when Alexander died it recovered its freedom. Again at Peace, Rhodes prospered. Once more its merchant ships covered the seas. Alexandria at that time was the great market where the grains of India and Africa were stored, but it was in Rhodian ships that they were distributed throughout the world. Thus was formed a strong bond between the little island and the great Egyptian city."—E. J. Banks, *Seven wonders of the ancient world*, p. 158.

B. C. 304.—Siege by Demetrius.—"When Alexander died, Antigonos, one of his generals, became King of Macedonia. A quarrel arose between Macedonia and King Ptolemy of Egypt, and Antigonos, with his son Demetrius, made war upon the Egyptian King. Then the commerce and the prosperity of little Rhodes were threatened, for if Alexandria fell, there would be no grain for the Rhodian ships to carry. Rhodes, therefore, sent its fleet to the aid of Ptolemy and the Macedonians were driven home. [See *MACEDONIA*: B. C. 310-301.] . . . Demetrius, determined that it should be punished for causing his defeat, laid siege of the city."—E. J. Banks, *Seven wonders of the ancient world*, p. 159.—"Demetrius Poliorcetes landed in the spring of 304 B.C. without opposition and established a camp and a harbour near the great city. His assaults were first mainly directed against the harbours. The city was in grave peril but at last the Rhodian sailors inflicted such damage on the floating siege-engines that attacks by sea were abandoned and with them all hope of starving out the garrison. After this the Rhodian cruisers cut off the invaders supplies, while provisions were thrown into the city by Ptolemy, Cassander and Lysimachos, and reinforcements came from Egypt and Crete. Some months were now spent in building the Helepolis (a movable wooden tower nine stories high) and other engines for the assault by land. With these the walls were breached and decisive action was fought in the very streets of the city. But at the end of a year, Rhodes was still untaken. . . .

Antigonos directed Demetrius to make peace and Ptolemy . . . advised the Rhodians to accept any reasonable terms."—C. Torr, *Rhodes in ancient times*, p. 14.—"The unsuccessful siege of Rhodes, B. C. 305 or 304, by Demetrius, the son of Antigonos, was one of the great events of ancient military history. It showed not only the power but the virtues of this merchant aristocracy. They rebuilt their shattered city with great magnificence. They used the metal of Demetrius's abandoned engines for the famous Colossus. . . . It was doubtless during the same period that Rhodes perfected that system of marine mercantile law which was accepted not only by all Hellenistic states, but acknowledged by the Romans down to the days of the empire. . . . We do not know what the detail of their mercantile system was, except that it was worked by means of an active police squadron, which put down piracy, or confined it to shipping outside their confederacy, and also that their persistent neutrality was only abandoned when their commercial interests were directly attacked. In every war they appear as mediators and peace-makers. There is an allusion in the 'Mercator' of Plautus to young men being sent to learn business there, as they are now sent to Hamburg or Genoa. The wealth and culture of the people, together with the stately plan of their city, gave much incitement and scope to artists in bronze and marble, as well as to painters, and the names of a large number of Rhodian artists have survived on the pedestals of statues long since destroyed. But two famous works—whether originals or copies seems uncertain—still attest the genius of the school, the 'Laocoon,' now in the Vatican, and the 'Toro Farnese.'"—J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's empire*, ch. 20, with footnote.—See also SCULPTURE: Hellenistic.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 59.

B. C. 191.—Alliance with Rome.—War with Antiochus the Great.—Acquisition of territory in Caria and Lycia. See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 224-187; ROME: Republic: B. C. 197-146; 192-189.

B. C. 88.—Besieged by Mithradates.—At the beginning of his first war with the Romans, 88 B. C., Mithradates made a desperate attempt to reduce the city of Rhodes, which was the faithful ally of Rome. But the Rhodians repelled all his assaults, by sea and by land, and he was forced to abandon the siege.—Based on G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 2, ch. 20.—See also MITHRADATIC WARS.

1310.—Conquest and occupation by Knights Hospitallers of St. John. See HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1310.

1480.—Repulse of Turks. See TURKEY: 1451-1481.

1522.—Siege and conquest by Turks.—Surrender and withdrawal of Knights of St. John. See HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1522.

1911-1913.—Captured by Italy.—"On May 4, 1911 [during the Turkish-Italian War] an Italian expeditionary force landed at the Island of Rhodes and overcoming the tenacious resistance of the Turkish garrison entered the city of Rhodes, while the Turks retreated to Psithos in the interior of the island. By the terms of the treaty . . . the Italians engaged to evacuate Rhodes but no steps were taken to carry out this provision. [By 1913] the Italians had established themselves firmly. . . . At Rhodes municipal improvements had been taken vigorously in hand, city lighting and road building had been speedily pushed forward and a good postal service was established."—W. K. Wallace, *Greater Italy*, pp. 130, 133, 137.

RHODES, Isle of. See RHODE ISLAND: 1638-1640.

RHODES, Knights of.—During their occupation of the island, the Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem were commonly called Knights of Rhodes, as they were afterwards called Knights of Malta. See HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM.

RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.—Cecil Rhodes, himself an Oxford man, "conceived the notion of sending representative young men from the British Empire, the United States, and Germany to Oxford University. . . . Mr. Rhodes drew up four wills, in 1877, 1882, 1888, and 1891, which were all inspired by the same central idea—the widening of Anglo-Saxon influence with a view to securing the peace of the world. . . . Sixty-six of the Scholarships provide for all the self-governing Colonies of the Empire and for some others. An annual Scholarship is given to each Province of Canada, each State of Australia, to New Zealand, Newfoundland, Natal, Jamaica, and Bermuda. To Cape Colony he gave four annual Scholarships and to Rhodesia three. He believed that if the young men who are to rule the various parts of the Empire in the next generation, could become familiar with each other in their youth, and by an education together grow into mutual understanding, it would go far to solve the problem of united action when the need should arise. While he aimed at the unification of the British Empire, he firmly believed that he was working for the good of mankind. His vision grew. The great development of the United States struck his imagination. He saw that the Anglo-Saxon element exerted a controlling influence in that country. . . . He thought it was the prime duty of statesmanship in our day to draw the British Empire and the United States into the closest bonds of sympathy and understanding. Therefore he ordered that two Scholarships should be given to each State, but that only one should be filled in any given year. Each Scholarship is good for three years, so this statement means that each State may send a representative to Oxford in each of two successive years, but no qualifying examinations are held and no appointment is made the third year of each triennium. A codicil [provided] for the assignment of five Scholarships annually of 250 pounds each to Germany. The German Scholars [were] appointed by the Emperor. . . . Mr. Rhodes stipulated that in an election to a Scholarship regard should be had to (1) a candidate's literary and scholastic attainments; (2) his fondness for and success in manly outdoor sports; (3) his qualities for manhood, truth, courage, devotion to duty, sympathy for and the protection of the weak, kindness, unselfishness, and fellowship; (4) his exhibition during school days of moral force of character and of instincts to lead and to take an interest in his schoolmates, for those latter attributes will be likely in after life to guide him to esteem the performance of public duties as his highest aim. A man's race or religious opinions weigh neither in favor of nor against any candidate."—L. B. Mitchell, *Rhodes scholarships* (*University of New Mexico Bulletin*, whole no. 73, *Educational Series*, v. 1, no. 8, Mar., 1914, pp. 237, 238-239.—The scholarships were not given during the World War, but were resumed in 1919.

ALSO IN: G. R. Parkin, *Rhodes scholarships*.

RHODESIA: Geographical description.—Area.—Population.—Resources.—Rhodesia is a territory in British South Africa, having an area of about 439,375 square miles. [See AFRICA: Map; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.] It is bounded on the

south by Bechuanaland and the Transvaal, on the east by Portuguese East Africa, Nyasaland and Tanganyika territory and the Congo, and on the west by Portuguese West Africa, the Congo State and Bechuanaland. The Zambesi river divides it into Northern and Southern Rhodesia. In 1921, there were 33,620 Europeans and 770,000 natives in Southern Rhodesia. Rhodesia is essentially a mining country, gold being the principal product, but there is a great deal of stock raising and farming as well. In 1916, there were 17,762 miles of railroads open for traffic. Two great trunk lines join the territory to the southern coast ports and cross the Zambesi at the Victoria Falls, penetrating central Africa, while the other line connects the former with Beira on the East coast. The native population [of Northern and Southern Rhodesia] in 1913 was about 712,780, of whom about 400,000 were living in Reserves; the total area of the Reserves allowing a higher amount for each inhabitant than that obtaining in other parts of South Africa. . . . The Chief Commissioner in Matabeleland reported [1902] that the progress of transition from a well-defined but barbarous social system to one of progressive civilization continued to accelerate, though it was bound to be slow in a country showing so great a disparity between the native and the European population. Firm and patient tutelage was the only way to counteract the disintegrating and degrading tendencies of the first contact with civilization. . . . The local native . . . is by instinct an agriculturist and stock-breeder; and in these directions he has shown a distinct tendency to acquire knowledge with a view to further his own interests. . . . [Therefore] it seemed advisable to increase the responsibilities of the chiefs and also to set on foot native councils with certain powers in regard to local matters. . . . A severe epidemic of influenza in 1918 . . . added to other ills; [but] throughout, the attitude of the natives [was] one of steady confidence in the administration and of an increasing disposition towards education and industrial habits."—H. E. Egerton, *British colonial policy in the XXth century*, pp. 190, 182, 183, 188.—See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Climatic conditions; BAROTSELAND; MATABELELAND.

Early History.—"It is estimated that in Rhodesia there are . . . considerably over five hundred distinct groups of ruins. . . . Of the 114,814 registered gold mines now current (1900) considerably more than half have been pegged on lines of ancient workings."—R. N. Hall and W. G. Neale, *Ancient ruins of Rhodesia*, pp. 17, 56.—These ruins are found between the Zambesi and Limpopo rivers and extend from the coast to at least 27°. Positive archæologic evidence demonstrates that the earliest date which can be assigned to any of the sites explored is the tenth or eleventh century A. D. From the fifteenth century a large part of Rhodesia was ruled by the Mashonas. Modern history starts with the invasion in the early part of the nineteenth century of the Matabele, an offshoot of the Zulu.

1887.—Portuguese claim to Rhodesia.—Protest of British government.—Although the explorations of David Livingstone (1857) had made known the general character of Rhodesia and its great mineral wealth, it was not till 1887 that the country appeared upon the stage of universal history. In that year a map was submitted to the Portuguese Cortes, showing the territories claimed by Portugal in Africa. Rhodesia was included in a sea to sea stretch of land reaching from the Portuguese settlements on the west coast, all the

way across the continent. Whereupon the British representative at Lisbon informed the government of Portugal that his government could not recognize this claim to territory not effectively occupied by Portuguese settlers or commercial interests.

1887-1889.—Occupation of Rhodesia by Cecil Rhodes and the British South Africa Company.—**Treaty with Lobengula.**—Formation of the company.—Lest the Portuguese should take the hint and proceed to occupy the land they claimed, the British made haste to take effective possession of it. Representatives of an influential syndicate directed by Cecil Rhodes drew up a treaty with Lobengula, the native chieftain, which granted to the British the exclusive right to the exploitation of the minerals of this territory. After purchasing all other claims to territory, held by individuals or companies, Cecil Rhodes united all British interests in Rhodesia in the British South Africa Company, which obtained a charter in 1889, and the country thus acquired was named in honor of the founder of the company.—See also SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1894-1895.

1895.—Project of Cecil Rhodes for railroad. See RAILROADS: 1895; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Lack of railway and industrial development.

1896 (March-September).—Revolt of the Matabeles. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (March-September).

1896 (July).—Parliamentary investigation of British South Africa Company. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (July): Investigation, etc.

1897.—Compulsory labor in the colony. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1897 (January).

1900.—Protectorate proclaimed over Barotse-land. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (September): Protectorate over Barotse-land.

1903-1908.—Growing agitation among settlers for abrogation of the charter of the British South Africa Company, and a voice in the government.—Colonization had scarcely begun before the settlers, few in number though they were, began to claim a share in the government. The position of the country was greatly complicated by the presence of the governing and other powers of the British South Africa Company, by which, under the terms of its charter of October 29, 1889, the administration of the country was carried on, subject to certain changes made by subsequent legislation. "From 1903 onwards there has been the growing desire of the settlers to secure the freer development of the country apart from the management of the Company, which, having commercial as well as administrative functions to fulfil, is regarded by them as incompetent to manage the two successfully. The Company, on their part, while prepared to concede in principle that the administrative power of the Company should be brought to an end, have contended that their rights in the lands of the country and their claims to be repaid thereby if not otherwise, for all their expenditure on the conquest and administration of the country, in so far as these sums have not been repaid by administrative revenue, should be secured to them: the nature of the sums can be judged from the proposals in 1903-4, which would have given the settlers control in exchange for the acceptance of liability for a debt of about £7,500,000, of which only a third would be represented by sums to be spent on development, the rest being dead-weight debt. This proposal could not be accepted as the country could not bear such a burden, and the Imperial Government refused to assist, and in 1905 vetoed the proposal to raise a loan of £250,000 for advances to farmers

on the security of the administrative revenue. In 1907, the Company adopted the policy of making a distinction between the commercial and administrative aspect of their business transactions, but without any approval from the Imperial Government, while there was steadily growing in the country a determination to question the title of the Company to the control of the land, on the ground that the control of the land was vested in the Company merely as an administrative body. And that it had no proprietary right to the land, so that, if it were deprived of its administrative powers, the proprietary claims it asserted would disappear, and the new administration would have complete control over all land not lawfully alienated or leased. The Company in its turn relied on its conquest of the land plus its concessions from Lobengula, and its occupation to give it a proprietary title."—A. B. Keith, *Imperial unity and the dominions*, pp. 494-495.—In spite of the fact that the company was assuming all financial responsibility and was investing large sums for railway development, in May, 1907, the legislative council passed a resolution asking the directors to extend responsible government to Rhodesia.

1908.—Report of the British South Africa Company.—Increasing prosperity.—Plans for railways.—The early years of the company's existence were unproductive, but in 1906 the tide began to turn. The tone of the yearly reports became more confident, and in February, 1909, the shareholders were given the following information: "During 1908 there has been a remarkable improvement in the circumstances of Rhodesia. This improvement has been evident in every department of trade and industry, and is reflected in the returns of administrative receipts, railways, mines and land. It was pointed out last year what an important effect even a slight increase in general prosperity would exercise upon the whole financial position, and the figures now available show that this view was correct. The administrative revenue of Southern Rhodesia during the years 1908-9 will suffice to cover administrative expenditure without any call whatever upon the commercial income of the company; the shortages of the railway companies in respect of the same period will be less by £100,000 than in 1907-8; during the year ending 31st March, 1910, large additional revenue will be derived from the carriage from the port of Beira of the materials and stores for the extension of the railway into the Congo territory. . . . The negotiations for the extension northwards of the Rhodesian Railway system have been brought to a successful conclusion. With the coöperation of the Tanganyika Concessions (Limited) a company has been formed called the Rhodesia-Kantanga Junction Railway and Mineral Company (Limited), which will construct a standard gauge line from the present terminus at Broken Hill to a point on the frontier of the Congo Free State; from the frontier to the Star of the Congo Mine the line will be constructed by the Compagnie du Chemin de Fer du Kantanga. . . . On the completion of the first section to the frontier, Rhodesia will be traversed by a trunk line from south to north. The European population shows a net increase of over 1,100 since the intermediate census, in September, 1907, when it numbered 14,018. An area of 1,169,365 acres of land has been settled and occupied during the past year. The output of gold has increased from £2,178,886 in 1907 to £2,526,937 in 1908. Imports have increased by about £100,000 during the past year."—See also SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1904.

1908-1918.—Continued agitation for self-gov-

ernment.—Changes in form of administration.—Refusal to enter Union of South Africa.—Material development.—World War.—"In 1908 and 1909 efforts were made to induce the Imperial Government to settle . . . [the dispute between the settlers and the company], but the Secretary of State declined to intervene, seeing that an effective settlement was only possible if both parties agreed, and the Company declined to agree. But the Imperial Government insisted in 1911 on the issue of an Order in Council to carry out the promise of a wider representation of the people of the country by the abolition of the nominee majority in the part-elective Legislative Council set up by the Order in Council of 1903, and by the new Order the Legislature was made to consist of five nominees to seven elective members in place of equal numbers of each. In 1912 a movement of some strength apparently developed itself in favour of ultimate union with the Union, but in 1913 the Company made a new statement of policy modifying in the direction of greater freedom their position of 1907. They agreed to increase the Legislature to eight nominees with twelve elective members, to carry out more completely the separation of administrative and commercial revenue, . . . to transfer all administrative buildings to the administration without extra cost, and to surrender some additional sources of revenue to the administration. They announced their intention to favour responsible government if that were desired, in which case no claim would be made for the initial expenditure of the Company on the acquisition and defence of the country. . . . They moreover expressed readiness to arrange for loans for capital expenditure desired for administrative purposes, and agreed that after October 29, 1914, they would not, if the charter came to an end in respect of their administrative privileges, claim . . . the value of public works carried out since October 29, 1914, if on the whole period the administration had paid its way and, if it had not, the amount claimed would only be the actual value or the deficit in the total cost of administration as compared with administrative revenue, whichever should be the less. Partly as a result of this, and partly as the result of the growing feeling of distrust of the Union in consequence of Mr. Hertzog's anti-British propaganda, the electors at the elections for the reformed Council . . . refused to return any candidate suspected of leanings towards the merger of Rhodesia in the Union, and the Legislative Council thereupon asked that the existing form of company government should be continued for the time being. . . . It was further asked that the . . . accounts of the Company should be placed in the hands of an auditor who should not be an ordinary servant of the Company, that loans on the security of the Company's administrative revenue should be allowed, and that any member of the Council should be permitted to propose appropriations after provision had been made for Civil Service, police, and the maintenance of law and order. The Imperial Government, in consultation with the Company, arranged that there should be issued a supplemental charter, providing that, if the Legislature should resolve by a majority that responsible government should be introduced, this could be done if the Imperial Government thought fit, but that otherwise the charter should not be changed as regards the general principles of administration. They also agreed to the appointment of the Auditor or Auditor-General being made, like those of the judges, one to which the approval of the Secretary of State was necessary,

the same approval being requisite for dismissal. The proposal to allow any member of the Legislature to propose appropriation was rejected. . . . [But the imperial government] agreed that the Company should advance monies to the administration for the purpose of carrying out works which could not be defrayed from ordinary revenues, the sums to be repaid from such revenue as rapidly as possible, . . . on the understanding that, if the administration of the Company terminated, the Company would have no right to the repayment of the sums outstanding, but would have a right to the cost of the works executed, in so far as they had not been defrayed from the balance, if any, between administrative revenue and expenditure."—A. B. Keith, *Imperial unity and the dominions*, pp. 495-498.—"Although upon the surface the political struggle of Rhodesia appears to be between the 'pro-charter' and 'anti-charter,' the real fight is between Responsible Government and the Union. . . . The greatest difficulty in granting Responsible Government is . . . that of entrusting so large a territory occupied by 800,000 Natives to the form of government which would remove the bulk of the inhabitants from any measure of Imperial control."—J. H. Harris, *The chartered millions*, pp. 280, 285.—The main objections of the Rhodesians to become members of the Union of South Africa were "that the representation which would be given Rhodesia in the Union parliament would be relatively so insignificant that an adequate discussion of Rhodesian affairs could not be secured; (and) that the Union is a bilingual country."—H. T. Langden, *Future of Rhodesia* (*Quarterly Review*, Apr., 1914).—"In 1910 North-East and North-West Rhodesia were united as one in Northern Rhodesia. With responsibilities for a population of over a million natives and only some twenty thousand Europeans, it was impossible to segregate completely the native population in Reserves with the object of keeping them from contact with the European inhabitants. The true policy was to make the native as efficient as possible so as to enable him to contribute his maximum to the development of the country. . . . The communal system was gradually dying out, and a tendency towards individualism was gradually making its way. In this state of things an increase in the powers of the Native Commissioners which had been made was followed by excellent results."—H. E. Egerton, *British colonial policy in the XXth century*, pp. 184-185.—There were in active service during the World War, 6,859 European Rhodesians and 2,721 natives. Two Rhodesian regiments were raised, of which one served in the campaign in South-West Africa and the other in British East Africa. There were also many Rhodesians in the British army.—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: VII. East African theater: a.

1918-1922.—Final plans for responsible government.—In 1919 the legislative council passed a resolution asking the colonial office to state what condition of fitness, financially and in other respects would be considered sufficient to justify the grant of responsible government. The colonial secretary answered that he did not yet consider the territory ready to assume the financial responsibility of responsible government. "A General Election, held in April, 1919, for the Southern Rhodesian Legislative Council returned a body of members unanimously opposed alike to the incorporation of the territory in the Union and to the continuance of the Company's government. With a single exception all the members were in favour of the immediate introduction of respon-

sible government. . . . The question was further considered in 1921 by a committee presided over by Lord Buxton. With regard to the natives they recommended that no conditions, disabilities or restrictions should be imposed by law, without the previous consent of the Imperial authority, which did not equally apply to persons of European descent (save in respect of arms, ammunition and liquor); whilst the right to the franchise should remain unaffected. . . . The Committee [further] recommended that a detailed scheme should be submitted to a referendum of the white settlers, for acceptance or rejection. A constitution similar to that granted to the Transvaal in 1906 [was] agreed upon. . . . [Consequently, once the terms, of admission to the South African Union were made known, the electors of Southern Rhodesia could decide whether Southern Rhodesia should become a separate colony, or become a part of the South African Union.]—H. E. Egerton, *British colonial policy in the XXth century*, pp. 191-192.—"In April [1922] General Smuts met a Rhodesian delegation appointed by the Colonial Secretary and outlined the terms upon which South Rhodesia might be incorporated in the Union. . . . The referendum taken on October 27th, resulted in 5,989 votes being cast for Union and 8,774 for responsible Government. Rhodesia having thus emphatically declared its intention to control its own future, it devolves upon the Imperial Government to determine upon what date the territory is to be annexed to the crown."—*Annual Register*, 1922, pp. 273-274.

RHODIAN LAWS. See ADMIRALTY LAW: 1798.

RHONDDA, David Alfred Thomas, 1st Viscount (1856-1918), British administrator. Food controller, 1917-1918. See FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1918: Legislative enactments in Great Britain; PRICE CONTROL: 1914-1918.

RHONE, one of the largest rivers in Europe. It rises in Switzerland, flows through Lake Geneva and south through eastern France, entering the Mediterranean by two mouths. See FRANCE: Geographic description.

Germanic contest for valley. See BURGUNDY: 1127-1378.

Effect of deforestation on its delta.—Present reclamation project. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: France: 1717-1922.

RHONE-MARSEILLES CANAL. See CANALS: Principal European canals: France.

RI.—"The Ri or king, who was at the head of the tribe [the 'tuath,' or tribe, in ancient Ireland], held that position not merely by election, but as the representative in the senior line of the common ancestor, and had a hereditary claim to their obedience. As the supreme authority and judge of the tribe he was the Ri or king. This was his primary function. . . . As the leader in war he was the 'Toisech' or Captain."—W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, v. 3, p. 140.—See also TUATH.

RIADE, or MERSEBERG, Battle of (934). See HUNGARY: 934-955.

RIALTO, Paduan settlement later known as Venice. See VENICE: 452; 697-810.

RIANSARES, Augustin Fernandez Muñoz, Duke of (c. 1810-1873), morganatic husband of Maria Christina of Spain. See SPAIN: 1833-1846.

RIAZAN-KOZLOV RAILWAY. See RAILROADS: 1837-1908.

RIBAUT, or Ribaut, Jean (c. 1520-1565), French navigator. Founded Port Royal, Florida, 1562; defended Fort Caroline against the Spaniards, 1565. See FLORIDA: 1562-1563; 1564-1565; 1565.

RIBBON SOCIETY, Irish secret society opposed to the Orangemen. See IRELAND: 1820-1870.

RIBERA, Giuseppe (1588-1656), Spanish painter. See PAINTING: Spanish.

RIBOT, Alexandre Félix Joseph (1842-1923), French statesman. Became secretary general to the ministry of justice, 1878; minister of foreign affairs, 1890-1892; promoted alliance with Russia, 1895; elected to the French Academy, 1906; minister of finance, 1914-1917; opposed French occupation of the Ruhr valley, 1923. See FRANCE: 1894-1895; 1917 (March).

RICARDO, David (1772-1823), English economist. See ECONOMICS: 18th-19th centuries; TARIFF: 1817-1846.

RICCI, Matteo (1552-1610), Italian missionary. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: China.

RICE-RIOTS (1918). See JAPAN: 1918-1921.
RICH MOUNTAIN, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1861 (June-July: West Virginia).

RICHARD I (called *Cœur de Lion*) (1157-1199), king of England, 1189-1199. Started on the third crusade in alliance with Philip II of France, 1190; conquered Cyprus and defeated the Saracens at Acre, 1191; taken prisoner in Austria, 1192; returned to England, 1194. See ENGLAND: 1189-1199; CRUSADES: Military aspect of the Crusades; Map of Mediterranean lands in 1097; CYPRUS: 1191; CHÂLUS: AUSTRIA: 805-1246; JERUSALEM: 1187-1229; NAVAL LAW: Ancient code.

Richard II (1367-1400), king of England, 1377-1399. Overthrown by the Duke of Hereford, 1399. See ENGLAND: 1377-1399.

Richard III (1452-1485), king of England, 1483-1485. Usurped the crown, 1483; suppressed Buckingham's rebellion in the same year; defeated and killed in the battle of Bosworth, 1485. See ENGLAND: 1461-1485; 1483-1485.

Richard, Duke of York. See YORK, RICHARD, DUKE OF.

RICHARD, Gabriel (1767-1832), American educator. See MICHIGAN: 1804-1884.

RICHARD DE CLARE (Strongbow). See PEMBROKE, RICHARD DE CLARE, 2ND EARL OF.

RICHARDS, Theodore William (1868-), American chemist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Chemistry: 1914.

RICHARDSON, Sir John (1787-1865), British naturalist and Arctic explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1848.

RICHARDSON, Samuel (1689-1761), English novelist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1660-1780.

RICHBOROUGH, city in Kent, England, formerly the Roman seaport Rutupiae. See RUTUPLÆ.

RICHELIEU, Armand Emmanuel Sophie Septemanie du Plessis, Duc de (1766-1822), French statesman. Emigrated from France and joined the Russian forces, 1790; governor of Odessa, 1803-1814; returned to France, 1814; premier of France, 1815-1818; French ambassador at the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1818; premier, 1820-1821. See FRANCE: 1815-1830; AIX-LA-CHAPPELLE: Congresses: 3; DOCTRINAIRES.

RICHELIEU, Armand Jean du Plessis de, Cardinal and Duc de (1585-1642), French ecclesiastic and statesman. Became secretary of state, 1616; cardinal, 1622; principal minister of Louis XIII, 1624-1642; destroyed the political power of the Huguenots by the siege of La Rochelle, 1627-1628; waged war in Italy against Spain and Austria, 1629-1630; suppressed the factions of the nobles, 1632; effected the alliance between France and Sweden in the Thirty Years' War; founded

the French Academy, 1635; frustrated the Cinquemars conspiracy, 1642.

Rise to power.—Defeat of Huguenots.—Suppression of conspiracies of the nobles.—Plots against his life. See FRANCE: 1610-1619; 1624-1626, to 1641-1642.

Policy in Canada and the Netherlands. See CANADA: 1616-1628; NETHERLANDS: 1625-1647.

Part in Thirty Years' War. See FRANCE: 1624-1626; AUSTRIA: 1618-1648; GERMANY: 1634-1639.

Wars against Lorraine. See LORRAINE: 1624-1663.

Campaigns in Italy. See ITALY: 1627-1631.

Attitude toward Parlement. See PARLEMENT OF PARIS: 1527-1641.

Founding of Academy. See ACADEMY, FRENCH; DRAMA: 1500-1700; FRENCH LITERATURE: 1608-1715.

Death. See FRANCE: 1642-1643.

RICHET, Charles Robert (1850-), French physiologist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1913.

RICHMOND, capital of Virginia, on the north bank of the James river. It is the seat of the University of Richmond. Its population in 1920 was 171,667.

Powhatan's residence. See POWHATAN CONFEDERACY.

1781.—Lafayette's defense of the city. See U.S.A.: 1781 (January-May).

1861.—Held by state authorities.—Committee on Federal relations.—Capital of Southern Confederacy. See U.S.A.: 1861 (April): Activity of rebellion in Virginia and Maryland; VIRGINIA: 1861 (January-June); (July).

1862.—McClellan's peninsular campaign against the Confederate capital. See U.S.A.: 1862 (March-May: Virginia); (May: Virginia): Peninsular campaign: Battle of Williamsburg; Fair Oaks; (June: Virginia); (June-July: Virginia); (July-August: Virginia): End of peninsular campaign.

1864 (March).—Kilpatrick's and Dahlgren's raid. See U.S.A.: 1864 (February-March: Virginia).

1864 (May).—Sheridan's raid to the city lines. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May: Virginia): Sheridan's raid.

1865 (April).—Abandonment by Confederate army and government.—Destruction.—President Lincoln in the city. See U.S.A.: 1865 (April: Virginia): Abandonment of Richmond; President Lincoln at Richmond.

1886.—Meeting of American Federation of Labor. See AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1881-1886.

1907.—Reunion of Confederate war veterans.—Unveiling of monument of Jefferson Davis.—A great gathering of the surviving veterans of the Confederacy, to the number of about 15,000, at Richmond, late in May and early in June, was brought about in connection with the unveiling of an impressive monument to Jefferson Davis. An equestrian statue of General J. E. B. Stuart was also unveiled on one of the days of the reunion.

RICHTER, Johann Paul Friedrich (Jean Paul) (1763-1825), German humorist. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1700-1832.

RICIMER (d. 472), Roman commander. Defeated the Vandals in a naval battle off the coast of Corsica, 456; deposed Avitus, emperor of the West, 457. See ROME: Empire: 455-476.

RICOS HOMBRES, great barons of Aragon. See CORTES: Early Spanish.

RICOTTI-MAGNANI, Cesare (b. 1822-), Italian general and statesman. Commanded a division at the battle of San Martino, 1864; min-

ister of war, 1872-1876, 1884-1887, 1896; senator, 1890-1896; prime minister, 1896. See ITALY: 1895-1896.

RIDER, section of, or amendment to, a bill, relating to an entirely different subject than that contained in the bill proper. Riders are usually attached to appropriation bills for the purpose of forcing some measure upon the other house, or the executive, which would not otherwise have passed the latter. Riders cannot be defeated in the national government without rejecting the whole bill; but in most of the states it is provided that bills must contain no more than one subject, and in addition, the governor may veto any item in an appropriation bill while approving the bill as a whole.

RIDGEWAY, Battle of (1866). See CANADA: 1866-1871.

RIDINGS OF YORKSHIRE.—The name Ridings is a corruption of the word Trithings, or Thirds, which was applied to the large divisions of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire (England) in the time of the Angles.—Based on T. P. Taswell-Langmead, *English constitutional history*, ch. 1, note.

RIEDELSE, Friedrich Adolph, Baron (1738-1800), German general. Commanded the Hessians against the Americans, 1776-1777. See U.S.A.: 1777 (July-October).

RIEHL, Wilhelm Heinrich (1823-1897), German historian. See HISTORY: 33.

RIEL, Louis (1844-1885), Canadian revolutionist. See CANADA: 1860-1873.

RIEL'S REBELLION (1869). See CANADA: 1869-1873.

RIENCOURT-LES-BAPAUME, town of northern France, about eight miles northeast of Bapaume and fifteen miles southwest of Douai. It was taken by the British in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: k, 3.

RIENZI, Cola di (c. 1313-1354), Italian patriot. Led a revolution at Rome and proclaimed union of Italy, 1347; tribune of the people at Rome, 1347-1348; senator, 1354. See ROME: Medieval city: 1347-1354; ITALY: 1343-1393.

RIETFOONTEIN, Battle of (1899). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-December).

RIFF, or Rif, mountainous region on the north coast of Morocco, from Ceuta eastward to the Algerian border. It was the scene of tribal revolts against Spain. See MOROCCO: 1909; 1919; 1921-1923.

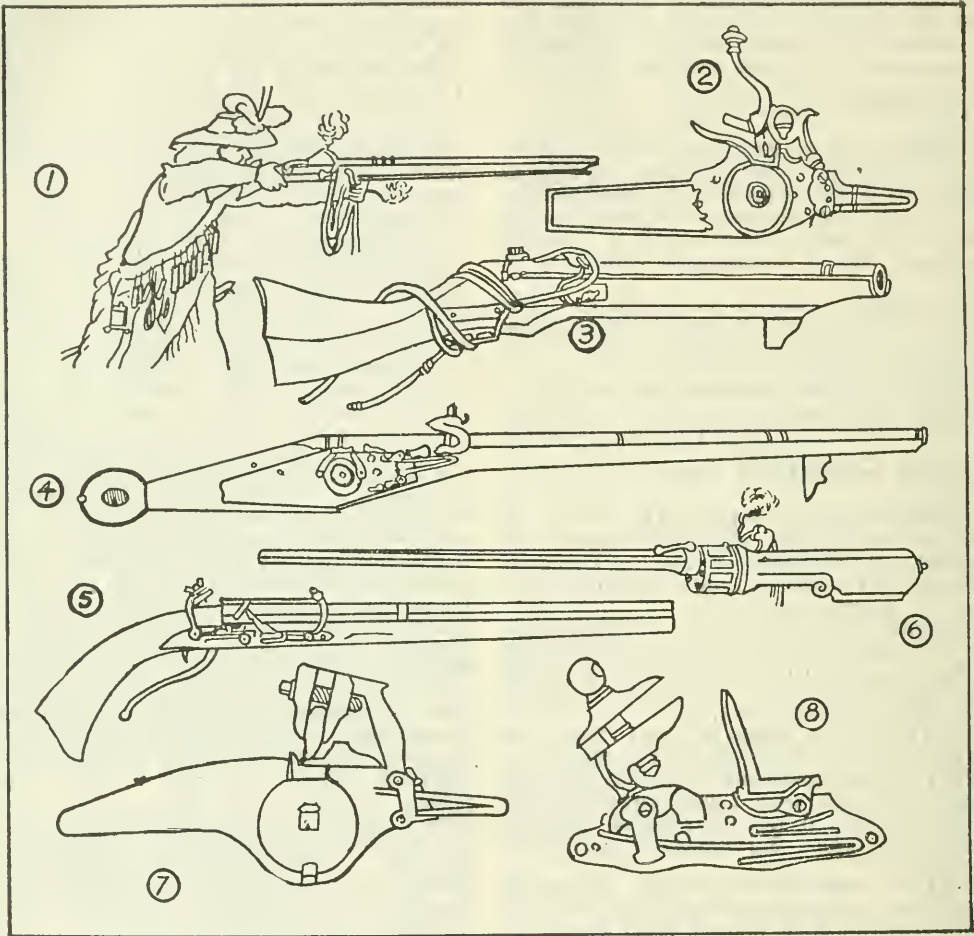
RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: Origin of small arms.—Muskets.—Rifles.—“We have old writings which tell us of guns being used seven hundred years ago, and we believe that there must have been some sort of guns more than two thousand years ago, which takes us back before the time of Christ. A Greek historian, writing at the time of one of the wars of Alexander the Great, tells us that the Hindus ‘had the means of discharging flame and missiles on their enemies from a distance.’ . . . The early attempt at guns may have helped to frighten the enemy from approaching the walls of a besieged city, but it is not likely that they did any real damage to the enemy at a distance. . . . The first idea was to make a gun from long bars of iron, fixing them firmly together so as to form a tube, iron hoops being used to tie them together, just as a wooden barrel is hooped together. These tubes, or guns, were called cannons, because the French word for a tube is *canon*. . . . Large cannons were very heavy things to move about with an army, so attempts were made long ago to supply the foot soldiers with small guns which they would be able to

carry about just as the old archers carried their long-bows. Some six or seven hundred years ago the infantryman was given a miniature cannon, mounted with a wooden butt end, which he could steady against his chest. These hand-guns had a touch-hole, to which the soldier applied a flame just as in the larger cannons. Then someone suggested that the soldier would be able to take much better aim if he had not to worry about finding the touch-hole. And so a trigger was attached, and when this was pulled, it brought a lighted match down on to the touch-hole. It is not difficult to guess what led to this invention, for the old cross-bows had triggers, which when pulled released the springs and shot the bolts or arrows. Then it was found that the soldier could not get his eye down low enough to take proper aim, while the butt of the gun rested on his chest. This difficulty suggested the butt being made suitable to rest against the shoulder. . . . These early hand-guns were called ‘match-lock muskets.’ . . . The musketeers . . . had to carry several yards of slow match wound round their muskets, and . . . had first to produce a spark by means of a flint and steel, and thus light the end of the slow match. . . . These difficulties led to the invention of the wheel-lock musket [1515], in which the lock, or firing mechanism, consisted of a small wheel, with teeth, which by rubbing on a piece of flint produced sparks which set the powder alight. When the trigger was pulled, not only did it set the wheel in motion, but it also uncovered the pan at the same moment. Before the trigger was pulled, the soldier had to wind up the firing mechanism. . . . The difficulties of this wheel-lock musket led to the invention of the flint-lock musket [by the Spaniards, early in the seventeenth century], in which a piece of flint was made to strike a piece of furrowed steel, and thus produce the necessary sparks. This was done without any clockwork, and therefore saved a lot of time. . . . [These flint-lock muskets were introduced into England by William III and were used in the battle of Waterloo.] Among the soldiers of the Duke of Wellington this musket was nicknamed ‘Brown Bess,’ from the colour of its barrel. . . . [In 1807 a Scottish clergyman named Alexander Forsythe] invented [in 1807] an entirely new method of firing guns. His . . . idea was to make the pulling of the trigger cause a small hammer to strike a small brass cap containing some chemicals. . . . The explosion of this small percussion cap was the means of setting off the charge of gunpowder within the gun. . . . [This gun was accepted by the government and at once came into use.] The first thing that enabled guns to shoot straight was . . . [putting] the bullets in at the breech end of the gun. The bullet, being made to fit tightly to the bore of the gun, was shot off much straighter than the loose-fitting bullet which had to zigzag its way along the barrel. But there was another very important invention which ensured the bullet flying straight. . . . The hand-gun of to-day is called a rifle. . . . The earlier guns had smooth bores through which the bullets travelled along the barrels. The rifle has a grooved bore, a sort of corkscrew, or spiral groove, on the inside of the barrel [the first being mentioned in the second half of the fifteenth century]. The word ‘rifle’ . . . used to describe this groove, . . . was made from an old Anglo-Saxon word meaning a groove. . . . [When it is] forced along the bore of the gun, by the explosion of the gunpowder, the bullet, fitting into these grooves . . . [spins] round and round and . . . [leaves] the muzzle of the gun with a very rapid spinning motion [which

causes it to travel much straighter through the air.]”—C. R. Gibson, *War inventions and how they were invented*, pp. 19, 22-28, 35-36.

Waterloo to the eve of the World War.—Breechloaders, needle-gun and Chassepôt.—Repeating and magazine rifles.—After the general superseding of the smooth-bore musket by the rifle in the early part of the nineteenth century there still remained several basic improvements to be made before a satisfactory military weapon was evolved.

used in the Franco-German War of 1870-1871. By this time, the breech-loading principle was embodied in all rifles, sporting and military, and the next step in securing still greater rapidity of fire was taken when the magazine rifle was invented. During the American Civil War several breechloaders were in use (Sharp, Henry and Spencer rifles) but it was not till 1866 that the Winchester repeating, or magazine, rifle appeared. This became the hunting rifle par excellence of the western



FIREARMS OF THE 16TH CENTURY

1. Musketeer with matchlock. 2. Wheel-lock. 3. Arquebus with matchlock. 4. Wheel-lock pistol.
5. Flint-lock pistol. 6. German revolver. 7. German wheel-lock. 8. Spanish wheel-lock.

Rapidity and accuracy of fire together with a longer range, and a flatter trajectory for the bullet were the principal objects to be attained. At the beginning of the nineteenth century all rifles and muskets were muzzle loading and the act of loading was slow. The solution of this difficulty was found in the invention of the breech-loading rifle in 1811, though it was not till 1841 that Prussia adopted the famous needle gun, the first breech-loader to be employed in a European army. The needle gun speedily justified itself and contributed greatly to the Prussian victory over Austria in 1866. France was experimenting with an improved needle gun, the Chassepôt, which they adopted in 1866 and

plains and was of course the forerunner of a great number of other models with numerous mechanical variations all having the common object of furthering rapidity of fire. This combination of the breech-loader with a magazine attachment, which contained a number of cartridges fed mechanically into the chamber at the rear end of the gun barrel, made for great convenience and speed in firing. As soon as this was proved to be possible and not too expensive the repeating principle was applied to the great majority of rifles, both hunting and military. In 1885 the French converted the Chassepôt into the Lebel using smokeless powder; the Germans adopted the

Mausers, a modified Chassepôt, in place of the needle gun in 1884; the Austro-Hungarian army was supplied with the Mannlicher after 1886; the British with the Lee-Metford in 1888; and the American with the Krag-Jørgensen and finally the improved Springfield in 1903. A longer range and a flatter trajectory were secured by the use of more and more powerful powders and the long, pointed (Spitzer) bullet; while more precise and delicate sights maintained accuracy of marksmanship with the increased distance the bullet had to travel.

World War.—American contributions.—Inventions of J. M. Browning.—Revolvers and automatic pistols.—"American inventors have been responsible for every important improvement in small-arms for more than a century. Even the automatic pistol, credit for which was claimed originally by Germany, was a deliberate theft of a Yankee idea, as any one who cares to inspect the models in the Patent Office at Washington may prove to his own satisfaction. . . . The breech-loading rifle, . . . the repeating rifle, [and] the revolver [were American inventions as well as] . . . the machine-gun. At the beginning of the war in Europe the demand for rifles for the British, French, and Russian armies was so far greater than their manufacturers were able to supply that they called upon America for help; so when . . . [the United States] entered the war . . . a number of well-equipped factories . . . had been . . . producing rifles in enormous quantities for these foreign governments. . . . [There were] on hand about 600,000 of the model 1903 Springfield, with manufacturing capacity at . . . [the] government arsenals of only about 700 a day. To adopt the British weapon would have involved changing . . . ammunition. The problem was solved by making certain modifications in the British Enfield rifle so that it took the same ammunition and the same sights as the old Springfield. This modified Enfield became the Springfield, model 1917, and with it . . . [the United States] armed nearly three million soldiers. . . . John M. Browning . . . [invented] nearly every one of the Winchester rifles, from the model of 1873 to that of 1906. He invented the auto-loading shot-gun and the auto-loading rifle. . . . He was responsible for the perfection of the Stevens 12-gauge repeating shot-gun. . . . [He] invented the Colt automatic machine-gun . . . [the United States] standard army weapon up to 1917. He . . . designed all the Colt automatic pistols . . . [and] the .45-caliber automatic pistol, which was the standard side-arm of the United States army. . . . Simultaneously with the water-cooled gun, John M. Browning offered a light machine-gun or, more properly speaking, an automatic rifle, weighing only fifteen pounds. This is a gun that can be fired from the shoulder and which will continue to fire automatically so long as the marksman keeps his finger on the trigger and the supply of cartridges is kept up. The cartridges for the Browning automatic rifle are fed in in clips of twenty at a time; the twenty shots are fired in a quarter that number of seconds. It takes less than a second to slip a new set into place."—F. P. Stockbridge, *Yankee ingenuity in the war*, pp. 290, 292, 296-299.

Shot-guns in the World War.—New ammunition for trench and aerial warfare.—"One application of Yankee ingenuity to small-arms evoked a protest from the German Government, which declared that . . . [the United States was] conducting warfare in an inhuman and barbarous manner by using shot-guns in the trenches . . . in violation of the Geneva Convention. . . . The main

charge was true—we were using shot-guns. The efficacy of the sawed-off shot-gun or 'riot-gun' had been demonstrated by many Western sheriffs. . . . [The troops had been supplied] with both Winchester and Remington repeater shot-guns with shortened barrels, primarily for the purpose of arming the guards placed over German prisoners, but many of them were actually used in the trenches. Each shell contained nine buckshot the size of a pea; for close fighting there is no fire-arm so deadly. . . . [A new problem required to be solved] in manufacturing tracer bullets and incendiary bullets for aerial warfare. In loading cartridge-belts for aircraft machine-guns a tracer bullet is substituted for the ordinary bullet, made of lead with a cupro-nickel jacket at stated intervals. The tracer bullet gives off a bright light as it passes through the air, a light so brilliant as to be plainly visible in the brightest sunlight. This enables the gunner to know at all times whether his bullets are reaching their mark, as he can actually see the tracers, which may be every fifth bullet, for at least 500 yards of their flight. . . . The purpose of the incendiary bullet in aerial warfare is to set fire to the gas-tank of the enemy machine. . . . The incendiary bullet gives off a spiral of blue smoke as it passes through the air, and at a range up to 350 yards such a bullet striking the gas-tank of an observation balloon or a Zeppelin, or any inflammable part of an airplane or its gas-tank, starts a conflagration. The armor-piercing bullet is not a solid chunk of steel; such a missile might make a dent in thin armor-plate, but it would not penetrate it. As every one who has tried to drill a hole in steel realizes, a lubricant for the drill is necessary. In the case of the armor-piercing bullet this lubricant is melted lead. . . . When the bullet is fired against armor plate the cupro-nickel jacket shatters into pieces, the lead melts under the heat of the impact and the steel block passes through the armor, lubricated by the molten lead."—F. P. Stockbridge, *Yankee ingenuity in the war*, pp. 304-308.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 16; 17; ORDINANCE.

ALSO IN: E. S. Farrow, *American guns in the war with Germany*.—B. Crowell, *American munitions, 1917-1918*.

RIGA, seaport and capital of the republic of Latvia, about 366 miles southwest of Petrograd (see RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states). The population in 1920 was 185,137. The city was founded about 1158. It joined the Hanseatic League in 1282 and was taken by the king of Poland in 1547.

1621.—Siege and capture by Gustavus Adolphus. See SWEDEN: 1611-1629.

1700.—Unsuccessful siege by the king of Poland. See SWEDEN: 1697-1700.

1700-1812.—Acquired by Russia.—After the battle of Poltava, Riga succumbed and was taken by Peter the Great in July, 1710. In 1781 Catherine the Great made it the capital of the Riga viceroyalty. The viceroyalty having been abolished in 1796, it became the capital of Livonia. In 1812 during Napoleon's invasion of Russia, Riga was bombarded by the French army.

1854.—Blockaded by the English.—During the Crimean war, the British and French fleet blockaded Riga.

1905.—Disorders during the Russian revolution. See RUSSIA: 1904-1905: Outline of leading events in the revolution.

1915-1917.—Struggle for possession by Russians and Germans.—Capture by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 7; i, 8; 1917: I. Summary: b, 8; III. Russia and the

Eastern front: o; RUSSIA: 1917 (August-September).

1917.—Represented in the United National Council. See BALTIC PROVINCES: 1917-1918.

1920.—Peace negotiations of Russia and Poland. See POLAND: 1910-1920: War with Russia.

1921.—Treaty of peace between Russia and Poland signed. See POLAND: 1921: Peace treaty with Russia.

See also BALTIC PROVINCES: Resources; BALTIC STATES: Latvia.

"RIGHT," "LEFT," AND "CENTER."—In France, and several other continental European countries, political parties in the legislative bodies are named according to the positions of the seats which they occupy in their respective chambers. The extreme conservatives gather at the right of the chair of the presiding officer, and are known, accordingly, as "The Right." The extreme radicals similarly collected on the opposite side of the chamber, are called "The Left." Usually, there is a moderate wing of each of these parties which partially detaches itself and is designated, in one case, "The Right Center," and in the other, "The Left Center," while, midway between these divisions, there is a party of independents who take the name of "The Center."

RIGHT, Petition of. See PETITION OF RIGHT.

RIGHT OF ASSOCIATION AND PUBLIC MEETING (1908). See GERMANY: 1908 (April).

RIGHT OF ASYLUM. See ASYLUM, RIGHT OF.

RIGHT OF DEPOSIT. See DEPOSIT, RIGHT OF.

RIGHT OF REGALE. See REGALIA.

RIGHT OF RESISTANCE. See RESISTANCE, RIGHT OF.

RIGHT OF SEARCH. See SEARCH, RIGHT OF; U.S.A.: 1804-1809; 1812; WASHINGTON CONFERENCE ON LIMITATION OF ARMAMENTS.

RIGHTS, Declaration and Bill of. See ENGLAND: 1689 (January-February); (October).

RIGHTS OF MAN, Declaration of. See FRANCE: 1789 (August): Constitution-making and the rights of man.

RIGORISM. See ETHICS: Greece, Ancient: B.C. 4th century.

RIGSDAG, legislative assembly of Denmark. See DENMARK, CONSTITUTION OF.

RIGSRET, Norwegian supreme tribunal. See NORWAY, CONSTITUTION OF: Title IV.

RIGVEDA. See VEDAS; INDIA: B.C. 2000-600; MYTHOLOGY; Indian: Unparalleled length of life; RELIGION: B.C. 1000.

RIKKEN SEIYU-KAI, Japanese political party. See JAPAN: 1804-1912.

RILKE, Rainer Maria (1875-), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1900-1922.

RIMA, Icelandic poetry. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1120-1250.

RIMINI, Italian town on the Adriatic coast, sixty-nine miles southeast of Bologna. Origin: See ROME: Republic: B.C. 295-191.

13th-15th centuries.—Under rule of Malatesta family. See MALATESTA FAMILY.

1503.—Taken by Venetians. See VENICE: 1494-1503.

1915.—Attacked by Austrians during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IX. Naval operations: b, 3.

RIMMON.—"The name of Rimmon, which means 'pomegranate,' occurs frequently in the topography of Palestine, and was probably derived from the culture of this beautiful tree."—J. Kendrick, *Phœnicia*, ch. 2.

RIMNIK, Battle of (1789). See RUSSIA: 1768-1796; TURKEY: 1776-1792.

RÎM-SIN, Elamite king conquered by the Babylonians, 2340 B.C. See ELAM; BABYLONIA: Hammurabi: His character and achievements.

RIMSKI-KORSAKOV, Nicholas Andreyevitch (1844-1908), Russian composer. Appointed professor of composition, St. Petersburg conservatory, 1871-1908; produced the opera "Snegurochka," 1880; conducted the Russian symphony concerts at St. Petersburg, 1886-1890; produced the operas "Kastchei," 1902; and "Pan Voyevoda," 1904. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Russia.

RIND TRIBE, division of the Baluchi race in southern central Asia. See BALUCHISTAN: Origin of name.

RINGGOLD, Battle of. See U.S.A.: 1863 (October-November: Tennessee).

RINGS OF THE AVARS. See AVARS, RINGS OF THE.

RIO BRANCO, Law of (1871). See BRAZIL: 1871-1888.

RIO DE JANEIRO, capital of Brazil, South America, on the great bay of the same name. (See LATIN AMERICA: Map.) Its population in 1920 was 1,157,873. The bay was probably discovered by Amerigo Vespucci, a Portuguese, about 1500, but its discovery is attributed by the Portuguese to Gonçalves who visited it in 1502. (See AMERICA: 1500-1514.) The first settlement was made in 1555 by a French expedition under Nicholas Durand Villegaignon who built a fort on one of the larger islands. (See FLORIDA: 1562-1563.) The French settlers were however attacked and scattered in 1560 by the Portuguese from Bahia, who established a settlement on the mainland in 1567. The town grew slowly, but it was of sufficient importance to be made the capital of Brazil in 1762 when it had a population of 30,000 including slaves. During the Napoleonic invasions the court of Portugal was transferred to Brazil, and in 1808 Rio de Janeiro became the royal seat. In 1821 the population had increased to 112,695. In 1822 the independence of Brazil from its mother country was declared, and was ruled as an empire by Pedro I and Pedro II until 1889 when the republic was established. Commercial relations with Europe increased trade and Rio de Janeiro rapidly became one of the leading cities of the continent. In 1892 extensive improvements in sanitation were made and the docking, transportation and lighting facilities were enlarged.

1893-1894.—Revolt against Peixoto. See BRAZIL: 1893-1894.

1903-1905.—Eradication of yellow fever. See PUBLIC HEALTH: Yellow fever.

1904.—Riots. See BRAZIL: 1904: Impromptu revolt.

1906.—Meeting place of Third International American Conference. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1910.—Marine mutiny. See BRAZIL: 1910.

See also CITY PLANNING: Brazil: HOUSING: South America; LIBRARIES: Modern: South America.

RIO DE LA PLATA. See PLATA, RIO DE LA.

RIO DE LA PLATA, Provinces of the, federated group of provinces about the Plata river, Argentina. The first province known by this name was established in 1620. Its capital was Buenos Aires. See ARGENTINA: 1580-1777; 1806-1820; LATIN AMERICA: 1778-1824; URUGUAY: 1806-1815.

RIO DE ORO, Spanish possession in northwestern Africa, extending from Cape Blanco to Cape Nun. With Adrar, it has an area of 109,200 square miles, and a population (1922) of 495. Spain took

possession of it in 1885, and later by a convention with France acquired a strip of the desert. The colony is administered by the governor of the Canary islands. See AFRICA: Map.

RIO PRIETO, Engagement at the. See U.S.A.: 1898 (July-August: Porto Rico).

RIPARIAN RIGHTS: Definition.—Origin.—Inland lakes and waterways.—"According to the strict meaning of the term, riparian rights are such as follow, or are connected with, the ownership of the banks of streams or rivers. Those whose lands border upon the waters are called 'littoral' proprietors, although the words 'riparian' and 'littoral' are sometimes used interchangeably."—J. M. Gould, *Treatise on the law of waters*, p. 275.—"Modern laws controlling riparian rights are based upon the doctrines of territorial jurisdiction and maritime privileges in international law. This law has recognized that national territory consists of water as well as land. Maritime territory in every State extends to the ports, harbors, bays, mouths of rivers and adjacent parts of the sea enclosed by headlands belonging to the same state. Within these limits, its rights to property and territorial jurisdiction are absolute and include those of every other state. The great inland lakes, and their navigable outlets, are considered as subject to the same rule as inland seas: where enclosed within the limits of a single state they are regarded as belonging to the territory of that state; but if different nations occupy their borders, the rule of *mare clausum* cannot be applied to the navigation and use of their waters. No distinction is made between salt-water lakes, or inland seas and fresh-water lakes. The right of territorial jurisdiction over the outlets of these inland waters . . . where a navigable river forms the boundary of contiguous states, the middle of the channel—the *flum aquae*, or *thalweg*—is generally taken as the line of their separation, the presumption of law being that the right of navigation is common to them both."—G. S. Baker, *Halleck's international law*, v. 1, pp. 181-182.

"A mode of acquiring title to realty is where portions of the soil of real estate are added by gradual deposition, through the operation of natural causes, to that already in possession of the owner. This is called title by accretion."—E. Washburn, *American law of real property*, v. 3, p. 55.

ALSO IN: W. E. Hall, *International law*, pp. 136-141.—Wheaton's *elements of international law*, pp. 306-313.

Theories of water law under Roman law.—Common right.—Conflict of English law and Spanish law in western states.—Rotation principle.—"Existing, or proposed, systems of water law have one first elemental principle for all of them. In the beginning, they have the same root in their attitude to running water as a physical substance. It is the idea that water running in streams and watercourses is not of itself the property of any person and cannot be. Although differing with regard to the regulation of the use of the water, yet the water itself, by all of them, and by probably all people, is considered not belonging to any person. This is expressed at the beginning by the Roman jurists, in the compilation of Justinian as follows: 'By natural law these things are common to all: the air, running water, the sea, and as a consequence, the shores of the sea.'"—S. C. Wiel, *Theories of water law* (*Harvard Law Review*, Apr., 1914).—"Prima facie, every proprietor upon each bank of a river is entitled to the land, covered with water, in front of his bank, to the middle thread of the stream,

or as it is commonly expressed, *usque flum aquae*. In virtue of this ownership, he has a right to the use of the water flowing over it in its natural current, without diminution or obstruction. But, strictly speaking, he has no property in the water itself; but a simple use of it, while it passes along. The consequence of this principle is that no proprietor has a right to use the water to the prejudice of another. It is wholly immaterial whether the party be a proprietor above or below in the course of the river; the right being common to all the proprietors on the river, no one has a right to diminish the quantity which will, according to the natural current, flow to a proprietor below, or to throw it back upon a proprietor above. This is the necessary result of the perfect equality of right among all the proprietors of that which is common to all [a public right]. The natural stream, existing by the bounty of Providence for the benefit of the land through which it flows, is an incident annexed by operation of law, to the land itself."

—4 *Mason* (U.S.C.C.) 397.—"The law of Prior Appropriation is the chief law in the States west of the Mississippi Valley. It had its beginning in the early days of the State of California, when the region was an uninhabited frontier. . . . Under this system, the idea of a water right was the having possession of a portion of the flow of the stream. It was called a possessory right and had the features of a possessory system. It was initiated by taking possession of a portion of the flow of a stream. This system is eminently a pioneering system."—S. C. Wiel, *Theories of water law* (*Harvard Law Review*, Apr., 1914).—The denser settlement of the western states has developed several complex and important economic problems with respect to the rights over internal waterways. Those problems are becoming increasingly urgent and are giving rise to new theories for water legislation. California has long grappled with these problems. After the discovery of gold 1848, the settlers were confronted with the peculiar laws and customs of the Spaniards. Many conflicts and legal disputes arose through the miners taking water for sluicing and gold-washing purposes, changing the courses of streams and cutting off the water flowing over falls, which they used for propelling water wheels. When California became more settled and agricultural settlements were made in Oregon and Washington further problems and conflicts developed through the changing and pollution of streams by gold dredging operations by logging and log fluming and by irrigation dams. "If there is not water enough to permit a diversion of a stream and a simultaneous use of part by both parties without injury, the court may by its decree fix the times when, by rotation, the whole may be used by each at different times in proportion to their respective rights. In doing so, the court should recognize the paramount and primary right of the respondent to the first flow in a full ditch during the irrigation season as it may be required. . . . While this remedy of rotation and use of waters for irrigation purpose has been more generally applied as between riparian proprietors, in principle, there is no reason why it should not be made applicable as between claimants by appropriation. It is applied between riparian owners to permit the beneficial use of the waters by all, and as by appropriation only the right to a beneficial use is acquired, there is no reason why, when it can be justly made applicable, the same rule of rotation should not be applied as between appropriators."—162 *Cal.* 147, 1912.

Modern water title problems in the United

States.—Increased water conservation.—Recent legislation protecting national rights.—The tremendous advances made in recent years have called for the utilization of water and water power for a great number of industrial and agricultural purposes. These include the development of the arid lands of the western and south-western states by intensive farming through irrigation, the construction of dams, frequently of immense size for irrigation and for the generation of electrical power for mining, manufacturing, metallurgical and chemical purposes as well as for public service corporations. Many cities are confronted with the necessity of increasing their water supplies and are frequently forced to draw upon the water in nearby streams and rivers. These numerous and extensive demands upon the country's water resources, naturally, are bringing the subject of water rights before the state and federal government. These political and legal questions recall the conflicts experienced by the railroad builders when the new transportation requirements come into conflict with old legal theories. "The limit of the agricultural development of a state is dependent, almost entirely, upon the amount of the available water supply. This is a matter of vital concern to every citizen. If the amount of water permitted to be appropriated for the irrigation of one acre of land is twice the amount required to produce ordinary agricultural crops, then the ultimate irrigable area will be reduced by one-half. The average irrigator, if not restrained, will use from three to sixteen feet in depth of water on his land during an irrigating season, whereas better results could doubtless have been produced with less than thirty-six inches in depth. State streams are of growing importance to the logging and other industries. Many streams are entirely diverted and carried into other water-sheds for placer and other mining purposes. The entire low water flow of many streams has been diverted to create power for the operation of flour, woolen and other mills and factories. Perpetual Franchises in the use of state's public waters are being rapidly acquired for the development of electric power. No restriction as to time is demanded by the State, as is required by the laws of Italy (Canada, Australia and many other countries). The history of other industries, and especially the hydro-electric power development of other states and countries, points to an early monopoly of the state's water powers. If franchises to the use of water for hydro-electric power and other developments were granted only for a limited period of years (21 and 30 years being usual in some countries) with privilege of renewal under restrictions, instead of perpetually, as heretofore, the public could take advantage of any changed conditions, prevent abuses, and even derive a revenue from such use if found desirable."—J. H. Lewis, *Need of water legislation in Oregon*, pp. 8-9.—"Advancing civilization has done more than augment the uses and value of water; it has increased the evils and dangers arising from water. The ice gorges along the Ohio and Mississippi rivers were matters of small concern when Indians were the only people interested. Now they often cost millions of dollars and hazard many lives. Hence, immense sums of money are being expended to protect commerce from their action. Every reservoir, every diversion dam in a stream, every artificial waterway adds a new element of danger and insecurity to the lives and property below and gives ground for new laws and regulations with respect to the management of water. The swamps and marshes created through the interrup-

tion of underground water supplies by impervious strata seriously impair the value of lands for agriculture in civilized districts and become a menace to health and prosperity in cities and towns."—E. Mead and R. P. Teele, *Water rights on interstate streams*, p. 103.

See also DANUBE: 1850-1916; 1856-1919; 1921.

RIPLEY, George (1802-1880), American scholar and critic. One of the organizers of the Brook Farm community, 1841-1847. See SOCIALISM: 1840-1847.

RIPLEY, William Zebina (1867-), American economist and anthropologist. See EUROPE: Introduction to historic period: Distribution of races.

RIPON, Frederick John Robinson, Viscount Goderich, First Earl of (1782-1859), British statesman. Chancellor of the exchequer, 1823-1827; prime minister, 1827-1828; colonial secretary, 1831-1832; president of the board of trade, 1841-1843; president of the India board, 1843-1846. See ENGLAND: 1827-1828; Administration of Lord Goderich; INDIA: 1880-1893.

RIPON, ancient cathedral city in West Riding, Yorkshire, England, about twenty-two miles northwest of York. The town originated with the building of a monastery in the seventh century. Ripon was made a royal borough by Alfred the Great, and suffered successive disasters through the Saxon, Danish, Norman and Scottish wars. During the Middle Ages Ripon was famous for its woolen cloth, which was followed after the sixteenth century by the manufacture of spurs, whence the proverb, "as true as Ripon rowells." The one thousandth anniversary of the incorporation of the city of Ripon was celebrated on August 27, 1886.

Treaty of. See ENGLAND: 1640.

RIPON REGULATIONS (1831). See AUSTRALIA: 1810-1837.

RIPUARIANS, Law of the.—"On the death of Clovis, his son, Theodoric, was king of the eastern Franks; that is to say, of the Riparian Franks; he resided at Metz. To him is generally attributed the compilation of their law. . . . According to this tradition, then, the law of the Ripuarians should be placed between the years 511 and 534. It could not have, like the Salic, the pretension of ascending to the right-hand bank of the Rhine, and to ancient Germany. . . . I am inclined to believe that it was only under Dagobert I., between the years 628 and 638, that it took the definite form under which it has reached us."—F. Guizot, *History of civilization*, v. 2, lecture 10.—See also GAUL: 5th-10th centuries.

RIPUARI, tribe of the Franks who settled along the banks of the Rhine river. See FRANKS: BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 5th-10th centuries; GERMANY: 481-768.

RISING, John Claudius. See RYSINGH, JOHN CLAUDE.

RISING SUN, Land of the. See JAPAN: Name.

RISORGIMENTO, Italian revolutionary journal edited by Cavour, 1848. See HISTORY: 29.

RITTER, George, name Martin Luther used while at Wartburg castle. See PAPACY: 1521-1522.

RITTER, Karl (1779-1859), German geographer. See HISTORY: 33.

RITUAL MURDER ACCUSATIONS. See JEWS: Russia: 1817-1913; BEILISS CASE; RUSSIA: 1913.

RIVAS, Duke of. See SAAVEDRA, ANGEL DE.

RIVER AND HARBOR BILLS, group of national appropriation bills for the improvement of waterways. In such bills, there is usually a division of appropriations between the coast states and the interior states, as the name indicates.

RIVER BRETHERN. See BRETHERN, RIVER.
RIVER CLYDE, British warship. It was engaged at Gallipoli during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a, 3, ii.

RIVERA, Fernando Primo de, Spanish governor-general of the Philippines, 1897-1898. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1896-1898; U.S.A.: 1898 (April-May).

RIVERA, José Fructuoso (c. 1700-1854), president of Uruguay, 1830-1835. See URUGUAY: 1821-1905.

RIVERA Y ORBANEJA, Miguel Primo, Spanish general, leader of a military revolt, 1923. See SPAIN: 1922-1923.

RIVERAIN COMMISSION, international commission to regulate the navigation of the Danube river. See DANUBE: 1850-1816.

RIVOLI, Battle of (1797). See FRANCE: 1796-1797 (October-April).

RIVOLI, Treaty of (1635). See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

RIYOBU, form of Japanese religious belief. See JAPAN: Religions.

RIZAL, José (1861-1896), Filipino patriot and novelist. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1896-1898.

RIZEH, or Rizah, town in Asiatic Turkey, on the Black sea, thirty-five miles east of Trebizond. In 1916 it was occupied by the Russians. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 3.

RIZZIO, or Riccio, David (c. 1533-1566), Italian secretary of Mary Queen of Scots. See SCOTLAND: 1561-1568.

RO, artificial language. See INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGES: Other proposed languages.

ROAD, Royal. See ROYAL ROAD OF ANCIENT PERSIA.

ROAD OF MARTYRS, road between Toulouse and Carcassone, France, where the invading Arabs were repulsed, 721. See CALIPHATE: 715-732.

ROADS, Sacred, Greece. See SACRED ROADS IN GREECE.

ROANOKE, island off the coast of North Carolina, separated from the mainland by Croatan sound.

1585-1752.—First English settlements.—Lost colony. See AMERICA: 1584-1586; 1587-1590; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

1862.—Capture by Burnside's expedition. See U.S.A.: 1862 (January-April: North Carolina).

ROBBIA, Luca della (c. 1400-1482), Florentine sculptor. See SCULPTURE: Early Renaissance.

ROBE, La Nobless de la. See PARLEMENT OF PARIS.

ROBERT I (c. 865-923), king of France, 922-923. Son of Robert the Strong; usurped power and drove out Charles the Simple. See FRANCE: 877-987.

Robert II, the Pious (c. 970-1031), king of France, 996-1031. Son of Hugh Capet; gained the duchy of Burgundy, 1015, through the death of his uncle in 1001.

Robert, the Wise (1275-1343), king of Naples, 1309-1343. Leader of the Guelphs; patron of Petrarch and Boccaccio. See ITALY: 1313-1330; FLORENCE: 1301-1313.

Robert I, the Bruce (1274-1329), king of Scotland, 1304-1329. Fought for the kingdom of Scotland against Edward I, 1304-1314; won the battle of Bannockburn, 1314; received recognition of his title in the Treaty of Northampton, 1328. See SCOTLAND: 1370.

Robert II, the Steward (c. 1316-1390), king of Scotland, 1371-1390. First of the Stuart dynasty. See SCOTLAND: 1370.

Robert III (c. 1340-1406), king of Scotland,

1390-1406. During his reign the power was in the hands of his brother, Robert, earl of Fife.

Robert I, the Devil (d. 1035), duke of Normandy, 1028-1035. Aided exiled English princes, Edward and Alfred; made pilgrimage to Jerusalem; died at Nicæa; became center of many myths.

Robert II (c. 1054-1134), duke of Normandy, 1087-1134. Eldest son of William the Conqueror; fought against William II of England, 1089, 1094; took part in the First Crusade, 1096-1100; invaded England, 1101; taken prisoner by Henry II of England, 1106. See CRUSADES: 1096-1099; ENGLAND: 1087-1135.

Robert II (d. 1111), count of Flanders, 1063-1111. See CRUSADES: 1096-1099.

ROBERT DE BETHUNE, count of Flanders, 1305-1322. See FLANDERS: 1299-1304.

ROBERT GUISCARD (c. 1015-1085), duke of Apulia and Calabria, 1057-1085. Leader of the Normans in Italy; with his brother Roger conquered part of Italy from the Saracens; captured and sacked Rome, 1084, and delivered Pope Gregory VIII from Henry IV.

ROBERT OF COURTENAY (d. 1228), emperor of Romania, or Constantinople, 1221-1228.

ROBERT OF GENEVA, or Clement VII (d. 1394), antipope, 1378-1394. Opposed to Urban VI. See PAPACY: 1352-1378.

ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER (fl. 1300), English chronicler.

ROBERT THE STRONG (d. 866), count of Anjou and Blois. See FRANCE: 861.

ROBERT, Nicholas Louis, French inventor. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

ROBERT COLLEGE.—Robert College was founded at Constantinople in 1863 by James A. and William B. Dwight, sons of an American missionary to Turkey, the Rev. Harrison G. O. Dwight. It was named after Christopher R. Robert, of New York, its main supporter, whose gifts to it amounted to \$450,000. Its first president was the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin, who presided over it until 1877, when he resigned and was succeeded by the Rev. Dr. George Washburn.

Influence on Bulgaria. See BULGARIA: 1900.

ROBERT ESPAGNE, town in France, in the Marne region, about five miles southwest of Bar le Duc. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: p, 7.

ROBERTS, Frederick Sleight, 1st Earl (1832-1914), British field marshal. Served in India, 1851-1878; in Afghanistan, 1878-1880; commander-in-chief in India, 1885-1893; in Ireland, 1895-1899; in South Africa during the Boer War, 1899-1900; commander-in-chief of the British army, 1900-1904. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (January-February); (March): Proclamation, etc.; 1900 (March-May); (May-June); (August-December); (November); WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1907-1909; British territorial force; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 18.

ROBERTS, George Henry (1869-), British statesman. Entered Parliament, 1906; lord commissioner of the treasury, 1915-1916; minister of labor, 1917-1918; food controller, 1919-1920.

ROBERTS, Joseph Jenkins (1809-1876), first president of Liberia, 1847. See LIBERIA: 1846-1863.

ROBERTS, Robert (d. 1898), English Christadelphian preacher. See CHRISTADELPHIANS.

ROBERTSON, James (1742-1814), American pioneer. See TENNESSEE: 1760-1772; 1785-1796.

ROBERTSON, Thomas William (1829-1871), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1843-1895.

ROBERTSON, William (1721-1793), Scottish historian. See **HISTORY**: 25.

ROBERVAL, François de la Roch, Sieur de (d. 1540), French colonist in Canada. See **AMERICA**: 1541-1603.

ROBESON, George Maxwell (1829-1897), American political leader. Secretary of the navy, 1869-1877; member of Congress, 1879-1883. See **U.S.A.**: 1869-1877.

ROBESPIERRE, Maximilien François Marie Isidore de (1758-1794), French revolutionist. See **FRANCE**: 1790-1791: Oath of the clergy; 1791 (July-September); 1792 (August-September); (November-December); 1793-1794 (November-June); 1794 (June-July): French victory at Fleurus; 1794 (June-July): Monstrous Law, etc.

ROBIN HOOD BALLADS. See **BALLAD**: Development.

ROBINSON, Charles (1818-1894), American political leader. Governor of Kansas Territory, 1856-1860; became first governor of the state, 1861. See **KANSAS**: 1861-1865.

ROBINSON, Henry Mauris (1868-), American lawyer. Served in the Council of National Defense, 1917-1918; member of the Supreme Economic Council of the Peace Conference of Paris, 1919; member of the United States Shipping Board, 1919; representative at the First International Labor Conference, 1919; chairman of the Bituminous Coal Commission, 1920. See **U.S.A.**: 1918-1920.

ROBINSON, Hercules George Robert, 1st Baron Rosmead. See **ROSMEAD, HERCULES GEORGE ROBERT ROBINSON, 1ST BARON.**

ROBINSON, James Fisher (1800-1892), governor of Kentucky, 1862-1863.

ROBINSON, James Harvey (1863-), American historian. See **HISTORY**: 33.

ROBINSON, John (1575-1625), English Non-conformist minister. See **INDEPENDENTS, OR SEPARATISTS**: 1604-1617.

ROBOGDII, early native Irish tribe. See **IRELAND**: Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants.

ROCA, Julio Argentino (1843-1914), Argentine general and statesman. Minister of war, 1874-1880; president of Argentina, 1880-1886, 1898-1904. See **ARGENTINA**: 1880-1891.

ROCCASECCA, Battle of (1411). See **ITALY**: (Southern): 1386-1414.

ROCHAMBEAU, Jean Baptiste Donatien de Vimeur, Comte de (1725-1807), French marshal. Distinguished himself in the War of the Austrian Succession and in the Seven Years' War; sent to America as lieutenant-general with a force of 6,000 to assist Washington, 1780; made marshal of France, 1791; commanded the Army of the North, 1791-1792. See **U.S.A.**: 1781 (May-October); 1790 (July).

ROCHDALE, parliamentary and municipal borough in England, eleven miles northeast of Manchester, on the Roch. In 1921 it had a population of 90,807. It is the seat of the Rochdale Equitable Pioneer's Society, an experiment in coöperation. See **COÖPERATION**: Origin; England; **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: England; **SOCIALISM**: 1844-1848.

ROCHE, Guy de la (d. 1264), ruler of Athens, 1225-1264. See **ATHENS**: 1205-1308.

ROCHE, Otto de la, ruler of Athens, c. 1205-1225. See **ATHENS**: 1205-1308.

ROCHELLE, La, seaport in France, on an arm of the Bay of Biscay, about 120 miles northwest of Bordeaux. Its population in 1906 was 24,524.

Early importance.—Expulsion of the English.—Grant of municipal independence.—"Rochelle had always been one of the first commercial places

of France; it was well known to the English under the name of the White Town, as they called it, from its appearance when the sun shone and was reflected from its rocky coasts. It was also much frequented by the Netherlanders. . . . The town had . . . enjoyed extraordinary municipal franchises ever since the period of the English wars [see **FRANCE**: 1337-1360, and 1360-1380]. It had by its own unaided power revolted from the English dominion [1372], for which Charles V., in his customary manner, conferred upon the townsfolk valuable privileges,—among others, that of independent jurisdiction in the town and its liberties. The design of Henry II. to erect a citadel within their walls they had been enabled fortunately to prevent, through the favour of the Chatillons and the Montmorencies. Rochelle exhibited Protestant sympathies at an early period."—L. von Ranke, *Civil wars and monarchy in France, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries*, ch. 14.

ALSO IN: H. M. Baird, *History of the rise of the Huguenots of France*, v. 2, pp. 270-273.

1568.—Becomes headquarters of the Huguenots.—Arrival of queen of Navarre. See **FRANCE**: 1563-1570.

1573.—Siege and successful defense. See **FRANCE**: 1572-1573.

1620-1622.—Huguenot revolt in support of Navarre and Béarn.—Unfavorable peace of Montpelier. See **FRANCE**: 1620-1622.

1625-1626.—Renewed revolt.—Second treaty of Montpelier. See **FRANCE**: 1624-1626.

1627-1628.—Revolt in alliance with England.—Siege and surrender.—Richelieu's dyke.—Decay of the city. See **FRANCE**: 1627-1628.

ROCHESTER, England, port, municipal and parliamentary borough in the county of Kent, on the Medway river, thirty-three miles southeast of London. The city had (1911) a population of 31,384. One of the two Roman towns in Britain called Durobrivæ is identified in site with the modern city. It derived its Saxon name—originally "Hrofescester"—"according to Bede, from one of its early rulers or prefects named Hrof."—Based on T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5, 16.—See also **DUROBRIVÆ**.

ROCHESTER, New York, county seat of Monroe county, seventy miles northeast of Buffalo. It is the third largest city in the state and in 1920 had a population of 295,750. The village of Rochesterville was founded about 1812 on the "hundred-acre tract," bought in 1802 by Nathaniel Rochester, Charles Carroll and William Fitzhugh. In 1817 the name was changed to Rochester, and in 1834 the city was chartered. In 1825 the opening of the Erie canal gave the first stimulus to its commercial growth.

ROCHLITZ, Friedrich (1769-1842), German novelist and musical critic. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1800-1908.

ROCK OF BEHISTUN. See **BEHISTUN, ROCK OF**.

ROCK OF CASHEL. See **CASHEL**.

"**ROCK OF CHICAMAUGA**," nickname of General George Henry Thomas. See **U.S.A.**: 1863 (August-September: Tennessee): Rosecrans' advance.

ROCK SPRINGS, city in Sweetwater county, Wyoming, 258 miles west of Laramie. It was the scene of a race riot, 1885. See **WYOMING**: 1868-1889.

ROCKEFELLER, John Davison, Sr. (1839-), American financier and philanthropist. Head of the Standard Oil Company, 1882-1911. See **CAPITALISM**: 19th century: United States; **GEN-**

ERAL EDUCATION BOARD; GIFTS AND BEQUESTS; ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION; TRUSTS: United States: Standard Oil Company.

ROCKEFELLER, John Davison, Jr., (1874-), American capitalist and philanthropist. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1906-1908; COLORADO: 1915.

ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION: International health board.—China medical board.—Division of medical education.—World War relief.—"The purpose of the Rockefeller Foundation [founded in 1912] in the words of the Charter, is 'to promote the well-being of mankind throughout the world.' [It] was established in order to provide an agency, not dependent upon the life of any individual, which should deal with the problems of philanthropy in accordance with the principles and methods most approved in each generation."—*Philanthropic boards established by John D. Rockefeller* pp. 14-15.—"It accomplishes its work through (1) agencies, which it creates to carry out specific programs, and (2) other existing organizations unaffiliated with the Foundation, to which it makes appropriations to enable them to carry out specific items of programs in public health and medical education. Agencies of the first class are (1) The International Health Board; (2) The China Medical Board; (3) The Division of Medical Education. [The] International Health Board [which was organized in 1913], conducts public health demonstrations and develops coöperative public health programs in different parts of the world. These programs, conducted always in coöperation with government authority, in 1920 were carried on principally in 12 southern states . . . in combating malaria and hook-worm disease, and in 22 foreign countries, states, or islands in combating these diseases and yellow fever. [The] Board has extended its activities to every section of the world where yellow fever is known to exist. [It gave] . . . assistance to the Republic of Czechoslovakia in the organization of its public health administration and laboratory service. For the purpose of training native personnel and promoting greater efficiency and higher standards in public health, . . . [it] provides foreign fellowships for the study of public health in the United States. After the World War, it gave [special attention to the eradication of tuberculosis in France]."—G. P. Hendricks, *Handbook of social resources of the United States*, p. 258.—"The China Medical Board, which was established in 1913, has for its purpose the promotion and development of scientific medicine and hygiene in China through medical schools, hospitals, training schools for nurses, etc. . . . After consultation with a number of persons who have lived or travelled in the Far East, the Foundation decided in January, 1914, that the most appropriate work for it in China would be to assist in the development of scientific medicine there. . . . To carry out the recommendations of the investigating commission [sent out in 1914], whose report was adopted as a basis for the proposed work, the China Medical Board was established . . . to develop two medical schools of high standard, one at Peking and the other at Shanghai."—*Philanthropic boards established by John D. Rockefeller*, pp. 26, 27.—The China Medical Board "develops the Foundation's program of medical education in China. Has planned and is supporting in full a medical center at Peking, including a medical school [which was opened in 1921], pre-medical school, hospital, and nurse-training school. Through this Board the Foundation gives aid to medical schools and hospitals already established

in China, [and] provides fellowships and scholarships . . . [for] advanced medical study in the U. S. . . . [by] medical missionaries . . . [and] Chinese physicians and nurses. [The] Division of Medical Education has conducted investigations of medical education in Canada and western and central Europe. . . . Other work of the Foundation includes maintenance of a School of Public Health at Johns Hopkins University; . . . studies and demonstrations in mental hygiene and in hospital and dispensary service; support through National Research Council . . . of research in physics and chemistry; contributions to medical centers in Canada, London and Brussels, and emergency aid to medical institutions throughout Europe."—G. P. Hendricks, *Handbook of social resources of the United States*, pp. 258, 259.—"In October, 1914, the Rockefeller Foundation determined to send a War Relief Commission to Europe to make a firsthand study of conditions requiring relief, especially as they affected non-combatants, and to advise the Trustees as to the . . . means of rendering aid most effectively. . . . [As the result of a] survey . . . made of the organization and workings of relief in Belgium, Holland, Poland, Serbia, Montenegro, Turkey, and Italy . . . the Foundation made appropriations for relief measures in certain of the countries visited."—*Philanthropic boards established by John D. Rockefeller*, pp. 32-33.—See also WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 8.

ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE FOR MEDICAL RESEARCH.—The Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research was incorporated in 1901 to conduct, assist, and encourage investigations in the sciences and arts of hygiene, medicine and surgery, and allied subjects, in the nature and cause of disease, and methods of treatment and prevention. It makes knowledge relating to these subjects available for the protection of public health and the improved treatment of disease and injury, and through the department of laboratories conducts important research work. The hospital, established 1910, admits patients suffering from certain diseases chosen for observation and study and also offers clinical facilities. The department of animal pathology (1915) studies diseases of animals which are of great economic importance or which may throw light upon problems of human pathology.—Based on G. P. Hendricks, *Handbook of social resources of the United States*, p. 259.

ROCKEFELLER PLAN. See COLORADO: 1915.

ROCKHILL, William Woodville (1854-1914), American diplomat. Minister to Greece, Rumania, and Serbia, 1897-1899; director of the International Bureau of American Republics, 1899-1905; minister to China, 1905-1909; ambassador to Russia, 1909-1911; ambassador to Turkey, 1911-1914. See CHINA: 1901-1908.

ROCKINGHAM, Charles Watson Wentworth, 2nd Marquess of (1730-1782), British statesman. Prime minister, 1765-1766; 1782. See ENGLAND: 1764-1765; 1782-1783.

ROCROI, town in northern France, twenty-two miles northwest of Charleville and two miles from the Belgian frontier.

1643.—Siege of. See FRANCE: 1642-1643.

1653.—Siege and capture by Condé in Spanish service. See FRANCE: 1653-1656.

1659.—Recovered by France. See FRANCE: 1650-1661.

ROD, Black. See BLACK ROD.

RODBERTUS, Karl Johann (1805-1875), German socialist. Member of the Prussian national

assembly, 1848-1849; appointed minister of public worship and education, 1848. See **SOCIALISM**: 1836-1875.

RODIN, Auguste (1840-1917), French sculptor. See **SCULPTURE**: Modern; **ART**: Definitions and theories.

RODNEY, Cæsar (1728-1784), American patriot. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See **U.S.A.**: 1774 (September); 1765: Stamp Act Congress; 1776: (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

RODNEY, George Brydges, Baron (1718-1792), English admiral. Served in the Seven Years' War; victor over the Spanish in the battle off Cape St. Vincent, 1780; and over the French in the battle of Dominica, 1782. See **ENGLAND**: 1780-1782.

RODOGAST. See **RADAGAIUS**.

RODOLF, or Rodolph. See **RUDOLPH**.

RODRIGUEZ, Juan Gaspar (1761-1840), dictator of Paraguay, 1811-1840. See **PARAGUAY**: 1608-1873.

RODRIGUEZ, island in the Indian ocean, 320 miles east of the island of Mauritius. Its area is about 42 square miles, and its population in 1921 was 6,584. See **MASCARENE ISLANDS**.

RODZIANKO, Michael Vassilievich (1859-), Russian statesman. President of the Russian Duma, 1911-1917. See **RUSSIA**: 1916: Opposition of Duma, etc.; 1917 (March 8-15); **WORLD WAR**: 1917: III. Russia and the Eastern front: f.

ROEBLING, John Augustus (1806-1869), American engineer. Builder of Brooklyn Bridge, 1869. See **NEW YORK CITY**: 1867-1915.

ROENTGEN. See **RÖNTGEN**.

ROESKILD, Peace of (1658). See **SWEDEN**: 1644-1697.

ROGATION.—With reference to the legislation of the Romans, "the word Rogatio is frequently used to denote a Bill proposed to the people. . . . After a Rogatio was passed it became a Lex; but in practice Rogatio and Lex were used as convertible terms, just as Bill and Law are by ourselves."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquities*, ch. 4.

ROGATION DAYS, Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday before Ascension day in the Christian church calendar. On these days litanies were chanted in procession (rogationes).

ROGER I (1031-1101), grand count of Sicily, 1096-1101.

Roger II (c. 1093-1154), king of Sicily, 1130-1154, grand count of Sicily, 1101-1130. United Norman conquests in Italy with Sicily, 1127-1139; invaded Byzantine empire, 1146. See **AMALFI**; **BYZANTINE EMPIRE**: 1146.

ROGER DI FLOR (1262-1306), German military adventurer and leader of Catalan Grand Company. Served with the Knights Templar, 1291; vice-admiral of Sicily under Frederick of Aragon until 1302; served under the Byzantine emperor, Andronicus II, 1303-1304; created cæsar, 1306. See **CATALAN GRAND COMPANY**.

ROGER OF HOVEDEN, or Howden (fl. 1174-1201), early English chronicler. See **HISTORY**: 19.

ROGER OF PALERMO, teacher of medicine at Salerno during the twelfth century. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Medieval: 12th-15th centuries.

ROGERS, John (c. 1500-1555), English Protestant clergyman and martyr. Published "Mathew's Bible," 1537. See **BIBLE, ENGLISH**: 16th-17th centuries.

ROGERS, Robert (1731-1795), American soldier. Served in the French and Indian War, 1755-1766; arrested by the Americans, 1775; fought in

the English army under Howe, 1775-1776. See **NEW BRUNSWICK**: 1758-1785.

ROGERS, Woodes (d. 1732), English privateer and colonial governor. Became first crown governor of the Bahamas, 1718. See **BAHAMA ISLANDS**: 1492-1783.

ROHATYN, town in southern Poland, about thirty miles southeast of Lemberg. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 3.

ROHILLA WAR (1772-1774). See **INDIA**: 1773-1785.

ROIS FAINEANS, appellation of the Merovingian kings. See **FRANKS**: 511-752.

ROISIN, town in Belgium, about two miles from the French border, and fifteen miles southwest of Mons. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: w, 2.

ROJAS, Paul José Pablo (c. 1845-1905), president of Venezuela, 1888-1890. See **VENEZUELA**, 1896-1892.

ROJDESTVENSKY, Ziniv Petrovitch. See **ROZHDESTVENSKY**.

ROKYCANA, or Rokycan, John of, Bohemian churchman. Leader of the Moravian sect, elected archbishop of Prague, 1453. See **BOHEMIA**: 1434-1457.

ROLAND, name of famous bell in Ghent. See **GHEENT**: 1539-1540.

ROLAND, Legend of: Historical foundation. See **SPAIN**: 778.

Romances of. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1050-1350.

ROLAND DE LA PLATIERE, Jean Marie (1734-1793), French statesman. Leader of the Girondists and member of the Jacobin club; minister of the interior, March-June, 1792; August, 1792-January, 1793; deputy to the Convention; opposed extreme revolutionists. See **FRANCE**: 1792 (August); (September); (September-November); **GIRONDIS**.

ROLAND DE LA PLATIERE, Manon Jeanne Philipon (1754-1793), Girondist leader. Wife of Jean Marie Roland; wrote articles for the press under her husband's name; conducted famous salon and is known in history as Madame Roland; executed by revolutionists. See **FRANCE**: 1791 (October); 1793 (September-December); **GIRONDIS**.

ROLAND IMAGES, statues erected in the market places of German towns in medieval days. See **HANSA TOWNS**.

ROLFE, John (1585-1622), English colonist at Jamestown. First Englishman to cultivate tobacco, 1612. See **VIRGINIA**: 1609-1616.

ROLICA, Battle of (1808). See **SPAIN**: 1808-1809 (August-January).

ROLLAND, Romain (1866-), French novelist. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1800-1921; **Realistic school**, **NOBEL PRIZES: Literature**: 1915.

ROLLI, Paolo (1687-1767), Italian poet. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1600-1800.

ROLLO, Hrolf, or Rolf (c. 860-927), first duke of Normandy. Took Rouen and compelled Charles the Simple to make him ruler of Normandy, 911. See **NORMANS**: 876-911; **NORMANDY**: 911-1000; **PARIS**: 885-886.

ROLLS, Keeper of the. See **EQUITY LAW**: 1066.

ROLLS OF THE PIPE. See **EXCHEQUER**.

ROLSKILDE, Peace of (1658). See **BRANDENBURG**: 1640-1688.

ROMA QUADRATA, early name for the city of Rome, comprising only the Palatine. See **PALATINE HILL**.

ROMAGNA.—The old exarchate of Ravenna, "as having been the chief seat of the later Imperial power in Italy, got the name of Romania,

Romandiola, or Romagna."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe*, pp. 234, 238.

1499-1507.—Partly held by Cesare Borgia.—Quarrels between Borgia and nobles. See ITALY: 1499-1507; VENICE: 1494-1503.

1859.—In kingdom of Italy.—Extent of dominions. See AUSTRIA: 1856-1859; ITALY: Map showing unification.

1914.—General strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1914.

ROMAGNANO, Battle of (1524). See FRANCE: 1523-1525.

ROMAGNE, town in eastern France, about twenty miles from the Luxemburg border and twelve miles north of Verdun. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: v, 6.

ROMAGNE-SOUS-MONTFAUCON, town in eastern France, about eighteen miles northwest of Verdun. It was a scene of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: v, 4.

ROMAN ARCHITECTURE. See ARCHITECTURE: Classic: Roman.

ROMAN ARMY. See PRÆTORIAN GUARDS.

ROMAN AUGURS. See AUGURS.

ROMAN CALENDAR. See CHRONOLOGY: Julian era.

ROMAN CATACOMBS. See CATACOMBS.

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH. See CHRISTIANITY; PAPACY; VATICAN.

ROMAN CIRCUS. See CIRCUS, FACTIONS OF THE ROMAN.

ROMAN CITIZENSHIP: Under the republic. See QUIRITES.

Under the empire.—"While Pompeius, Cæsar, Augustus and others extended the Latin rights to many provincial communities, they were careful to give the full Roman qualification [the 'privileges of Quiritary proprietorship, which gave not merely the empty title of the suffrage, but the precious immunity from tribute or land-tax'] to persons only. Of such persons, indeed, large numbers were admitted to citizenship by the emperors. The full rights of Rome were conferred on the Transalpine Gauls by Claudius, and the Latin rights on the Spaniards by Vespian; but it was with much reserve that any portions of territory beyond Italy were enfranchised, and rendered Italic or Quiritary soil, and thus endowed with a special immunity. . . . The earlier emperors had, indeed, exercised a jealous reserve in popularizing the Roman privileges; but from Claudius downwards they seem to have vied with one another in the facility with which they conferred them as a boon, or imposed them as a burden. . . . The practice of purchasing Civitas was undoubtedly common under Claudius. . . . Neither Hadrian, as hastily affirmed by St. Chrysostom, nor his next successor, as has been inferred from a confusion of names, was the author of the decree by which the Roman franchise was finally communicated to all the subjects of the empire. Whatever the progress of enfranchisement may have been, this famous consummation was not effected till fifty years after our present date, by the act of Antoninus Caracalla [211-217]."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 67, with footnote.

See also NATURALIZATION: Growth of the idea, etc.

ROMAN CITY FESTIVAL.—The "Roman chief festival or festival of the city (ludi maximi, Romani) . . . was an extraordinary thanksgiving festival celebrated in honour of the Capitoline Jupiter and the gods dwelling along with him,

ordinarily in pursuance of a vow made by the general before battle, and therefore usually observed on the return home of the burgess-force in autumn. A festal procession proceeded toward the Circus staked off between the Palatine and Aventine. . . . In each species of contest there was but one competition, and that between not more than two competitors."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 1, ch. 15.

ROMAN CIVIL WAR (50-31 B.C.). See ROME: Republic: B.C. 52-50, to B.C. 31.

ROMAN COINAGE AND MONEY. See MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Rome.

ROMAN COPYRIGHT. See COPYRIGHT: Early conceptions.

ROMAN COURTS. See COURTS: Roman.

ROMAN CURIA. See CURIA, PAPAL.

ROMAN DRAMA. See DRAMA: Roman.

ROMAN EDUCATION. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 6th-A.D. 5th centuries.

ROMAN EMPIRE. See ROME: Empire.

ROMAN EMPIRE, Holy. See HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.

ROMAN ERA. See CHRONOLOGY: Era of the foundation of Rome.

ROMAN ETHICS. See ETHICS: Greece, Ancient: B.C. 2nd-A.D. 4th centuries.

ROMAN FAMILY.—"When we say that the Family is the basis of Roman society, we mean that it is the Family, not the Individual, of which the State takes account. . . . And it is to be remembered that emancipated children formed no part of the family of their birth: they belonged to some other family. This Family is under the absolute rule of the Father. All the persons, and the estate also, are in his [manus] 'hand.' But if he is supreme head of the Family, and so enjoys all the rights, on the other hand it is he who is liable for the fulfilment of all the duties. He has the estate, but out of it he must maintain the members of the Family: above all, he must see that the proper offerings and acts of worship are duly performed, and so ensure the favour of the gods. For every Family has its own goods, and its religious observances must be performed by its own representative. There must therefore always be someone in the position of Father. As no woman could be the head of a Family, it is clear that sons, or one son at least, were necessary for the continuance of the Family. In case no son was born to him in the course of nature, the Father could and did make good the deficiency by adopting some one as his son. The adopted son was in exactly the same position as a son by birth would have been; he was subject to the absolute power of the adopting Father, and henceforth owed worship to the gods of his new family, not to those of that which he was born. He was thus qualified to succeed his new Father at death and become Father of the Family himself. A woman was always in the 'hand' of some man; in other words some man was always her Father. Her marriage meant that she was 'discharged' from the hand of one 'Father' into that of another."—W. E. Heitland, *Roman republic*, pp. 33-34.—See also ROME: Ancient kingdom: Genesis of the people; GENS.

ROMAN FETIALES. See FETIALES.

ROMAN FREEDMEN.—In the organization of the great Roman households, freedmen, or manumitted slaves found many opportunities for a career. The vast senatorial estates, often scattered over three continents, were managed by freedmen of education and business capacity. Julius Cæsar introduced them into public affairs in the first century when he installed some of his household

as officers of the mint. "The power of the imperial freedmen . . . increased to unendurable bounds under Claudius' facile régime. It will be remembered that while the Senate had Roman questors and ædiles to administer their departments, Augustus had organized his bureaux as a part of his personal household. His own financial agent—who according to business customs was a freedman, continued to be the fiscal agent even after the enormous revenues of a dozen provinces came into his hands. Such agents and secretaries naturally secured even greater power as the emperor's power grew. Under Caligula and Claudius, they might be called cabinet secretaries, ex-slaves as they were . . . Callistus Caligula's filthy-handed freedmen who had aided Claudius to the throne, now became his secretary of petitions. . . . On such men Claudius was largely dependent, since he had no experience in affairs of State and these men seem to have made the greatest possible profit out of their positions."—T. Frank, *History of Rome*, pp. 426-427.

ALSO IN: S. Dill, *Roman society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius*, pp. 106-108.

ROMAN GUILDS. See GUILDS; ROMAN.

ROMAN INDICTION. See INDICATIONS.

ROMAN INQUISITION. See INQUISITION: 1487-1567.

ROMAN LAW. See CIVIL LAW; CORPUS JURIS CIVILIS; CONSULTA, SENATUS; COMMON LAW: 1388; 1854; AGRARIAN LAW; CALPURNIAN LAW; CODES: B. C. 509; DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE: Consular service: Origin; ECONOMICS: Romans; EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Effect of imperial dominion; INTERNATIONAL LAW: Usages in the ancient world; JULIAN LAWS; JUS GENTIUM; POSTLLMINUM; RIPARIAN RIGHTS: Theories of water law; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 890-1345.

ROMAN LEGION. See LEGION, ROMAN.

ROMAN LIBRA. See LIBRA, ROMAN.

ROMAN LIBRARIES. See LIBRARIES: Ancient: Rome.

ROMAN LITERATURE. See LATIN LITERATURE.

ROMAN MEDICAL SCIENCE. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: A. D. 1st century; 2nd century.

ROMAN NOSE, American Indian chief. See U. S. A.: 1866-1876.

ROMAN PANTHEON. See PANTHEON AT ROME.

ROMAN PEACE (*Pax Romana*).—"The benefits conferred upon the world by the universal dominion of Rome were of quite inestimable value. First of these benefits, . . . was the prolonged peace that was enforced throughout large portions of the world where chronic warfare had hitherto prevailed. The 'pax romana' has perhaps been sometimes depicted in exaggerated colours; but as compared with all that had preceded, and with all that followed, down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, it deserved the encomiums it has received."—J. Fiske, *American political ideas viewed from the standpoint of universal history*, lecture 2.

ROMAN PLEBS. See PLEBEIANS, OR PLEBS, ROMAN.

ROMAN PONTIFICES. See AUGURS; PONTIFF, ROMAN.

ROMAN POSTAL SYSTEM. See POSTAL SYSTEMS: Origin.

ROMAN PRÆTORS, PROCONSULS, AND PROPRÆTORS. See CONSUL; PROCONSUL AND PROPRÆTOR, ROMAN.

ROMAN PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT.—

For the Roman nobles "debarred as they were from trade, . . . a career in the public service became a great avenue to the accumulation of enormous wealth. The Roman carried with him into the provinces the slave-owner's arrogance and confidence. Their conquest by war had meant for provincials only plundering; in times of peace Rome's governors and officials, seeking to make their fortunes by their administration, pursued a policy of uninterrupted pillage. . . . Only a man with the spirit of a Horace could resist the temptation of a lucrative governorship and prefer the prospect of a good crop at home to the dazzling pro-consulship of fertile Africa. The term of office for the governor was one year only. When the safety of the province was endangered, however, it was deemed a matter of such importance to have the administration continue uninterrupted, that the appointment of a successor was not permitted and the measure to lengthen the governorship was not subject to veto. . . . The governor, it would seem moreover, had some power on his withdrawal from the province, to appoint a deputy as interim administrator. No inconsiderable part of the governor's duties was the credit of the province. To arrange the finances of the towns, to satisfy the tax-farmers, to deal with disputes between Roman citizens and provincials he held court at various centres. It was a necessity of his position to keep his friends at home informed of all movements in his own and neighboring states and to be in touch himself with the political situation in Rome. For this purpose he found the messengers of the tax-contractors very useful in transmitting and forwarding mails. Any account of Roman provincial government, however, would be incomplete without a reference to the numerous demands on a governor for assistance. Personal applications for posts and requests to enforce payment on luckless provincials were constantly urged."—E. H. Oliver, *Roman economic conditions to close of republic*, pp. 154-156.

ROMAN QUESTION. See ITALY: 1862-1866.
ROMAN REPUBLICS, Fall of. See FRANCE: 1799 (August-December).

ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN.—"Four principal lines of road have been popularly known as 'the four Roman ways.' In the time of Edward the Confessor, and probably much earlier, there were four roads in England protected by the king's peace. These were called Watlinge-strete, Fosse, Hickenilde-strete, and Erming-strete. Watling-street runs from London to Wroxeter. The Fosse from the sea coast near Seaton in Devonshire to Lincoln. The Ikenild-street from Iclingham near Bury St. Edmund's in Suffolk, to Wantage in Berkshire, and on to Cirencester and Gloucester. The Erming-street ran through the Fenny district of the east of England. These streets seem to have represented a combination of those portions of the Roman roads which in later times were adopted and kept in repair for the sake of traffic. . . . The name of 'Watling-street' became attached to other roads, as the Roman road beyond Northumbrian wall, which crossed the Tyne at Corbridge and ran to the Frith of Forth at Cramond, bears that name; and the Roman road beyond Uriconium (Wroxeter) to Bravinium (Leintwarden) Salop, is also called Watling-street. The street in Canterbury through which the road from London to Dover passes is known as Watling-street, and a street in London also bears that name. . . . Two lines of road also bear the name of the Icknield-

street, or Hikenilde-street; but there is some reason to believe that the Icknield-street was only a British trackway and never became a true Roman road."—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 13.—"In the fifth year after the Conquest, inquisition was made throughout the kingdom into the ancient laws and customs of England. . . . From this source we learn, that there were at that time in England four great roads protected by the King's Peace, of which two ran lengthways through the island, and two crossed it, and that the names of the four were respectively, Watlinge-strete, Fosse, Hikenilde-strete and Erming-strete. These are the roads which are popularly but incorrectly known as 'the four Roman ways.' . . . The King's Peace was a high privilege. Any offence committed on these highways was tried, not in the local court, where local influence might interfere with the administration of justice, but before the king's own officers."—E. Guest, *Origines Celticae*, v. 2: *Four Roman ways*.—See also **BRITAIN**: 411; **WATLING STREET**.

ROMAN ROADS IN ITALY. See **ALPS**; **APPIAN WAY**; **ÆMILIAN WAY**; **AURELIAN ROAD**; **CASIAN ROAD**; **POSTUMIAN ROAD**; **COMMERCE**: Ancient: 200-600.

ROMAN SATURNALIA. See **SATURNALIA**.

ROMAN SCHOOL OF MUSIC. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1535-1674.

ROMAN SCULPTURE. See **SCULPTURE**: Roman.

ROMAN SENATE. See **SENATE**, **ROMAN**.

ROMAN SOCIAL WAR. See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 90-88.

ROMAN VESTALS. See **VESTAL VIRGINS**.

ROMAN WALLS IN BRITAIN.—There were two great fortified walls constructed by the Romans in Britain, but the name is most often applied to the first one, which was built under the orders of the Emperor Hadrian, from the Solway to the Tyne, seventy miles long and from eighteen to nineteen feet high, of solid masonry, with towers at intervals and with ditches throughout. In the reign of Antoninus Pius a second fortified line, farther to the north, extending from the Forth to the Clyde, was constructed. This latter was a rampart of earth connecting numerous forts. Hadrian's wall was strengthened at a later time by Severus and is sometimes called by his name. Popularly it is called "Graham's Dike." Both walls were for the protection of Roman Britain from the wild tribes of Caledonia.—E. Guest, *Origines Celticae*, v. 2: *Four Roman ways*, pp. 88-94.—See also **BRITAIN**: 117-145.

ROMANA, Eduardo de, president of Peru, 1890-1903. See **PERU**: 1884-1908.

ROMANESQUE ARCHITECTURE AND SCULPTURE. See **ARCHITECTURE**: Medieval: Romanesque; **SCULPTURE**: Romanesque sculpture.

ROMANI, Battle at (1916). See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 2, i.

ROMANIA, Empire of.—The new feudal empire, constituted by the Crusaders and the Venetians, after their conquest of Constantinople, and having the great and venerable but half ruined capital of the Byzantines for its seat, received the name of the empire of Romania. The reign of its first emperor, the excellent Baldwin of Flanders, was brought to a tragical end in little more than a year from his coronation. Summoned to quell a revolt at Adrianople, he was attacked by the king of Bulgaria, defeated, taken prisoner and murdered within a year by his savage captor. He was succeeded on the throne by his brother Henry, a capable, energetic and valiant prince; but all the ability and all the vigor of Henry could not give

cohesion and strength to an empire which was false in its constitution and predestined to decay. On Henry's death, without children (1216), his sister Yoland's husband, Peter of Courtenay, a French baron, was elected emperor; but that unfortunate prince, on attempting to reach Constantinople by a forced march through the hostile Greek territory of Epirus, was taken captive and perished in an Epirot prison. His eldest son, Philip of Namur, wisely refused the imperial dignity; a younger son, Robert, accepted it, and reigned feebly until 1228, when he died. Then the venerable John de Brienne, ex-king of Jerusalem, was elected emperor-regent for life, the crown to pass on his death to Baldwin of Courtenay, a young brother of Robert. "John de Brienne died in 1237, after living to witness his empire confined to a narrow circuit round the walls of Constantinople. Baldwin II. prolonged the existence of the empire by begging assistance from the Pope and the king of France; and he collected the money necessary for maintaining his household and enjoying his precarious position, by selling the holy relics preserved by the Eastern Church [such, for example, as the crown of thorns, the bonds, the sponge and the cup of the crucifixion, the rod of Moses, etc.]. He was fortunate in finding a liberal purchaser in St. Louis. . . . At length, in the year 1261, a division of the Greek army [of the empire of Nicea] surprised Constantinople, expelled Baldwin, and put an end to the Latin power [see **NICEA**: 1204-1261], without the change appearing to be a revolution of much importance beyond the walls of the city."—G. Finlay, *History of Greece from its conquest by the Crusaders*, ch. 4.—In the last days of the sham empire, Baldwin II maintained his court "by tearing the copper from the domes of the public buildings erected by the Byzantine emperors, which he coined into money, and by borrowing gold from Venetian bankers, in whose hands he placed his eldest son Philip as a pledge."—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires*, from 716 to 1453, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1, sect. 3.—See also **BYZANTINE EMPIRE**: 1204-1205.

ROMANONES, Alvaro, Count de (1864-), Spanish statesman. Prime minister, 1916-1917; minister of justice and worship, 1917-1918. See **SPAIN**: 1914-1918; 1919-1920.

ROMANOV, House of. See **RUSSIA**: 1533-1682; 1918 (July).

ROMANTICISM: In history. See **HISTORY**: 30; 31.

In literature. See **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1780-1830; **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1780-1820; 1800-1885; 1800-1921: Romantic and idealistic, etc.; **GERMAN LITERATURE**: 1798-1896; **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1710-1890; 1750-1873; 1880-1920; **SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE**: 1750-1807; 1750-1850; 1782-1870; 1813-1877; **SPANISH LITERATURE**: 19th-20th centuries; **DRAMA**: 1800-1900.

In painting. See **PAINTING**: Europe (19th century).

In music. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1818-1880.

ROMANUS, pope, 807-808.

Romanus I (Lecapenus) (d. 948), Roman emperor (Eastern), 919-944.

Romanus II, Roman emperor (Eastern), 959-963.

Romanus III (Argyros), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1028-1034.

Romanus IV (Diogenes) (d. 1071), Roman emperor (Eastern), 1068-1071. Waged war against the Seljuk Turks; was forced to resign empire.

ROMANY, or **ROMMANY**, LANGUAGE. See **GYPSIES**; **PHILOLOGY**: 26.

ROME

ANCIENT KINGDOM

Genesis of the people of Rome.—“The Roman people belonged to that part of the Indo-European race which entered Italy and is, for that reason, often called Italic. [See PHILOLOGY: 9; 10.] At the beginning Rome was only an insignificant village community of Latium, the land of the Latins. The Italic stock were not the first inhabitants of Italy; they were preceded by the Mediterranean race whose presence in the Mediterranean basin is of unknown antiquity. The Italic stock was apparently scattered through the hills and valleys of Central Italy by 1000 B.C. or earlier. These people lived in huts and protected themselves as best they could. The beginnings of Rome consisted of collections of such huts. The site was selected because its seven hills could each be surrounded by palisades and be defended. Archaeological discoveries in the Forum seem to show that the site was occupied as early as 1000 B.C. About 800 B.C. that part of Italy now called Tuscany was invaded by a people from Asia, whom we call Etruscans. They were apparently kindred to the people of Lydia, for their art was similar to that of Lydia and they employed the same alphabet as the Lydians. The newcomers mingled with the Italic stock and formed the Etruscans of history. They were more civilized than the Italic population to the south of them.”—G. G. Barton, *Religions of the world*, p. 265.—“The rest of the peninsula was the home of the Italian stock, of which there were several branches. Of that in the southwest the most famous was the Latin people in the plain south of the Tiber; the inhabitants of Sicily belonged to the same branch. The mountaineers formed another vigorous branch, called, from their chief peoples, the Umbro-Sabellians. The Umbrians lived in the northern Apennines overlooking Etruria; the Sabellians were split into several tribes occupying the mountain-valleys of the centre and south. The most vigorous and numerous stock among them was the Samnite. The northern plain of the Po was the seat of mixed populations, a kind of vestibule for peoples to enter and mingle before pushing on southward to permanent homes.”—G. S. Goodspeed, *History of the ancient world*, p. 241.—“First, Rome was built by colonists from Alba Longa [traditional date, 753]; secondly, . . . these colonists were simple shepherds; thirdly, . . . the foundation of Rome dates from the age of bronze, and was caused by the necessity felt by the Alban shepherds to escape from the threatening neighborhood of the volcano. From these facts, duly verified and established, will follow the consequence that the Etruscans had nothing to do with the foundation of Rome. . . . The mighty river which washed the foot of the Palatine had, at that remote period, no special name; it was called Rumon, which means simply ‘a stream, a river.’ The inhabitants of the surrounding villages, which were mostly perched on high hills and mountains, Tusculum, Aricia, Alba, Tibur, Praeneste, having entered into commercial communications with the new settlement, began to name it from its most prominent topographical feature, from its connection with the Rumon or river: they called it Roma, which means the ‘town of the river.’ . . . They called the leader of the settlement Romulus, which means ‘the man from the town of the

river.’”—R. Lanciani, *Original Rome in the light of recent discoveries*, pp. 32-33.—See also ÆNEAS.—“When tradition gives us our first view of the Roman State we see it organized as follows. There is the whole body of the People, the community, as we might call it. Of this body there are sections, called curiæ, which sections are represented as existing from the foundation of Rome. The community is only conceived as divided into these sections or wards, for the two bodies come into being together. . . . We next learn that the curia was made up of gentes. The size of clans being necessarily various, we infer that the number of clans in the several curies must have varied also: and there is no real evidence to the contrary. The curies appear as political divisions on an equal footing: and in each curia no account is taken of the primitive grouping of its members in clans and families. But we are also told that the community consisted of three tribes, Ramnenses, Titienses, and Luceres. These tribes do not appear as original divisions of the community. . . . Each tribe is made up of curies: of these there are thirty, or ten to a tribe: and even after these three primitive tribes disappear the curies remain, thirty in number. Regarded as a part of the community, neither the tribes nor the curia have any organization. Neither can act independently, for want of machinery.”—W. E. Heitland, *Roman republic*, pp. 36-37.—“Its language was composed of the most diverse elements. The Latin predominated, but Sabellian roots were numerous, and more Greek radicals were found in it than in any other of the dialects of Central Italy. As to its name, no one knew to what language that belonged. According to some, Rome was a Trojan word; according to others, a Greek word. There are reasons for believing it to be Latin, but some of the ancients thought it to be Etruscan. The names of Roman families also attest a great diversity of origin. . . . The effect of this mixing of the most diverse nations was, that from the beginning Rome was related to all the peoples that it knew. It could call itself Latin with the Latins, Sabine with the Sabines, Etruscan with the Etruscans, and Greek with the Greeks. Its national worship was also an assemblage of several quite different worships, each one of which attached it to one of these nations.”—Fustel de Coulanges, *Ancient city*, bk. 5, ch. 2.—“The whole history of the world has been determined by the geological fact that at a point below the junction of the Tiber and the Anio the isolated hills stand nearer to one another than most of the other hills of Latium. On a site marked out above all other sites for dominion, the centre of Italy, the centre of Europe, as Europe then was, a site at the junction of the three of the great nations of Italy, and which had the great river as its highway to lands beyond the bounds of Italy, stood two low hills [see CAPITOLINE HILL; PALATINE HILL], the hill which bore the name of Latin Saturn, and the hill at the meaning of whose name Palatine scholars will perhaps guess for ever. These two hills, occupied by men of two of the nations of Italy, stood so near to one another that a strait choice indeed was laid on those who dwelled on them. They must either join together on terms closer than those which commonly united Italian leagues, or they must live a life of border warfare more ceaseless, more bitter, than the ordinary warfare of

Italian enemies. Legend, with all likelihood, tells us that warfare was tried; history, with all certainty, tells us that the final choice was union. The two hills were fenced with a single wall; the men who dwelled on them changed from wholly separate communities into tribes of a single city. The hill of Saturn became the site of Rome's capitol, the scene of her triumphs, the home of her patron-gods. The hill on the other side of the swampy dale became the dwelling-place of Rome's Cæsars, and handed on its name of Palatium as the name for the homes of all the kings of the earth. Around those hills as a centre, Latium, Italy, Mediterranean Europe, were gathered in, till the world was Roman, or rather till the world was Rome."—E. A. Freeman, *Practical bearings of European history (Lectures to American audiences, pp. 278-279)*.—See also ITALY: Ancient; LATIUM; ALBA; SABINES; EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Its origins.

Early character and civilization.—"In the social fabric of [the] early population a fairly rigid caste system came into existence, a record of which has survived in the well-known words 'patrician' and 'plebian.' The origin of this class system is still an unsolved problem. . . . Eventually, the influential men took the legal steps necessary to secure predominance for themselves and their descendants; they stereotyped the caste system by ordaining that they alone, the patricii, could hold offices of state, they alone could consult the auspices in behalf of the city, and that their ranks should not be contaminated by intermarriage with plebians. There is, however, a striking peculiarity in Rome's caste system which deserves attention. In other states under conditions resembling those of early Latium, economic laws usually worked without check until a feudal system grew up in which the lower class was reduced to serfdom. Such serfs were the helots of Sparta, Crete, Thessaly, and other states of early Greece, the subject tenants of ancient Egypt and of medieval Europe. In early Rome the plebians seem never to have become serfs; they were not, so far as we know, bound to the soil. This circumstance may be due to a certain sense of equity which is so prominent a characteristic in the legislation of this people. But it is more likely that local conditions saved the Romans from the paralyzing effects of a feudal system. A period of Etruscan rule checked the normal development of oligarchy at Rome, and, after the nobility succeeded in ridding itself of this, new methods of warfare had been introduced which made a real feudal system obsolete. The old—we may say the Homeric—military methods of single combat were being displaced. On the north the Etruscans had introduced the Greek armor and hoplite army. On the south, the Greek colonies were teaching the new methods to the neighboring Italic tribes. The Roman nobles were therefore compelled in self-defense to discard their ancient manner of warfare and to form solid legions for which the inclusion of the plebian soldier was a necessity. But in bringing the plebian host into the line they made it aware of its own worth and gave it an opportunity to demand political rights. Tradition is probably near the truth when it asserts that the populace of Rome saved its civil rights and won political privilege by means of military boycotts. But whatever it was that saved Rome from the feudal system, which established itself for a period at least in almost all other ancient states, the fact that she did escape is very important to an understanding of her later military successes. The pe-

culiar characteristics of the Roman people can be noticed in various legal institutions which it is well to bear in mind from the very beginning. A sense of fair play and a respect for legal orderliness permeates the whole early history of this people. The Romans were always unusually liberal in their practice of emancipating slaves and of giving the privileges of citizenship to freed slaves, whereas the Greeks consistently refused to incorporate freedmen into the citizen body. Again, the Romans early established a distinct court of equity—that of the praetor peregrinus—for cases in which foreigners were involved, so that strangers who did not know the Roman *mos maiorum* might find equitable treatment in their business dealings with citizens. Of the same general nature is the ancient custom of prohibiting the sale and employment of debtor slaves within the borders of Latium, and the practice of exacting a treaty of federation from conquered enemies rather than a proof of subjection in the form of tribute. Most striking of all is the fœtal institution, an institution which has a special significance for the study of Roman imperialism, since it reveals the spirit of Rome's *ius belli* as nothing else can. From time immemorial a semi-political, priestly board existed whose province it was to supervise the rites peculiar to the declaration of war and the swearing of treaties, and which formed, as it were, a court of first instance in such questions of international disputes as the proper treatment of envoys and the execution of extradition. When any complaint arose that a neighboring tribe had committed an act of war it was the duty of this board to investigate the matter for the senate, and, if it found the complaint just, to send its herald to the offending state with a demand for restitution. . . . Now if the practices of the fœtal board were observed in good faith, it is apparent that peace must have been the normal international status assumed between Rome and her neighbors, and that war was considered justifiable only on the score of an unjust act,—for example, the breach of a treaty, a direct invasion, or the aiding of an enemy."—T. Frank, *Roman imperialism, pp. 5-8*.—"As Rome was on a navigable river, and well situated for small trade with the Etruscans and other neighbors, some of the citizens engaged in making wares and in buying and selling. Most of the Romans, however, were peasants. [See AGRICULTURE: Ancient: Development of the servile system among the Romans.] The farmer, clad simply in his tunic, a loose woolen garment which reached the knee, followed his bronze-shod plough drawn by a yoke of cattle. His narrow mind held only sober, practical ideas; for he saw nothing of the world beyond the mountains bordering the plain of the Tiber,—mountains which inspired him with no love of the beautiful and the grand, but rather with a feeling of hatred for the enemies who were wont to sweep down from them upon his little field. His laborious life, his warfare against famine, pestilence, and neighbors who were always harassing, made him stern and harsh, and, even in his dealing with the gods, calculating and illiberal. Though love, pity, and benevolence found little place in his heart, he was strong in the more heroic virtues,—he was dignified, brave, and energetic; he revered the gods and the forefathers, and obeyed the laws; above all, he was a man of his word. . . . We find the same simplicity and severity in the family. Marriage was a religious act which made the home sacred. Originally the dwelling was a hut with a single room. . . . In time it came to have several rooms. The dwelling was a holy

place. Within lived the Penates, guardian deities of the family store, and the Lar, who protected the house from every harm. Every person had a guardian spirit, the man a Genius, the woman a Juno. The Genius of the father was the chief household god. The father was priest of these gods, owner of the estate, and master of his wife and children through life. He could load his son with chains, sell him into slavery, or put him to death. Even if the son were a senator or magistrate, the father could drag him home and punish him for misconduct. Woman was always under guardianship, the maiden of her father, the matron of her husband. Nevertheless she was respected. The mother aided in the worship of the home gods, and shared equally with the sons and daughters in the inheritance. In this strict, moral school, young men were disciplined for public life. As the family grew larger in the course of several generations, it often happened that the members, even if widely separated, kept up their social and religious relations with one another. Such an association of kinsmen, larger than the family, was a gens. In origin and general character it was like the Greek gens. Whereas in Athens a man had but a single name,—the one given him by his parents,—a Roman usually had three. In the case of Publius Cornelius Scipio, for instance, Publius is the personal name given by his parents; Cornelius is the name of his gens; and Scipio the name of his family, a branch of the Cornelian gens. This is the order in which the names occur. Sometimes a fourth name is added to define the individual more precisely, or merely as an honor, and occasionally we find even a fifth. . . . Several families united in a curia, or brotherhood. On certain festal days the men of a brotherhood ate together in a common dining-hall containing a sacred hearth, on which they kept fire burning perpetually in honor of Juno. When war broke out, the members of a curia followed their leaders to the front, and stood side by side on the field of battle. Kinship and religion inspired them to deeds of daring; 'the soldier felt ashamed to forsake the comrades with whom he had lived in communion of libations, sacrifices, and holy rites.' Ten curiae united in a tribe, and three tribes composed the state. The curia was the same institution as the Greek phratry (brotherhood), and the Roman tribe was practically the same as the Greek. In early Rome the commons of each tribe formed a regiment of foot and the nobles a troop of horse. . . . The commons were called plebians (the 'multitude') and the nobles patricians. In general character the patricians were like the Eupatrids at Athens, or like the nobles of most other states. They alone were qualified to be senators, magistrates, and priests. The king could ennoble any plebian whom he considered sufficiently marked by wealth or personal merit. In general the plebians were like the commons of Athens and of most other states of ancient or modern times. Under the kings and for a long time afterward their rights were limited. They could own property and could engage in business. Personally they were free, and had a right to protection of life and property. They could vote in the popular assembly, but were not permitted to sit in the senate or to hold any office or priesthood. As the patricians alone were acquainted with the laws, which were unwritten, the plebian, to secure protection for himself and his family before the courts of law, chose a noble as his patron, whom he bound himself to serve as a client. Thus many of the plebians became clients

of the patricians. The duty of the patron was to give his clients legal advice in their business, to sue for them when injured, and to defend them when sued. The clients, on the other hand, followed their patron to war and supported him in public life, labored in his fields or made him presents, that he might fill his offices with becoming dignity. Though the original object of clientage was doubtless good . . . after the overthrow of kingship, it became intolerably oppressive. . . . [The king's] authority conferred upon him by the people, made him absolute commander in war and supreme judge with power of life and death over his subjects. In addition to these duties, he was head of the state religion. All officials, civil, military, and religious, were appointed by him, and were merely his helpers. Although originally but a citizen, his office gave him great dignity. Accordingly, he dressed in an embroidered purple robe and high red shoes, and with an eagle-headed sceptre in his hand sat on an ivory throne, the curule chair. In his walk he was accompanied by twelve attendants, called lictors, each bearing an axe bound in a bundle of rods. The axes signified his absolute power, extending to life and death. The curule chair and the lictors armed with axes were first used by the Etruscan kings, and borrowed from them by the rulers of Rome."—G. W. Botsford, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 328-332.—See also CLIENTES, ROMAN; COSTUME: Egyptian, etc.

ALSO IN: L. Friedlander, *Roman life and manners under the early empire*.—H. W. Johnston, *Private life of the Romans*.

Religion. See RELIGION: B. C. 750-A. D. 30; MYTHOLOGY: Roman; PRIESTHOOD: In Greece and Rome; ASYLUM, RIGHT OF; AUGURS; AUSPICES; HARUSPICES; also MITHRAISM.

Struggle with Etruscans. See ETRUSCANS.

B. C. 753-510.—Legendary period of the kings.—Credibility of Roman annals.—Probable Etruscan domination.—Economic conditions under the kings.—Servian reforms.—Foreign affairs.—Fall of the Tarquins.—"It may . . . be stated, as the result of this inquiry, that the narrative of Roman affairs, from the foundation of the city to the expulsion of the Tarquins is formed out of traditional materials. At what time the oral traditions were reduced into writing, and how much of the existing narrative was the arbitrary supplement of the historians who first framed the account which has descended to us, it is now impossible to ascertain. . . . The records of them, which were made before the burning of Rome, 390 B. C., were doubtless rare and meagre in the extreme; and such as there were at this time chiefly perished in the conflagration and ruin of the city. It was probably not till after this period—that is to say, about 350 years after the era assigned for the foundation of the city, that these oral reports—these hearsay stories of many generations—began to be entered in the registers of the pontifices. . . . The history of the entire regal period, as respects both its external attestation and its internal probability, is tolerably uniform in its character. . . . Niebuhr, indeed, has drawn a broad line between the reigns of Romulus and Numa on the one hand, and those of the five last kings on the other. The former he considers to be purely fabulous and poetical; the latter he regards as belonging to the mythico-historical period, when there is a narrative resting on a historical basis, and most of the persons mentioned are real. But it is impossible to discover any ground, either in the contents of the narrative, or in its external

evidence, to support this distinction. Romulus, indeed, from the form of his name, appears to be a mere personification of the city of Rome, and to have no better claim to a real existence than Hellen, Danaus, Ægyptus, Tyrrhenus, or Italus. But Numa Pompilius stands on the same ground as the remaining kings, except that he is more ancient; and the narrative of all the reigns, from the first to the last, seems to be constructed on the same principles. That the names of the kings after Romulus are real, is highly probable; during the latter reigns, much of the history seems to be in the form of legendary explanations of proper names. . . . Even with respect to the Tarquinian family, it may be doubted whether the similarity of their name to that of the city of Tarquinii was not the origin of the story of Demaratus and the Etruscan origin. The circumstance that the two king Tarquins were both named Lucius, and that it was necessary to distinguish them by the epithets of Priscus and Superbus, raises a presumption that the names were real. Müller indeed regards the names of the two Tarquins as merely representing the influence exercised by the Etruscan city of Tarquinii in Rome at the periods known as their reigns. . . . The leading feature of the government during this period is that its chief was a king, who obtained his office by the election of the people, and the confirmation of the Senate, in the same manner in which consuls and other high magistrates were appointed after the abolition of royalty; but that, when once fully elected, he retained his power for life. In the mode of succession, the Roman differed from the early Greek kings, whose office was hereditary. The Alban kings, likewise, to whom the Roman kings traced their origin, are described as succeeding by inheritance and not by election. . . . The predominant belief of the Romans concerning their regal government was, that the power of the kings was limited by constitutional checks; that the chief institutions of the Republic, namely, the Senate and the Popular Assembly, existed in combination with the royalty, and were only suspended by the lawless despotism of the second Tarquin. Occasionally, however, we meet with the idea that the kings were absolute."—G. C. Lewis, *Inquiry into the credibility of early Roman history*, v. 1, ch. 11, sect. 39-40.—The names of the kings, with the dates assigned to them, are as follows: Romulus, 753-717 B.C.; Numa Pompilius, 715-673 B.C.; Tullus Hostilius, 673-642 B.C.; Ancus Martius, 641-617 B.C.; Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, 616-579 B.C.; Servius Tullius, 578-535 B.C.; Tarquinius Superbus, 534-510 B.C. According to the legend of early Rome, Romulus attracted inhabitants to the city he had founded by establishing within its walls a sanctuary or refuge, for escaped slaves, outlaws and the like. But he could not in a fair way procure wives for these rough settlers, because marriage with them was disdained by the reputable people of neighboring cities. Therefore he arranged for an imposing celebration of games at Rome, in honor of the god Consus, and invited his neighbors, the Sabines, to witness them. These came unsuspectingly with their wives and daughters, and, when they were absorbed in the show, the Romans, at a given signal, rushed on them and carried off such women as they chose to make captive. A long and obstinate war ensued, which was ended by the interposition of the women concerned, who had become reconciled to their Roman husbands and satisfied to remain with them.—Based on Livy, *History*, ch. 9.—"We cannot . . . agree with Nie-

buhr, who thinks he can discover some historical facts through this legendary mist. As he supposes, the inhabitants of the Palatine had not the right of intermarriage ('connubium') with their Sabine neighbours on the Capitoline and the Quirinal. This inferiority of the Palatine Romans to the Sabines of the Capitoline and Quirinal hills caused discontent and war. The right of intermarriage was obtained by force of arms, and this historical fact lies at the bottom of the tale of the rape of the Sabines. Such a method of changing legends into history is of very doubtful utility. It seems more natural to explain the legend from the customs at the Roman marriage ceremonies [in which the pretence of forcible abduction was enacted]."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 1, ch. 2.—"With the reign of the fifth king, Tarquinius Priscus, a marked change takes place. The traditional accounts of the last three kings not only wear a more historical air than those of the first four, but they describe something like a transformation of the Roman city and state. Under the rule of these latter kings the separate settlements were for the first time enclosed with a rampart of colossal size and extent. The low grounds were drained, and a forum and circus elaborately laid out; on the Capitoline Mount a temple was erected, the massive foundations of which were an object of wonder even to Pliny. . . . The kings increase in power and surround themselves with new splendour. Abroad, Rome suddenly appears as a powerful state ruling far and wide over southern Etruria and Latium. These startling changes are, moreover, ascribed to kings of alien descent, who one and all ascend the throne in the teeth of established constitutional forms. Finally, with the expulsion of the last of them—the younger Tarquin—comes a sudden shrinkage of power. At the commencement of the republic Rome is once more a comparatively small state, with hostile and independent neighbours at her very doors. It is difficult to avoid the conviction that the true explanation of this phenomenon is to be found in the supposition that Rome during this period passed under the rule of powerful Etruscan lords. Entering Italy, as they probably did from the north or north-east, they seem to have first of all made themselves masters of the rich valley of the Po and of the Umbrians who dwelt there. Then crossing the Apennines, they overran Etruria proper as far south as the banks of the Tiber, here too reducing to subjection the Umbrian owners of the soil. In Etruria they made themselves dreaded, like the Northmen of a later time, by sea as well as by land. . . . We find the Etruscan power encircling Rome on all sides, and in Rome itself a tradition of the rule of princes of Etruscan origin. The Tarquinii come from South Etruria; their name can hardly be anything else than the Latin equivalent of the Etruscan Tarchon, and is therefore possibly a title ('=lord' or 'prince') rather than a proper name. . . . That Etruria had, under the sway of Etruscan lords, forged ahead of the country south of the Tiber in wealth and civilisation is a fact which the evidence of remains has placed beyond doubt. It is therefore significant that the rule of the Tarquins in Rome is marked by an outward splendour which stands in strong contrast to the primitive simplicity of the native kings. . . . These Etruscan princes are represented, not only as having raised Rome for the time to a commanding position in Latium, and lavished upon the city itself the resources of Etruscan civilisation, but also the authors of important internal changes.

They are represented as favouring new men at the expense of the old patrician families, and as reorganising the Roman army on a new footing, a policy natural enough in military princes of alien birth."—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, bk. 1, ch. 3.—"The earliest settlement at Rome . . . was on the Palatine. Gradually the population outgrew this narrow space, and built their dwellings on the neighboring hills. Then one of the kings took possession of the Capitoline Mount, and established his citadel there. At first the people could not live in the valleys which separated the hills, because they were marshy and often overflowed. The Tarquins drained these low grounds by means of sewers. The most famous of these works was the Cloaca Maxima ('the greatest sewer'), which drained the Forum, or market-place, and made the ground about it habitable. But the great stone arch which now covers it was built hundreds of years after the downfall of the kingship. The public life of the community centered in this valley. The smiths and the shopkeepers set up their stalls round the Forum. About it the king built temples; and adjoining it on the northwest they made an assembly-place—the comitium—in which they built a senate-house. Above the Forum, on the Capitoline, they erected a temple to Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva,—usually known as the temple of the Capitoline Jupiter. Though in the Etruscan style, it was for centuries the most magnificent building in Rome. Under the Tarquins Rome was a group of straggling villages situated on neighboring hills and separated by wide tracts of vacant land. The traditional account of the period asserts that Servius surrounded the whole with a great stone wall. This account may be true; but it is now well known that the so-called Servian Wall, remnants of which are still standing, was built in the fourth century B.C., more than a hundred years after the kingly period. Equally late is the so-called Wall of Romulus on the Palatine."—G. W. Botsford, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 335-336.—"The industrial productions of those early times must have been of a very rude character. Yet the early Albans imitated Etruscan pottery in their rough cups and flasks, and the blocks of stone at Antemnae are cut into sizes which approach regularity. And as Rome's position on the Tiber forced her to become the emporium of Latium and to develop urban rather than pastoral or agricultural characteristics, trades began to thrive, and Mamurius Venturius, the skilled maker of shields, to receive celebration in the hymns of the Salli. . . . To [the Romans the] . . . reign of Numa is curiously significant of change. Not merely is settled agriculture well begun, but division of labour in the trades is simultaneously outlined. Whatever may be the significance of their assigning this date for the modifications of the old conditions, it is clear that the time came when the single family found itself unable to satisfy its own growing needs. Outside the family there sprang up arts, which demanded a special aptitude and considerable training. This process, brought about unquestionably by a gradual evolution, the Roman writers express in the formal language:—'The distribution of Numa was made according to the several trades of musicians, goldsmiths, masons, dyers, shoemakers, tanners, braziers, and potters. . . . Rome's commerce outside of Latium practically began with the foundation of Ostia. Destined from her central position to become the mart of Latium and later the emporium of Italy, Rome must have early felt the need of such an

outpost both for harbourage and as a protecting fort. . . . But besides its great water-route, from the earliest times Rome had more or less clearly defined land-routes. . . . From time immemorial venturous Italian traders had dared the dangers of the Alps to barter with barbarian tribes beyond, and perhaps revived their failing courage by recalling that by this route Hercules was said to have reached Italy from Gaul. That there was great inter-Italian commerce is indicated by the fact that copper was a general medium of exchange throughout the whole peninsula. Conditions were very favourable for Rome to stretch out the tentacles of commerce towards the western Mediterranean. The great colonizing movement of the Greeks, more especially of the Phocæans, tended to displace the Phoenicians who with trading-posts situated on the promontories and coasts of the western sea had long since established a brisk trade with the native peoples. But Greek colonization and commerce in their turn were forced to yield; for on the north coast had arisen the people of the Etruscans whose commercial greatness was due not more to the rich copper, silver and iron of their country than to the daring of their sailors; while the Phoenicians attempted to strengthen their grasp by establishing in Libya the entrepot of Carthage, a city with the same trading instincts as the metropolis but with a newer life. Coöperating on the basis of a common enmity of their common rival, the combined fleets of these two states overthrew in the naval engagement of Aléria in 537 B.C. the commercial supremacy of the Greeks in the western Mediterranean. It was during this struggle of the Etruscans and Carthaginians against the Greeks that the Romans embarked upon marine enterprise. Fortunately their relations with all the combatants were cordial; for they had intimate commercial connections with Carthage, with the Etruscans of Caere, and with the Phocæans of Velia and Massilia. This commercial development is largely due to the encouragement given to trade by the last kings of Rome. Now head of the Latin league, the Romans could safely go afield in their enterprises. The expansion of their trade is best indicated by their position in the great commercial treaty concluded with Carthage about the beginning of the Republic."—E. H. Oliver, *Roman economic conditions to close of republic*, pp. 16, 18, 24-25.—"The most important event in the internal history of Rome traditionally referred to as the regal period is the 'Servian' Reform. By this measure the community was organized as an army under a regular scheme, in which duties were assigned to all according to their presumed capabilities: but, though the object of this reform was military, it soon led to far-reaching consequences of a political kind. . . . What was needed was a muster-roll of all persons liable to service, on the basis of which an army could be formed without disorder or delay whenever there was a prospect of war. In preparing this roll age and wealth must be the leading considerations. Moreover the army must be as large as possible: hence plebeians and patricians must serve alike. Again, financial arrangements must be made for the pay and maintenance of armies in the field. It was therefore desirable that the names and properties of those who, though unable to bear arms, could serve the state as taxpayers, should be duly registered, so that the available resources of the state might at any moment be known. And so the Roman community was classified as a military whole in five divisions or classes according to property, each class having a

normal equipment, which every member of the class must provide for himself. But the division into classes did not go far in providing a military organization. More important were the subdivisions of the classes called 'Centuries.' The word *centuria* means a hundred (of anything), but in practice we find it applied to bodies of both more and less than 100. In military language it means little more than 'company.'—W. E. Heitland, *Roman republic*, pp. 44-46.—"[Tradition] represents Servius as the creator of new tribes and the reorganizer of the army. His object was to introduce the Greek military system already adopted by Etruria. As each soldier had to arm and equip himself at his own expense, Servius found it necessary to take a census of the citizens in order to know who should buy heavier and who lighter armor. For this purpose a new local division of the country was necessary, for the three old tribes had been outgrown by the increase in population and territory. First, then, he divided the city into four districts, called tribes, and the country into sixteen tribes. Taking the census tribe by tribe, Servius divided the citizens into five classes, according to the size of their freeholds. He required the members of the first or wealthiest class to equip themselves with the heaviest and most efficient arms, those of the second class to buy somewhat less complete equipments, and so on to the lowest. The three wealthier classes were heavy-armed, and stood in ranks, one behind another, while the fourth and fifth classes, as light troops, served wherever occasion demanded. The first class formed four ranks with ten *centuries* in each; the second and third classes formed each one rank. Of the light troops there were ten *centuries* in the fourth class, and fourteen in the fifth. When necessary, two more ranks could be formed of the light troops, making eight ranks in all. Thus the army contained eighty-four hundred footmen. From early times it appears to have been composed of two divisions, termed legions, of forty-two hundred foot-soldiers each. This organization included mainly plebeians; the patricians continued to serve in the cavalry, of which there were six *centuries*, three to each legion. The army, thus organized for the field, contained the men of military age—from seventeen to forty-six years. The older men remained in the city for the defence of the walls. At the time of this new arrangement the territory of Rome had increased four or five fold, chiefly at the expense of the Etruscans, the Sabines, and the Latins. When Rome subdued a neighboring city, she razed the walls and everything they enclosed, excepting the temples, and seized a third or perhaps a half of the conquered land. She compelled many of the dispossessed people to settle on her own hills, and, admitting all to the citizenship, bestowed the patriciate upon the nobles. With the growth of her territory, therefore, came a corresponding increase in her population and her military strength. After the reform of Servius, Rome could put into the field the largest, best organized, and best disciplined army in Latium."—G. W. Botsford, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 336-337.—"According to the traditional account Rome began her career of conquest in the regal period. We hear of the subjection of a number of neighbouring towns, some of which seem to have stood in what is now called the Campagna: several of these do not again appear in history and their sites are not certainly known. The power of Rome was pushed to the seaboard, and Ostia, the port at the mouth of the Tiber, garrisoned as a citizen

settlement. Collisions with the Etruscan powers also took place to the North: to the North-East some extension was effected at the expense of the Sabines. But by far the most important gain was made to the South-East and South, not so much in the way of direct acquisition of territory as of the attainment of a dominating position in the Latin League. Loose confederations of kindred communities seem to have been common in ancient Italy. We come across collective names, Latins, Sabines, Aequi, Volsci, Samnites, Etrusci, and so forth. Each of these names stands for a unit, a sort of small nation, made up of lesser units. We know of some, and may believe of them all, that they met together at certain seasons. These gatherings were religious festivals held at some holy spot, such as a sacred grove or well, where the national gods were approached with common sacrifice and ceremonies. Fairs often grew up in connexion with these meetings, and they served also as opportunities for joint consideration of a common policy, if and when common action seemed likely to be called for. More than this we are hardly free to say. National unity was recognized, but the cohesion of these larger units was clearly very loose: each of the smaller constituent units was a community, entitled (and probably preferring) to act by and for itself whenever it might think its resources sufficient for the work in hand. Only a great emergency, some external danger threatening several communities at once and eventually the whole, would rouse such ill-organized powers to undertake and maintain an efficient national defence. If tradition of the early times, checked by our knowledge of later events, be worthy of any trust, it would seem that the above characteristics were present in all the Leagues of Italy, whether they consisted of cities, as among the Latins, or of cantons of hill-men, as the Samnites in the dales of Apennine."—W. E. Heitland, *Roman republic*, p. 49.—"Lucius Tarquinius Superbus, or Tarquin the Proud, son of Tarquinius Priscus and son-in-law of Servius Tullius, brought about the assassination of the latter, and mounted the throne. Lucius Tarquin, having thus seized the kingdom (for he had not the consent either of the Senators or of the Commons to his deed), bore himself very haughtily, so that men called him Tarquin the Proud. First, lest some other, taking example by him, should deal with him as he had dealt with Tullius, he had about him a company of armed men for guards. And because he knew that none loved him, he would have them fear him. To this end he caused men to be accused before him. And when they were so accused, he judged them by himself, none sitting with him to see that right was done. Some he slew unjustly, and some he banished, and some he spoiled of their goods. And when the number of the Senators was greatly diminished by these means (for he laid his plots mostly against the Senators, as being rich men and the chief of the State), he would not choose any into their place, thinking that the people would lightly esteem them if there were but a few of them. Nor did he call them together to ask their counsel, but ruled according to his own pleasure, making peace and war, and binding treaties or unbinding, with none to gainsay him. Nevertheless, for a while he increased greatly in power and glory. He made alliance with Octavius Mamilius, prince of Tusculum, giving him his daughter in marriage; nor was there any man greater than Mamilius in all the cities of the Latins; and Suessa Pometia, that was a city of the Volsci,

he took by force, and finding that the spoil was very rich (for there were in it forty talents of gold and silver), he built with the money a temple to Jupiter on the Capitol, very great and splendid, and worthy not only of his present kingdom but also of that great Empire that should be thereafter. Also he took the city of Gabii by fraud. . . . By such means did King Tarquin increase his power. Now there was at Rome in the days of Tarquin a noble youth, by name Lucius Junius, who was akin to the house of Tarquin, seeing that his mother was sister to the King. This man, seeing how the King sought to destroy all the chief men in the State (and, indeed, the brother of Lucius had been so slain), judged it well so to bear himself that there should be nothing in him which the King should either covet or desire. Wherefore he feigned foolishness, suffering all that he had to be made a prey; for which reason men gave him the name of Brutus, or the Foolish. Then he bided his time, waiting till the occasion should come when he might win freedom for the people. [In a little time] . . . there came to Brutus an occasion of showing what manner of man he was. Sextus, the King's son, did so grievous a wrong to Lucretia, that was the wife of Collatinus, that the woman could not endure to live, but slew herself with her own hand. But before she died she called to her her husband and her father and Brutus, and bade them avenge her upon the evil house of Tarquin. And when her father and her husband sat silent for grief and fear, Brutus drew the knife wherewith she slew herself from the wound, and held it before him dripping with blood, and cried aloud, 'By this blood I swear, calling the Gods to witness, that I will pursue with fire and sword and with all other means of destruction Tarquin the Proud, with his accursed wife and all his race; and that I will suffer no man hereafter to be king in this city of Rome.' And when he had ended he bade the others swear after the same form of words. This they did and, forgetting their grief, thought only how they might best avenge this great wrong that had been done. First they carried the body of Lucretia, all covered with blood, into the market-place of Collatia (for these things happened at Collatia), and roused all the people that saw a thing so shameful and pitiful, till all that were of an age for war assembled themselves carrying arms. Some of them stayed behind to keep the gates of Collatia, that no one should carry tidings of the matter to the King, and the rest Brutus took with him with all the speed that he might to Rome. There also was stirred up a like commotion, Brutus calling the people together and telling them what a shameful wrong the young Tarquin had done. Also he spake to them of the labours with which the King wore them out in the building of temples and palaces and the like, so that they who had been in time past the conquerors of all the nations round about were now come to be but as hewers of wood and drawers of water. Also he set before them in what shameful sort King Tullius had been slain, and how his daughter had driven her chariot over the dead body of her father. With suchlike words he stirred up the people to great wrath, so that they passed a decree that there should be no more kings in Rome, and that Lucius Tarquin with his wife and his children should be banished. After this Brutus made haste to the camp and stirred up the army against the King. And in the meanwhile Queen Tullia fled from her palace, all that

saw her cursing her as she went. As for King Tarquin, when he came to the city he found the gates shut against him; thereupon he returned and dwelt at Caere that is in the land of Etruria, and two of his sons with him; but Sextus going to Gabii, as to a city which he had made his own, was slain by the inhabitants. The King and his house being thus driven out, Brutus was made consul with one Collatinus for his colleague."—A. J. Church, *Stories from Livy*, ch. 5.

"We have already treated it as a certainty that Rome was once ruled by Kings, and have dwelt on several matters in which the growth of the state during the regal period is asserted. It is not less certain that the regal period came to an end, and that the very title of rex was a name of horror to the Roman people so long as any real Roman people remained. But the circumstances and procedure of this revolution are a mystery. The story handed down to us is a drama in the composition of which imagination, principally Greek imagination, has run riot, and old anecdotes preserved in Herodotus take the place of trustworthy detail. . . . It seems conceivable that the doings of a bad king alarmed the old patrician citizens. They seized the moment when the King, who was naturally the protector of the Plebs, had lost popularity with them by imposing task-works, and effected a revolution. This revolution left the Patricians in possession of the effective control of the state. . . . It is therefore reasonable to conclude that it was a movement of an aristocratic tendency. As for the machinery, we do not know how the change was effected. That the two magistrates of the new Republic were elected in an Assembly of the Centuries is probable."—W. E. Heitland, *Roman republic*, pp. 51-52.—"Not altogether political, but to some extent economic, was the revolution by which the kings were expelled from Rome. From the Roman writers we learn the utter distress of the people compelled to construct great public works. The last kings, it is well known, engaged in great building operations. Local tufa, peperine of Alba and of Gabii, the travertine of Tibur and the quarry-stone of Fidenae and Mt. Socracte offered material invitingly near. And it is the kings who are responsible for the employment of this material in those monumental structures,—the Palatine walls, the temple of Jupiter Stator, the Pons Sublicius, the harbour at Ostia, the 'Carcer imminens foro,' the temple of Jupiter Optimus Maximus, the Cloaca Maxima, and the walls of Tarquinius Priscus, Servius Tullius, and Tarquinius Superbus. . . . Etruscan engineers and workmen were the chief architects and builders of early Rome. The building of the Servian Wall, however, marks an epoch in Roman development; its splendid material forms a striking contrast to the more primitive works. But greater activity in public construction meant an increased oppression for the Romans. . . . To this accumulation of unusual social burdens were added the everyday trials of the people,—the oppression of all classes, the jealousy of the patricians and their injustice towards the plebeians. It must have been an extreme of building activity, which was task work, that led the plebeians to unite with the patricians against their natural protectors, the kings. . . . The rotation of the kingship among the patricians by the establishment of a yearly consulship and the 'restoration of the law of contracts' proved an efficient revolutionary compromise."—E. H. Oliver, *Roman economic conditions to close of republic*, pp. 27-29.—See also BALANCE OF

POWER: Ancient Greece and Rome; ARCHITECTURE: Classic: Etruscan; TEMPLES: Stage of culture, etc.
B. C. 5th-A. D. 3rd centuries.—Forms of capitalism.—Coinage and banking. See CAPITALISM: In antiquity; MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Rome.

REPUBLIC

B. C. 509.—Establishment of the republic.—Valerian laws.—“However much the history of the expulsion of the last Tarquinius, ‘the proud,’ may have been interwoven with anecdotes and spun out into a romance, it is not in its leading outlines to be called in question. . . . The royal power was by no means abolished, as is shown by the fact that, when a vacancy occurred, a ‘temporary king’ (interrex) was nominated as before. The one life-king was simply replaced by two year-kings, who called themselves generals (prætores), or judges (iudices), or merely colleagues (consules). The collegiate principle, from which this last—and subsequently most current—name of the annual kings was derived, assumed in their case an altogether peculiar form. The supreme power was not entrusted to the two magistrates conjointly, but each consul possessed and exercised it for himself as fully and wholly as it had been possessed and exercised by the king; and, although a partition of functions doubtless took place from the first—the one consul for instance undertaking the command of the army, and the other the administration of justice—that partition was by no means binding, and each of the colleagues was legally at liberty to interfere at any time in the province of the other. [See CONSUL, ROMAN.] . . . This peculiarly Latin, if not peculiarly Roman, institution of co-ordinate supreme authorities . . . manifestly sprang out of the endeavour to retain the regal power in legally undiminished fulness. . . . A similar course was followed in reference to the termination of their tenure of office. . . . They ceased to be magistrates, not upon the expiry of the set term, but only upon their publicly and solemnly demitting their office: so that, in the event of their daring to disregard the term and to continue their magistracy beyond the year, their official acts were nevertheless valid, and in the earlier times they scarcely even incurred any other than a moral responsibility.”—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 2, ch. 1.—“The republic seems to have been first regularly established by the Valerian laws, of which, unfortunately, we can discover little more than half obliterated traces in the oldest traditions of the Romans. According to the story, P. Valerius was chosen as consul after the banishment of Tarquinius Collatinus, and remained alone in office after the death of his colleague, Brutus, without assembling the people for the election of a second consul. This proceeding excited a suspicion in the minds of the people, that he intended to take sole possession of the state, and to re-establish royal power. But these fears proved groundless. Valerius remained in office with the sole design of introducing a number of laws intended to establish the republic on a legal foundation, without the danger of any interference on the part of a colleague. The first of these Valerian laws threatened with the curse of the gods any one who, without the consent of the people, should dare to assume the highest magistracy. . . . The second law of Valerius . . . prescribes that in criminal trials, where the life of a citizen was at stake, the sentence of the consul should be subject to an appeal to the general assembly of the people. This Valerian law of appeal was the Roman Habeas

Corpus Act.”—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.—See also COMITIA CURIATA; COMITIA CENTURIATA; CENSORS; QUÆSTORS, ROMAN; SENATE, ROMAN; CONSCRIPT FATHERS.

B. C. 494-492.—Alleged first secession of plebs.—Origin of the tribunes of the plebs, and the ædiles.—Original and acquired power of the tribunes.—Two Roman peoples and their antagonism.—“The struggle [of plebeians against patricians in early Rome] opens with the debt question. We must realize all along how the internal history is affected by the wars without. The debtors fall into their difficulties through serving in the field during the summer; for of course the army is a citizen army and the citizens are agriculturists. Two patrician families take the side of the poor, the Horatii and the Valerii. Manius Valerius Publicola, created dictator, promises the distressed farmers that, if they will follow him in his campaign against the Sabines, he will procure the relaxation of their burdens. They go and return victorious. But Appius Claudius (whose family had but recently migrated to Rome, a proud and overbearing Sabine stock) opposed the redemption of the dictator’s promise. The victorious host, forming a seventh of the arm-bearing population, instantly marched out of the gate of the city, crossed the river Anio, and took up a station on the Sacred Mount [Mons Sacer]. They did not mean to go back again; they were weary of their haughty masters. . . . At last a peace is made—a formal peace concluded by the fetiales: they will come back if they may have magistrates of their own. This is the origin of the tribunes of the plebs [493 B.C.]. The plebs who marched back that day from the Sacred Mount had done a deed which was to have a wonderful issue in the history of the world; they had dropped a seed into the soil which would one day spring up into the imperial government of the Cæsars. The ‘tribunicia potestas,’ with which they were clothing their new magistrates, was to become a more important element in the claims of the emperors than the purple robe of the consuls.”—R. F. Horton, *History of the Romans*, ch. 3.—“The tribune had no political authority. Not being a magistrate, he could not convoke the curies or the centuries. [See COMITIA CURIATA; COMITIA CENTURIATA.] He could make no proposition in the senate; it was not supposed, in the beginning, that he could appear there. . . . In succeeding years we can see how the tribunes took courage, and what unexpected powers they assumed. They had no authority to convoke the people, but they convoked them. Nothing called them to the senate; they sat at first at the door of the chamber; later they sat within. They had no power to judge the patricians; they judged them and condemned them. This was the result of the inviolability attached to them as sacrosancti. Every other power gave way before them. The patricians were disarmed the day they had pronounced, with solemn rites, that whoever touched a tribune should be impure. The law said, ‘Nothing shall be done against a tribune.’ If, then, this tribune convoked the plebs, the plebs assembled, and no one could dissolve this assembly, which the presence of the tribune placed beyond the power of the patricians and the laws. If the tribune entered the senate, no one could compel him to retire. If he seized a consul, no one could take the consul from his hand. Nothing could resist the boldness of a tribune. Against a tribune no one had any power, except another tribune. As soon as the plebs thus had their chiefs, they did not wait long before they had deliberative assemblies. These did not in any man-

ner resemble those of the patricians. The plebs, in their comitia, were distributed into tribes; the domicile, not religion or wealth, regulated the place of each one. The assembly did not commence with a sacrifice; religion did not appear there. They knew nothing of presages, and the voice of an augur, or a pontiff, could not compel men to separate. It was really the comitia of the plebs, and they had nothing of the old rules, or of the religion of the patricians. True, these assemblies did not at first occupy themselves with the general interests of the city; they named no magistrates, and passed no laws. They deliberated only on the interests of their own order, named the plebeian chiefs, and carried plebiscita."—N. D. Fustel de Coulanges, *Ancient city*, bk. 4, ch. 7.—It is supposed that the tribes were originally two in number; but later there were five, and, finally, ten. The law which created their office was "deposited in a temple, under the charge of two plebeian magistrates specially appointed for the purpose and called Aediles or 'housemasters.' These aediles were attached to the tribunes as assistants, and their jurisdiction chiefly concerned such minor cases as were settled by fines."—T. Mommsen, *History of the Roman republic* (abridged by Bryant and Hendy), ch. 7.—"Besides the tribunes, who stood over against the consuls, two plebeian aediles were appointed, who might balance the patrician quaestors. Their name seems borrowed from the temple (Ædes Cereris) which is now built on the cattle market between the Palatine and the river to form a religious centre for the plebeian interest, as the ancient temple of Saturn was already a centre for the patrician interest. The goddess of bread is to preside over the growth of the democracy. The duty of aediles is in the first instance, to keep the public buildings in repair; but they acquire a position not unlike that of police-officers."—R. F. Horton, *History of the Romans*, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: Sir G. C. Lewis, *Credibility of early Roman history*, ch. 12, pt. 1.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 2.

B. C. 493.—League with Latins.—"At the beginning of Rome's republican period the situation of the Latin peoples was as follows. The Latin tribe, although Latium was now broken up into a few city-states, again worked in harmony in face of a common danger. Its strongest cities were Rome, on the Tiber; Praeneste and Tibur on the Sabine slopes, guarding the eastern edge of the plain; Tusculum and Aricia, holding the central Alban ridge; Laurentum, Ardea, Antium, and Tarracina, commanding the coast-lands. On the north of the Tiber were several Etruscan towns, notably Caere, Clusium, and Veii, whose princes long entertained the ambition of regaining the possessions in Latium which they had lost. . . . The Sabines, the Æqui, and the Volsci were tribes closely akin to the Latins in origin, and spoke Italic dialects that might, without great difficulty, be understood by the Latins. But it is probable that all consciousness of kinship had been lost in the centuries of separation, and that the pressure from without slowly developed an endurance and an organizing faculty which eventually, when aggressively applied, proved irresistible. When the Latins had rid themselves of the Etruscan princes, they next met their common enemy of the south, the Volsci, and, taking possession of several of their strongholds, planted Latin colonies upon the captured sites. This event is significant because it inaugurates a scheme of colonization which was later adopted by Rome as the corner-stone of her federal policy. A Latin colony, then as later, was

composed of citizens of the various Latin cities, and it became at once a member in full standing of the league of Latin cities. It therefore served as an outpost of the league, protecting the frontier and, since its citizens were drawn from all the members of the league, as a unifying factor within that body itself. This colonization is furthermore significant because it proves that after the disturbing Etruscan element had been removed the Latins were again ready to act in harmony. . . . After the successful colonization of Signia, Velitrae, and Norba, the league met with several reversals. . . . Certain it is that the Aequi, whose native home was in central Italy, succeeded in making their way down the valley between Praeneste and the Hermican towns and in seizing Labici and Tusculum on the very Alban hills, while the Volsci swept past the new colony of Norba, which they completely isolated by taking Velitrae, Ardea, and all the sea-coast from Antium to Tarracina. In other words, the league lost fully a third of its territory and population. . . . The recovery of the ground which they had lost proved a tedious task for the Latins. . . . Tusculum was retaken from the Aequi in 480, Labici in 418, and Bola in 415. By the end of the century, therefore, the Aequi had been driven back over the Trever valley into their mountain fastnesses. Ardea was retaken from the Volsci and settled as a Latin colony in 442, Tarracina was recovered by the league in 406, and Velitrae recolonized in 404. It is probable, however, that many of the Volscian inhabitants were left in possession of their lands, since pro-Volscian sympathies repeatedly came into evidence in the region south of the Alban hills later, and a Volscian inscription has been found at Velitrae. It is apparent that these gains, losses, and recoveries of territory concerned the Latin league as a whole. Rome had doubtless shared in all the contests, but had not, so far as we know, been subjected to any alterations in her own boundaries. It was, however, much to her advantage that by her position she had been saved from the harrowing raids visited upon the other Latins, and we may therefore assume that the fifth century ended with a balance of advantages in her favour."—T. Frank, *Roman imperialism*, pp. 17-19.—See also below: B. C. 340-338.

B. C. 489-450.—Volscian wars.—The wars of the Romans with the neighboring Volscians stretched over a period of some forty years (489-450 B. C.) and ended in the disappearance of the latter from history. The legend of Coriolanus (Caius Marcius, on whom the added name was bestowed because of his valiant capture of the Volscian town of Corioli) is connected with these wars; but modern critics have stripped it of all historic credit and left it only a beautiful romance.—Based on W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: A. J. Church, *Stories from Livy*, ch. 7.
B. C. 472-471.—Publilian law of Volero.—Exclusion of patricians from the comitia tributa.—"The immediate consequence of the tribuneship of the people was the organisation of the assembly of tribes, the 'comitia tributa,' whereby they lost their former character as factional or party meetings and were raised to the dignity and functions of assemblies of the Roman people. . . . The circumstances which, in 471 B. C., led to the passing of the Publilian law, seem to indicate that even at that time the attempt was made by the patricians to change the original character of the tribuneship of the people, and to open it to the patrician class. The patricians intruded themselves in the assembly of the plebeians, surely not for the

purpose of making a disturbance as it is represented, but to enforce a contested right, by which they claimed to take part in the comitia of tribes. . . . This question was decided by the Publilian law, which excluded the patricians from the comitia tributa and specified the privileges of these comitia, now admitted to be purely plebeian. . . . These were the right of meeting together unmolested in separate purely plebeian comitia, the right of freely and independently electing their representatives, the right of discussing and settling their own affairs, and in certain matters of passing resolutions [plebiscita] which affected the whole community. These resolutions were, of course, not binding on the state, they had more the character of petitions than enactments, but still they were the formal expression of the will of a great majority of the Roman people, and as such they could not easily be set aside or ignored by the patrician government."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 2, ch. 8, bk. 6, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on history of Rome*, lecture 20.

B. C. 471.—Growing power of plebeians. See CIVIL LAW: B. C. 471.

B. C. 466-463.—Plague.—In the war of the Romans with the Volscians, the former were so hard pressed that "it became necessary to receive men and cattle within the walls of Rome, just as at Athens in the Peloponnesian war; and this crowding together of men and beasts produced a plague [466-463 B.C.]. . . . It is probable that the great pestilence which, thirty years later, broke out in Greece and Carthage, began in Italy as early as that time. The rate of mortality was fearful; it was a real pestilence, and not a mere fever. . . . Both consuls fell victims to the disease, two of the four augurs, the curio maximus, the fourth part of the senators, and an immense number of citizens of all classes."—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on the history of Rome*, lecture 21.

ALSO IN: T. Arnold, *History of Rome*, ch. 11.

B. C. 458.—Conquest of Æqui.—"Alternating with the raids [of the Romans] against the Volsci are the almost yearly campaigns with the Æqui, who would pour down their valleys and occupy Mount Algidus, threatening Tusculum and the Latin Way which led to Rome. It was on one of these occasions, when the republic too was engaged with Sabines to the north, and Volscians to the south, that the Consul Minucius [458 B.C.] found himself hemmed in on the mountain-side by the Æqui. Very beautiful and very characteristic is the legend which veils the issue of the danger. L. Quinctius Cincinnatus, ruined by a fine imposed upon his son, is tilling his little farm across the Tiber, when the messengers of the Senate come to announce that he is made dictator. With great simplicity he leaves his plough, conquers the Æqui, and returns to his furrows again."—R. F. Horton, *History of the Romans*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: A. J. Church, *Stories from Livy*, ch. 9.

B. C. 456.—Icilian law.—Early process of legislation illustrated.—Persuasiveness of plebeian petitions.—"The process of legislation in early times has been preserved to us in a single instance in which Dionysius has followed the account derived by him from an ancient document. The case is that of the Lex Icilia de Aventino publicando (B. C. 456), an interlude in the long struggle over the Terentilian law. [See below: B. C. 451-449.] This Lex Icilia was preserved, as Dionysius tells us, on a brazen column in the temple of Diana on the Aventine. It seems unlikely that the original tablet in such a situation should have survived the burning of the city by the Gauls. Yet a

record so important to the plebs would doubtless be at once restored and the restoration would show at least the belief prevalent at this very early period (B. C. 389) as to the proper procedure in case of such a law. 'Icilius,' says Dionysius (X. 31), 'approached the consuls then in office and the senate, and requested them to pass the preliminary decree for the law that he proposed, and to bring it before the people.' By threatening to arrest the consuls he compelled them to assemble the senate, and Icilius addressed the senate on behalf of his bill. Finally the senate consented. . . . (Dionys. X. 32). Then, after auspices and sacrifices, 'the law was passed by the comitia centuriata, which were convened by the consuls.' . . . Now here we have an order of proceeding under which the plebs have a practical initiative in legislation, and in which, nevertheless, each of the powers of the state acts in a perfectly natural and constitutional manner. . . . The formal legislative power lies solely with the populus Romanus. The vote of the corporation of the plebs is not then in early times strictly a legislative process at all. It is merely a strong and formal petition, an appeal to the sovereign assembly to grant their request. But this sovereign assembly can only be convened and the question put to it by a consul. If the consuls are unfavourable to the bill, they can refuse to put it to the vote at all. In any case, unless, like Sp. Cassius, they were themselves revolutionists, they would not think of doing so save on the recommendation of their authorised advisers. . . . The senate is assembled and freely discusses the law. An adverse vote justifies the consuls in their resistance. Then follow tedious manœuvres. The senate treat with members of the college of tribunes to procure their veto; they urge the necessity of a military expedition, or, as a last resource, advise the appointment of a dictator. Such is the general picture we get from Livy's story. If by these means they can tide over the tribune's year of office, the whole process has to be gone through again. The senate have the chance of a lucky accident in getting one of the new tribunes subservient to them; or sometimes (as in the case of the proposal to remove to Veii) they may persuade the plebs itself to throw out the tribunician rogatio when again introduced (Livy, v. 30). On the other hand the tribunes may bring to bear their reserved power of impeding all public business; and the ultima ratio lies with the plebeians, who have the power of secession in their hands. In practice, however, the senate is nearly always wise enough to yield before the plebs is driven to play this its last card. Their yielding is expressed by their backing the petition of the plebs and recommending the consuls to put the question of its acceptance to the populus. With this recommendation on the part of the senate the struggle is generally at an end. It is still in the strict right of the consuls to refuse to put the question to the comitia. Livy (iii. 19) gives us one instance in the matter of the Terentilian law, when the senate is disposed to yield, and the consul 'non in plebe coerenda quam senatu castigando vehementior fuit.' But a consul so insisting on his right would incur enormous personal responsibility, and expose himself, unprotected by public opinion, to the vengeance of the plebs when he went out of office. When the consul too has yielded, and the question is actually put to the vote of the sovereign (generally in its comitia centuriata), the controversy has been long ago thoroughly threshed out. Though it is only at this stage that legislation in the strict sense of the word commences, yet no instance is recorded

of a refusal on the part of the sovereign people to assent to the petition of the plebs backed by the recommendation of the senate."—J. L. Strachan-Davidson, *Plebeian privilege at Rome (English Historical Review, Apr., 1886)*.—For the bearings of this proceeding on the subsequently adopted Valerio-Horatian, Publilian, and Hortensian laws, see below: B. C. 449; B. C. 445-400; B. C. 340; B. C. 287.

B. C. 451-449.—Terentilian law.—Decemvirs and the Twelve Tables.—Not long after the establishment of the tribuneship, "the plebeians felt the necessity of putting an end to the exclusive possession of the laws which the patricians enjoyed, and to make them the common property of the whole nation. This could only be done by writing them down and making them public. A proposal was accordingly made in the assembly of the tribes by the tribune C. Terentilius Arsa (462 B. C.) to appoint a commission for the purpose of committing to writing the whole of the laws. . . . It is not wonderful that the patricians opposed with all their strength a measure which would wrest a most powerful weapon out of their hands. . . . The contest for the passing of the bill of Terentilius lasted, according to tradition, not less than ten years, and all means of open and secret opposition and of partial concession were made use of to elude the claims of the popular party. . . . After a ten years' struggle it [the motion for a commission] was passed into law. It proposed that a commission of ten men, being partly patricians and partly plebeians, should be appointed, for the purpose of arranging the existing law into a code. At the same time the consular constitution was to be suspended, and the ten men to be intrusted with the government and administration of the commonwealth during the time that they acted as legislators. By the same law the plebeian magistracy of the tribunes of the people ceased likewise, and the ten men became a body of magistrates intrusted with unlimited authority. . . . The patricians did not act entirely in good faith. . . . They carried the election of ten patricians. . . . Having, however, obtained this advantage over the credulity of their opponents, the patricians made no attempt to use it insolently as a party victory. The decemvirs proceeded with wisdom and moderation. Their administration, as well as their legislation, met with universal approval. They published on ten tables the greater part of the Roman law, and after these laws had met with the approbation of the people, they were declared by a decision of the people to be binding. Thus the first year of the decemvirate passed, and so far the traditional story is simple and intelligible." The part of the tradition which follows is largely rejected by modern critical historians. It relates that when decemvirs were chosen for another year, to complete their work, Appius Claudius brought about the election, with himself, of men whom he could control, and then established a reign of terror which surpassed the worst tyranny of the kings, refusing to abdicate when the year expired. The tragic story of Virginia connects itself with this terrible oppression, and with the legend of its downfall. In the end, the Roman people delivered themselves, and secured the permanent authority of the code of laws, which had been enlarged from ten to twelve tables.—W. Ihne, *History of Rome, bk. 2, ch. 9, 10*.—See also CODES: B. C. 509.

B. C. 449.—Valerio-Horatian laws.—On the overthrow of the tyranny of the Decemvirs, at Rome, 449 B. C., L. Valerius Potitus and M. Horatius Barbatus, being elected consuls, brought about the passage of certain laws, known as the

Valerio-Horatian laws. These renewed an old law (the Valerian law) which gave to every Roman citizen an appeal from the supreme magistrate to the people, and they also made the plebiscita, or resolutions of the assembly of the tribes, authoritative laws, binding on the whole body politic.—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome, bk. 2, ch. 10*.

ALSO IN: G. W. Botsford, *History of the ancient world, pp. 345-346*.

B. C. 445-400.—Canuleian law.—Creation, of consular tribunes.—Progress of the plebs toward political equality.—"The year 449 had not taken from the patricians all their privileges. Rome has still two classes, but only one people, and the chiefs of the plebs, sitting in the senate, are meditating, after the struggle to obtain civil equality, to commence another to gain political equality. . . . Two things maintained the insulting distinction between the two orders: the prohibition of marriage between patricians and plebeians, and the tenure of all the magisterial offices by those who formed since the origin of Rome the sovereign people of the 'patres.' In 445 B. C. the tribune Canuleius demanded the abolition of the prohibition relative to marriages, and his colleagues, a share in the consulate. This was a demand for political equality." The Canuleian law legalizing marriages between patricians and plebeians was conceded, but not until a third "secession" of the plebeians had taken place. The plebeian demand for a share in the consulate was pacified for the time by a constitutional change which formed out of the consulate three offices: "the questorship, the censorship and the consular tribunate. The two former are exclusively patrician. The military [or consular] tribunes, in reality proconsuls confined, with one exception, to the command of the legions, could now be chosen without distinction, from the two orders. But the law, in not requiring that every year a fixed number of them be plebeians, allowed them to be all patricians; and they remained so for nearly fifty years. In spite of such skilful precautions, the senate did not give up the consulate. It held in reserve and pure from all taint the patrician magistracy, hoping for better days. . . . The constitution of 444 B. C. authorized the nomination of plebeians to the consular tribunate; down to 400 B. C. none obtained it; and during the seventy-eight years that this office continued, the senate twenty-four times nominated consuls, that is to say, it attempted, and succeeded, one year in three, in re-establishing the ancient form of government. These perpetual oscillations encouraged the ambitious hopes of a rich knight, Spurius Maelius (439 B. C.). He thought that the Romans would willingly resign into his hands their unquiet liberty, and during a famine he gave very liberally to the poor. The senate became alarmed at this almsgiving which was not at all in accordance with the manners of that time, and raised to the dictatorship Cincinnatus, who, on taking office, prayed the gods not to grant that his old age should prove a cause of hurt or damage to the republic. Summoned before the tribunal of the dictator, Maelius refused to appear, and sought protection against the lictors amongst the crowd which filled the Forum. But the master of the horse, Serv. Ahala, managed to reach him, and ran him through with his sword. In spite of the indignation of the people, Cincinnatus sanctioned the act of his lieutenant, caused the house of the traitor to be demolished, and the 'præfectus annonæ,' Minucius Augurinus, sold, for an 'as' per 'modius,' the corn amassed by Maelius. Such is the story of the partisan of the nobles [Livy]; but at that epoch to

have dreamt of reëstablishing royalty would have been a foolish dream in which Spurius could not have indulged. Without doubt he had wished to obtain, by popular favour, the military tribunate, and in order to intimidate the plebeian candidates, the patricians overthrew him by imputing to him the accusation which Livy complacently details by the mouth of Cincinnatus, of having aimed at royalty. The crowd always can be cajoled by words, and the senate had the art of concentrating on this word 'royalty' all the phases of popular hatred. The move succeeded; during the eleven years following the people nine times allowed consuls to be nominated. There was, however, in 433 B. C. a plebeian dictator, Mamercus Æmilius, who reduced the tenure of censorship to 18 months. These nine consulships gave such confidence to the nobles that the senate itself had to suffer from the proud want of discipline shown by the consuls of the year 428 B. C. Though conquered by the Æquians, they refused to nominate a dictator. To overcome their resistance the senate had recourse to the tribunes of the people, who threatened to drag the consuls to prison. To see the tribunitian authority protecting the majesty of the senate was quite a new phenomenon. From this day the reputation of the tribunate equalled its power, and few years passed without the plebeians obtaining some new advantage. Three years earlier the tribunes, jealous of seeing the votes always given to the nobles, had proscribed the white robes, which marked out from a distance, to all eyes, the patrician candidates. This was the first law against undue canvassing. In 430 a law put an end to arbitrary valuations of penalties payable in kind. In 427 the tribunes, by opposing the levies, obliged the senate to carry to the comitia centuriata the question of the war against Veii. In 423 they revived the agrarian law, and demanded that the tithe should be more punctually paid in the future by the occupiers of domain land, and applied to the pay of the troops. They miscarried this time; but in 421 it seemed necessary to raise the number of quaestors from two to four; the people consented to it only on the condition that the quaestorship be accessible to the plebeians. Three years later 3,000 acres of the lands of Labicum were distributed to fifteen hundred plebeian families. It was very little: so the people laid claim in 414 to the division of the lands of Bola, taken from the Æquians. A military tribune, Postumius, being violently opposed to it, was slain in an outbreak of the soldiery. This crime, unheard of in the history of Roman armies, did harm to the popular cause; there was no distribution of lands, and for five years the senate was able to nominate the consuls. The patrician reaction produced another against it which ended in the thorough execution of the constitution of the year 444. An Icilius in 412, a Mænius in 410 B. C. took up again the agrarian law, and opposed the levy. The year following three of the Icilian family were named as tribunes. It was a menace to the other order. The patricians understood it, and in 410 three plebeians obtained the quaestorship. In [406] . . . pay was established for the troops, and the rich undertook to pay the larger portion of it. Finally, in 400, four military tribunes out of six were plebeians. The chiefs of the people thus obtained the public offices and even places in the senate, and the poor obtained an indemnity which supported their families while they served with the colours. All ambitions, all desires, are at present satisfied. Calm and union returned to Rome; we can see it in the vigour of the attacks on external foes."—V. Duruy, *History of Rome*, v. 1, pp. 231-239.

B. C. 432.—Regulation of census. See CENSUS: Ancient.

B. C. 406-396.—Veientine wars.—Proposed removal to Veii.—"Veii lay about ten miles from Rome, between two small streams which meet a little below the city and run down into the Tiber, falling into it nearly opposite to Castel Giubileo, the ancient Fidenæ. Insignificant in point of size, these little streams, however, like those of the Campagna generally, are edged by precipitous rocky cliffs, and thus are capable of affording a natural defence to a town built on the table-land above and between them. The space enclosed by the walls of Veii was equal to the extent of Rome itself, so long as the walls of Servius Tullius were the boundary of the city. . . . In the magnificence of its public and private buildings Veii is said to have been preferred by the Roman commons to Rome: and we know enough of the great works of the Etruscans to render this not impossible."—T. Arnold, *History of Rome*, v. 1, ch. 12.—"At the opening of the fourth century we find that Romans engaged on their own account in a mortal struggle with Veii, an Etruscan city twelve miles north of Rome and an old-time enemy. . . . The struggle is said to have lasted eleven years. When the Romans finally won [B. C. 396] they incorporated the enemy's territory into the Roman city-state, dividing it into four Roman wards, and reallotting it in small citizen holdings, a procedure which seems to indicate that Rome did not here have the support of the [Latin] League, and that the league's constitution at this time was so loose that individual members might carry on wars independently. A very important result of this victory was that it doubled Rome's territory, making her without question the largest city-state in Latium. Another result, ultimately of far-reaching consequence, was that the allotment of the extensive Veian territory in small holdings immensely increased the force of the Roman army, since soldiers of the line had to be men of property. Finally, since the allotment of land placed a fair competence in the hands of hitherto uninfluential plebeians, it gave an irresistible impetus to the democratic movement. In fact, within twenty years after the distribution of this land the plebeians gained the right to hold the highest office of state. The importance of this circumstance for the question of Roman imperialism lies in the fact that in the future it was usually the democratic element at Rome which favored a policy of expansion."—T. Frank, *Roman imperialism*, pp. 19-20.

B. C. 390-347.—Invasions by the Gauls.—Destruction of the city.—"Before the time we are now speaking of, there had been a great movement in these Celtic nations [of Gael and Cymri]. Two great swarms went out from Gaul. Of these, one crossed the Alps into Italy; the other, moving eastward, in the course of time penetrated into Greece. . . . It is supposed that the Gael who dwelt in the eastern parts of Gaul, being oppressed by Cymric tribes of the west and north, went forth to seek new homes in distant lands. . . . At all events, it is certain that large bodies of Celts passed over the Alps before and after this time, and having once tasted the wines and eaten the fruits of Italy, were in no hurry to return from that fair land into their own less hospitable regions. . . . They overran the rich plains of Northern Italy, and so occupied the territory which lies between the Alps, the Apennines and the Adriatic [except Liguria] that the Romans called this territory Gallia Cisalpina, or Hither Gaul. The northern Etruscans gave way before these fierce barbarians, and their name is heard of no more in

those parts. Thence the Gauls crossed the Apennines into southern Etruria, and while they were ravaging that country they first came in contact with the sons of Rome. . . . The tribe which took this course were of the Senones, as all authors say, and therefore we may suppose they were Gaelic; but it has been thought they were mixed with Cymri, since the name of their king or chief was Brennus, and Brenhin is Cymric for a king."—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 14.—The Romans met the invaders on the banks of the Allia, a little stream from the Sabine hills which flows into the Tiber, and were terribly defeated there. The Gauls entered Rome and found, as the ancient story is, only a few venerable senators, sitting in their chairs and robes of state, whom they slew, because one of the senators resented the stroking of his beard by an insolent barbarian. The remaining inhabitants had withdrawn into the capitol, or taken refuge at Veii and Cære. After pillaging and burning the city, the Gauls laid siege to the capitol, and strove desperately for seven months to overcome its defenders by arms or famine. In the end they retreated, without success, but whether bribed, or driven, or weakened by sickness, is a matter of uncertainty. The Romans cherished many legends connected with the siege of the capitol,—like that, for example, of the sentinel and the sacred geese. "The conquest of Veii was, however, followed by a disaster that nearly destroyed Rome. A Gallic horde from the Po region made a successful raid through Etruria, defeated the Roman army at Allia in 387, sacked and burned the greater part of Rome, and laid siege to the Capitoline fort, the only portion of the city that remained standing. Fortunately the invaders were recalled by the urgent necessity of defending their own homes before they had succeeded in capturing the Roman citadel. They accordingly bargained for as high a price of ransom as possible and departed well laden with booty. The city therefore survived, but it was for the time being terribly weakened, not only in resources, but also in prestige, and Rome's old enemies, the Volsci and Aequi, naturally chose this occasion to renew their raids upon Latium, and some of the Latin cities, apparently through a growing dread of Rome's supremacy, seem to have made terms with the enemy. At least Praeneste is placed in the list of Rome's foes by our best authority. The enemy, however, was repulsed and new Latin colonies were placed at Satricum (385) and at Setia (382) in territory wrested from the Volsci. An invading troop of Aequi was also repulsed, after which these people disappear from Latium. The next forty years was a period of ferment within the league, caused apparently by the mutual jealousies of the various city-states, and especially by their common jealousy of Rome, now rapidly repairing the losses of 387. Rome's rapid growth is not difficult to explain. Her citizens had been taught valuable lessons in arts and crafts, in trade and political organization, by the Etruscan princes, and had received from them an ambition and impetus which they had not before possessed. The recent doubling of Rome's territory enabled the city to absorb a far greater population than hitherto. Rome had a fairly safe harbor which attracted traders from Sicily, Carthage, and Etruria, and by commanding a bridge over the Tiber she became the natural emporium for the products of both sides of the river. Rome thus offered the amenities of a more heterogeneous urban life than other Latin cities could afford, and the races of Italy have always been sociable. When we add that Latin immigrants to the city immediately

secured all the civil rights of citizens because of their common membership in the Latin tribe, we can readily understand how Rome might attract the surplusage of Latian population and grow doubly fast at the expense of less favorably situated or less progressive communities."—T. Frank, *Roman imperialism*, pp. 20-22.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 2, ch. 4.—A. J. Church, *Stories from Livy*, ch. 13-14.

B. C. 376-367.—Licinian laws.—"C. Licinius Stolo and L. Sextius . . . being Tribunes of the Plebs together in the year 376 B. C. promulgated the three bills which have ever since borne the name of the Licinian Rogations. These were: I. That of all debts on which interest had been paid, the sum of the interest paid should be deducted from the principal, and the remainder paid off in three successive years. II. That no citizen should hold more than 500 jugera (nearly 320 acres) of the Public Land, nor should feed on the public pastures more than 100 head of larger cattle and 500 of smaller, under penalty of a heavy fine. III. That henceforth Consuls, not Consular Tribunes, should always be elected, and that one of the two Consuls must be a Plebeian." The patricians made a desperate resistance to the adoption of these proposed enactments for ten years, during most of which long period the operations of government were nearly paralyzed by the obstinate tribunes, who inflexibly employed their formidable power of veto to compel submission to the popular demand. In the end they prevailed, and the Licinian rogations became laws.—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 15.—"Licinius evidently designed reuniting the divided members of the plebeian body. Not one of them, whether rich or poor, but seems called back by these bills to stand with his own order from that time on. If this supposition was true, then Licinius was the greatest leader whom the plebeians ever had up to the time of Cæsar. But from the first he was disappointed. The plebeians who most wanted relief cared so little for having the consulship opened to the richer men of their estate that they would readily have dropped the bill concerning it, lest a demand should endanger their own desires. In the same temper the more eminent men of the order, themselves among the creditors of the poor and the tenants of the domain, would have quashed the proceedings of the tribunes respecting the discharge of debt and the distribution of land, so that they carried the third bill only, which would make them consuls without disturbing their possessions. While the plebeians continued severed from one another, the patricians drew together in resistance to the bills. Licinius stood forth demanding, at once, all that it had cost his predecessors their utmost energy to demand, singly and at long intervals, from the patricians. . . . The very comprehensiveness of his measures proved the safeguard of Licinius. Had he preferred but one of these demands, he would have been unhesitatingly opposed by the great majority of the patricians. On the other hand he would have had comparatively doubtful support from the plebs." In the end, after a struggle of ten years duration, Licinius and Sextius carried their three bills, together with a fourth, brought forward later, which opened to the plebeians the office of the duumvirs, who consulted the Sibylline books. "It takes all the subsequent history of Rome to measure the consequences of the Revolution achieved by Licinius and Sextius; but the immediate working of their laws could have been nothing but a disappointment to their originators and upholders. . . . For some ten years the law regarding the consulship was observed,

after which it was occasionally violated, but can still be called a success. The laws of relief, as may be supposed of all such sumptuary enactments, were violated from the first. No general recovery of the public land from those occupying more than five hundred jugera ever took place. Consequently there was no general division of land among the lack-land class. Conflicting claims and jealousy on the part of the poor must have done much to embarrass and prevent the execution of the law. No system of land survey to distinguish between 'ager publicus' and 'ager privatus' existed. Licinius Stolo himself was afterwards convicted of violating his own law. The law respecting debts met with much the same obstacles. The causes of embarrassment and poverty being much the same and undisturbed, soon reproduced the effects which no reduction of interest or installment of principal could effectually remove. . . . These laws, then, had little or no effect upon the domain question or the re-distribution of land. They did not fulfil the evident expectation of their author in uniting the plebeians into one political body. This was impossible. What they did do was to break up and practically abolish the patriciate. Henceforth were the Roman people divided into rich and poor only."—A. Stephenson, *Public lands and agrarian laws of the Roman republic* (Johns Hopkins University Studies, 9th series, no. 7-8).

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 3.—G. W. Botsford, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 347-349.—S. Eliot, *Liberty of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 7.

B. C. 367.—Institution of the prætorship.—"By the establishment of the prætorship the office of chief judge was separated as a distinct magistracy from the consulship. . . . The prætor was always looked upon as the colleague of the consuls. He was elected in the same manner as the consuls by centuriate comitia, and, moreover, under the same auspices. He was furnished with the imperium, had lictors and fasces. He represented the consuls in town by assembling the senate, conducting its proceedings, executing its decrees. . . . Up to the time of the first Punic war one prætor only was annually elected. Then a second was added to conduct the jurisdiction between citizens and foreigners. A distinction was now made between the city prætor (prætor urbanus), who was always looked upon as having a higher dignity, and the foreign prætor (prætor peregrinus). On the final establishment of the two provinces of Sicily and Sardinia, probably 227 B.C., two new prætors were appointed to superintend the regular government of those provinces, and still later on two more were added for the two provinces of Spain. The number of annual prætors now amounted to six, and so it remained until the legislation of Sulla."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 6, ch. 5.—See also CONSUL, ROMAN.

B. C. 343-290.—Samnite wars.—When the Romans had made themselves dominant in middle Italy, and the Samnites (see SAMNITES) in southern Italy, the question which of the two peoples should be masters of the peninsula at large was sure to demand settlement. About the middle of the fourth century, B.C., it began to urge the two rivals into collision, and the next two generations of Romans were busied chiefly with Samnite wars, of which they fought three, with brief intervals to divide them, and at the end of which the Samnite name had been practically erased from history. The first hostilities grew out of a quarrel between the Samnites of the mountains and their degenerate countrymen of Capua and Campania.

The latter sought help from the Romans, and, according to the Romans, surrendered their city to them in order to secure it; but this is obviously untrue. The First Samnite War, which followed this (343-341 B.C.), had no definite result, and seems to have been brought to an end rather abruptly by a mutiny in the Roman army and by trouble between Rome and her Latin allies. According to the Roman annals there were three great battles fought in this war, one on Mount Gaurus, and two elsewhere; but Mommsen and other historians entirely distrust the historic details as handed down. The Second or Great Samnite War occurred after an interval of fifteen years, during which time the Romans had conquered all Latium, reducing their Latin kinsmen from confederates to subjects. That accomplished, the Romans were quite ready to measure swords again with their more important rivals in the south. The long, desperate and doubtful war which ensued was of twenty-two years duration (326-304 B.C.). In the first years of this war victory was with the Romans and the Samnites sued for peace; but the terms offered were too hard for them and they fought on. Then fortune smiled on them and gave them an opportunity to inflict on their haughty enemy one of the greatest humiliations that Rome in all her history ever suffered. The entire Roman army, commanded by the two consuls of the year, was caught in a mountain defile (321 B.C.), at a place called the Caudine forks, and compelled to surrender to the Samnite general, C. Pontius. The consuls and other officers of the Romans signed a treaty of peace with Pontius, and all were then set free, after giving up their armor and their cloaks and passing "under the yoke." But the Roman senate refused to ratify the treaty, and gave up those who had signed it to the Samnites. The latter refused to receive the offered prisoners and vainly demanded a fulfilment of the treaty. Their great victory had been thrown away, and, although they won another important success at Latulæ, the final result of the war which they were forced to resume was disastrous to them. After twenty-two years of obstinate fighting they accepted terms (304 B.C.) which stripped them of all their territory on the sea-coast, and required them to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome. The peace so purchased lasted less than six years. The Samnites were tempted (298 B.C.) while the Romans had a war with Etruscans and Gauls on their hands, to attempt the avenging of their humiliations. Their fate was decided at the battle of Sentinum (295 B.C.), won by the old consul, Q. Fabius Maximus, against the allied Samnites and Gauls, through the heroic self-sacrifice of his colleague P. Decius Mus (imitating his father of the same name [see below: B.C. 340-338.]) The Samnites struggled hopelessly on some five years longer and submitted finally in 290 B.C. Their great leader, Pontius, was put to death in the dungeons of the state prison under the Capitoline. —Based on J. Michelet, *History of the Roman republic*, bk. 2, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, bk. 2, ch. 19, 21-24.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 2, ch. 6.

B. C. 340.—Publilian laws.—"In the second year of the Latin war (340 B.C.) the Plebeian Consul, Q. Publilius Philo, being name Dictator by his Patrician colleague for some purpose now unknown, proposed and carried three laws still further abridging the few remaining privileges of the Patrician Lords. The first Publilian law enacted that one of the Censors, as one of the Consuls, must be a Plebeian. . . . The second gave fuller sanction to

the principle already established, that the Resolutions of the Plebeian Assembly should have the force of law. The third provided that all laws passed at the Comitia of the Centuries or of the Tribes should receive beforehand the sanction of the Curies."—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 20.

B. C. 340-338.—Subjugation of Latins.—Grant of pseudo-citizenship.—Real concession of the next century and its effects.—A league between the Romans and their kinsmen and neighbors, the Latins, of Tibur, Praeneste, Lanuvium, Aricia, Velitrae, and other towns, as well as with the Hernicans, existed during a century and a half, from the treaty of Sp. Cassius, 493 B.C., according to the Roman annals. At first, the members of the league stood together on fairly equal terms fighting successful wars with the Volscians, the Æquians and the Etruscans. But all the time the Romans contrived to be the greater gainers by the alliance, and as their power grew their arrogance increased, until the Latin allies were denied almost all share in the conquests and the spoils which they helped to win. The discontent which this caused fermented to an outbreak after the first of the Samnite wars. The Latins demanded to be admitted to Roman citizenship and to a share in the government of the state. Their demand was haughtily and even insultingly refused, and a fierce, deadly war between the kindred peoples ensued (339-338 B.C.). The decisive battle of the war was fought under Mount Vesuvius, and the Romans were said to have owed their victory to the self-sacrifice of the plebeian consul, P. Decius Mus, who, by a solemn ceremony, devoted himself and the army of the enemy to the infernal gods, and then threw himself into the thick of the fight, to be slain. The Latin towns were all reduced to dependence upon Rome,—some with a certain autonomy left to them, some with none. "The Latins, being conquered, surrendered,—that is to say, they gave up to the Romans their cities, their worships, their laws, and their lands. Their position was cruel. A consul said in the senate that, if they did not wish Rome to be surrounded by a vast desert, the fate of the Latins should be settled with some regard to clemency. Livy does not clearly explain what was done. If we are to trust him, the Latins obtained the right of citizenship without including in the political privileges the right of suffrage, or in the civil the right of marriage. We may also note, that these new citizens were not counted in the census. It is clear that the senate deceived the Latins in giving them the name of Roman citizens. This title disguised a real subjection, since the men who bore it had the obligations of citizens without the rights. So true is this, that several Latin cities revolted, in order that this pretended citizenship might be withdrawn. A century passed, and, without Livy's notice of the fact, we might easily discover that Rome had changed her policy. The condition of the Latins having the rights of citizens, without suffrage and without connubium, no longer existed. Rome had withdrawn from them the title of citizens, or, rather, had done away with this falsehood, and had decided to restore to the different cities their municipal governments, their laws, and their magistracies. But by a skillful device Rome opened a door which, narrow as it was, permitted subjects to enter the Roman city. It granted to every Latin who had been a magistrate in his native city the right to become a Roman citizen at the expiration of his term of office. This time the gift of this right was complete and without reserve; suffrage, magistracies, census, marriage, private law, all were included. . . . By be-

ing a citizen of Rome, a man gained honor, wealth and security. The Latins, therefore, became eager to obtain this title, and used all sorts of means to acquire it. One day, when Rome wished to appear a little severe, she found that 12,000 of them had obtained it through fraud. Ordinarily, Rome shut her eyes, knowing that by this means her population increased, and that the losses of war were thus repaired. But the Latin cities suffered; their richest inhabitants became Roman citizens, and Latinum was impoverished. The taxes, from which the richest were exempt as Roman citizens, became more and more burdensome, and the contingent of soldiers that had to be furnished to Rome was every year more difficult to fill up."—N. D. Fastel de Coulanges, *Ancient city*, bk. 5, ch. 2.—See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: B. C. 3rd century. .

B. C. 326-c. 304.—Abolition of personal slavery for debt. See DEBT, LAWS CONCERNING: Ancient Roman.

B. C. 312.—Censorship of Appius Claudius.—Admission of the freedmen to the tribes.—Building of Appian way.—"Appius Claudius, . . . afterwards known as Appius the Blind, . . . was elected Censor [312 B.C.], . . . and, as was usual, entered, with his colleague, Plautius Decianus, upon the charge of filling the vacancies which had occurred within the Senate since the last nominations to that body by the preceding Censors. The new elections were always made, it appears, from certain lists of citizens who had either borne great offices or possessed high rank; but Appius, determined from the beginning to secure his authority, either for his own sake or for that of his faction, through any support he could command, now named several of the lowest men in Rome as Senators, amongst whom he even admitted some sons of freedmen, who, as such, were scarcely to be considered to be absolutely free, much less to be worthy of any political advancement. The nomination, backed by a powerful party, out of rather than in the Senate, and vainly, if not feebly, opposed by Plautius Decianus, who resigned his office in disgust at his colleague, was carried, but was set aside in the following year by the Consuls, who could call such Senators as they pleased, and those only, as it seems, to their sessions. Appius, still keeping his place, was soon after assailed by some of the Tribunes, now the representatives, as must be remembered, of the moderate party, rather than of the Plebeian estate. At this the Censor admitted all the freedmen in Rome to the Tribes, amongst which he distributed them in such a manner as promised him the most effectual support. Appius, however, was not wholly absorbed in mere political intrigues. A large portion of his energy and his ambition was spent upon the Way [Appian Way] and the Aqueduct which have borne his name to our day, and which, in his own time, were undertakings so vast as to obtain for him the name of 'the Hundred-handed.' He was an author, a jurist, a philosopher, and a poet, besides. . . . Cneius Flavius, the son of a freedman, one, therefore, of the partisans on whom the Censor and his faction were willing to lavish pretended favor in return for unstinted support, was employed by Appius near his person, in the capacity of private secretary. Appius, who, as already mentioned, was a jurist and an author, appears to have compiled a sort of manual concerning the business-days of the Calendar and the forms of instituting or conducting a suit before the courts; both these subjects being kept in profound concealment from the mass of the people, who were therefore obliged, in case of any legal proceeding, to resort first to the Pontiff to learn on what day,

and next to the Patrician jurist to inquire in what form, they could lawfully manage their affairs before the judicial tribunals. This manual was very likely given to Flavius to copy; but it could scarcely have been with the knowledge, much less with the desire, of his employer, that it was published. . . . But Flavius stood in a position which tempted him, whether he were generous or designing, to divulge the secrets of the manual he had obtained; and it may very well have been from a desire to conciliate the real party of the Plebeians, which ranked above him, as a freedman, that he published his discoveries. He did not go unrewarded, but was raised to various offices, amongst them to the tribuneship of the Plebeians, and finally to the curule ædileship, in which his disclosures are sometimes represented as having been made. . . . The predominance of the popular party is plainly attested in the same year by the censorship of Fabius Rullianus and Decius Mus, the two great

was proposed by the Tribunes. . . . Though some strenuous opposition was made to its passage, it became a law. The highest places of the priesthood, as well as of the civil magistracies, were opened to the Plebeians, whose name will no longer serve us as it has done, so entirely have the old distinctions of their estate from that of the Patricians been obliterated. The Ogulnii did not follow up the success they had gained, and the alliance between the lower Plebeians and the higher Patricians was rather cemented than loosened by a law professedly devised to the advantage of the upper classes of the Plebeians."—S. Eliot, *Liberty of Rome: Rome, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 9.*

B. C. 300—A. D. 300.—Position of women.—Increased privileges.—Laws of marriage and divorce. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 300 B. C.—300 A. D.

B. C. 295-191.—Conquest of Cisalpine Gauls.—Early in the 3d century B. C. the Gauls on the southern side of the Alps, being reinforced from



RUINS ALONG THE APPIAN WAY

generals, who, succeeding to Appius Claudius, removed the freedmen he had enrolled amongst all the Tribes into four Tribes by themselves."—S. Eliot, *Liberty of Rome: Rome, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 8.*

B. C. 312-226.—Building of aqueducts. See AQUEDUCTS: Roman.

B. C. 309.—Perugia captured. See PERUGIA.

B. C. 3rd century.—Control in Montenegro. See MONTENEGRO: B. C. 3rd century—A. D. 1356.

B. C. 300.—Ogulnian law.—In the year 300 B. C., "Quintus and Cneius Ogulnius appear in the tribuneship, as zealous champions of the popular party against the combination of the highest and the lowest classes. Instead, however, of making any wild attack upon their adversaries, the Tribunes seem to have exerted themselves in the wiser view of detaching the populace from its Patrician leaders, in order to unite the severed forces of the Plebeians upon a common ground. . . . A bill to increase the number of the Pontiffs by four, and that of the Augurs by five new incumbents, who should then, and, as was probably added, thenceforward, be chosen from the Plebeians,

Transalpine Gaul, again entered Roman territory, encouraged and assisted by the Samnites, who were then just engaging in their third war with Rome. A Roman legion which first encountered them in Etruria, under Scipio Barbatus, was annihilated, 295 B. C. But the vengeance of Rome overtook them before that year closed, at Sentinum, where the consuls Fabius and Decius ended the war at one blow. The Gauls were quiet after this for ten years; but in 285 B. C. the Senonian tribes invaded Etruria again and inflicted an alarming defeat on the Romans at Arretium. They also put to death some Roman ambassadors who were sent to negotiate an exchange of prisoners; after which the war of Rome against them was pushed to extermination. The whole race was destroyed or reduced to slavery and Roman colonies were established on its lands. The Boian Gauls, between the Apennines and the Po, now resented this intrusion on Gallic territory, but were terribly defeated at the Vadimonian lake and sued for peace. This peace was maintained for nearly sixty years, during which time the Romans were strengthening

themselves beyond the Apennines, with a strong colony at Ariminum (modern Rimini) on the Adriatic sea, with thick settlements in the Senonian country, and with a great road—the Via Flaminia—in process of construction from Rome northwards across the Apennines, through Umbria and along the Adriatic coast to Ariminum. The Boians saw that the yoke was being prepared for them, and in 225 B.C. they made a great effort to break it. In the first encounter with them the Romans were beaten, as in previous wars, but at the great battle of Telamon, fought soon afterwards, the Gallic hosts were almost totally destroyed. The next year the Boians were completely subjugated, and in 222 B.C. the Insubrians were likewise conquered, their capital Mediolanum (Milan) occupied, and all north Italy to the Alps brought under Roman rule, except that the Ligurians in the mountains were still unsubdued and the Cenomanians and the Veneti retained a nominal independence as allies of Rome. But Hannibal's invasion of Italy, occurring soon after, interrupted



PYRRHUS OF EPIRUS

(After statue in the National Museum, Naples)

the settlement and pacification of the Gallic country and made a reconquest necessary after the war with the Carthaginians had been ended. The new Roman fortified colony of Placentia was taken by the Gauls and most of the inhabitants slain. The sister colony of Cremona was besieged, but resisted until relieved. Among the battles fought, that of Comum, 196 B.C., appears to have been the most important. The war was prolonged until 191 B.C., after which there appears to have been no more resistance to Roman rule among the Cisalpine Gauls.—Based on W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 3, ch. 12-13, bk. 4, ch. 5, bk. 5, ch. 7.

B. C. 287.—Last secession of the plebs.—Hortensian laws.—"About the year 287 B.C. the mass of the poorer citizens [of Rome], consisting (as may be guessed) chiefly of those who had lately been enfranchised by Appius, left the city and encamped in an oak-wood upon the Janiculum. To appease this last Secession, Q. Hortensius was named Dictator, and he succeeded in bringing back the people by allowing them to enact several laws upon the spot. One of these Hortensian laws was probably an extension of the Agrarian law of Curius, granting not seven but fourteen jugera

(about 9 acres) to each of the poorer citizens. Another provided for the reduction of debt. But that which is best known as the Hortensian law was one enacting that all Resolutions of the Tribes should be law for the whole Roman people."—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 25.—"With the passing of the Lex Hortensia the long struggle between the orders came to an end. The ancient patrician gentes remained, but the exclusive privileges of the patriciate as a ruling order were gone. For the great offices of state and for seats in the senate the plebeians were by law equally eligible with patricians. The assemblies, whether of people or plebs, were independent of patrician control. In private life inter-marriages between patricians and plebeians were recognised as lawful, and entailed no disabilities on the children. Finally, great as continued to be the prestige attaching to patrician birth, and prominent as was the part played in the subsequent history by individual patricians and by some of the patrician houses, the plebs were now in numbers and even in wealth the preponderant section of the people. Whatever struggles might arise in the future, a second struggle between patricians and plebeians was an impossibility. Such being the case, it might have been expected that the separate organisation, to which the victory of the plebs was largely due, would, now that the reason for its existence was gone, have disappeared. Had this happened, the history of the republic might have been different. As it was, this plebeian machinery—the plebeian tribunes, assemblies, and resolutions—survived untouched, and lived to play a decisive part in a new conflict, not between patricians and plebeians, but between a governing class, itself mainly plebeian, and the mass of the people, and finally to place at the head of the state a patrician Cæsar. Nor was the promise of a genuine democracy, offered by the opening of the magistracies and the Hortensian law, fulfilled. For one hundred and fifty years afterward the drift of events was in the opposite direction, and when the popular leaders of the first century B.C. endeavoured to make the government by the people a reality, it was already too late."—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, bk. 2, ch. 1.

B. C. 281-272.—War with Tarentum and Pyrrhus.—The conquest of the Samnites by the Romans, which was completed in 290 B.C., extended the power of the latter to the very gates of the Greek cities on the Tarentine gulf, of which Tarentum was the chief. At once there arose a party in Tarentum which foresaw the hopelessness of resistance to Roman aggression and favored a spontaneous submission to the supremacy of the formidable city on the Tiber. The patriotic party which opposed this humiliation looked abroad for aid, and found an eager ally in the Molossian king of Epirus, the adventurous and warlike Pyrrhus (see EPIRUS), who sprang from the family of Olympias, mother of Alexander the Great. In the autumn of 282 B.C., the inevitable war between Rome and Tarentum broke out, and early in 280 B.C. Pyrrhus landed a powerful army in Italy, comprising 20,000 heavy-armed foot-soldiers, 3,000 horse, 2,000 archers and 20 elephants. The Romans met him soon after at Heraclea, on the coast. It was the first collision of the Roman legion and the Macedonian phalanx, and the first encounter of the Latin soldier with the huge war-beast of the Asiatics. Pyrrhus won a bloody victory, but won it at such cost that it terrified him. He tried at once to arrange a peace, but the proud Romans made no terms with an invader. Next year he inflicted another great defeat upon them, near

Asculum, in Apulia; but nothing seemed to come of it, and the indomitable Romans were as little conquered as ever. Then the restless Epirot king took his much shaken army over to Sicily and joined the Greeks there in their war with the Carthaginians. The latter were driven out of all parts of the island, except Lilybæum, but failing, after a long siege, to reduce Lilybæum, Pyrrhus lost the whole fruits of his success. The autumn of 276 B. C. found him back again in Italy, where the Romans, during his absence of three years, had recovered much ground. Next year, in the valley of Beneventum, they had their revenge upon him for Heraclea and Asculum, and he was glad to take the shattered remains of his army back to Greece. His career of ambition and adventure was ended three years afterwards (see MACEDONIA: 277-244 B. C.), under the walls of Argos, by a tile which a woman flung down upon his head. In due time all Magna Græcia succumbed to the dominion of Rome, and the commerce and wealth of Tarentum passed over under Roman auspices to the new port of Brundisium, on the Adriatic side of the same promontory.—T. Arnold, *History of Rome*, v. 2, ch. 36-37.

B. C. 280-146.—Supremacy in Greece. See GREECE: B. C. 280-146.

B. C. 275.—Union of Italy under sovereignty of the republic.—Differing relations of subject communities to the sovereign state.—Roman citizenship.—“But the rule of Rome over Italy, like her wider rule over the Mediterranean coasts, was not an absolute dominion over conquered subjects. It was in form at least a confederacy under Roman protection and guidance; and the Italians, like the provincials, were not the subjects, but the ‘allies and friends’ of the Roman people. In every possible way she strove to isolate . . . [the conquered peoples] from each other, while binding them closely to herself. The old federal groups were in most cases broken up, and each of the members united with Rome by a special treaty of alliance. In Etruria, Latium, Campania, and Magna Græcia the city state was taken as the unit; in central Italy, where urban life was non-existent, the unit was the tribe. The northern Sabellian peoples for instance,—the Marsi, Paeligni, Vestini, Marrucini, Frentani,—were now constituted as separate communities in alliance with Rome. In many cases, too, no freedom of trade or inter-marriage was allowed between the allies themselves, a policy afterwards pursued in the provinces. Nor were all these numerous allied communities placed on the same footing as regarded their relations with Rome herself. To begin with, a sharp distinction was drawn between the Latini and the general mass of Italian allies. . . . The Latin colonies . . . [were] communities founded by Rome, composed of men of Roman blood, and whose only claim to the title Latin lay in the fact that Rome granted to them some portion of the rights and privileges formerly enjoyed by the old Italian cities under the Cassian treaty. Though nominally allies, they were, in fact, offshoots of Rome herself, bound to her by community of race, language, and interest, and planted as Roman garrisons among alien and conquered peoples. The Roman citizen who joined a Latin colony lost his citizenship—to have allowed him to retain it would no doubt have been regarded as enlarging too rapidly the limit of the citizen body; but he received in exchange the status of a favoured ally. The Latin colony did not, indeed, enjoy the equality and independence originally possessed by the old Latin cities. It had no freedom of action outside its own territory, could not make war or

peace, and was bound to have the same friends and foes as Rome. But its members had the right of tradition, and, down to 268 B. C., of intermarriage also with Roman citizens. Provided they left sons and property to represent them at home, they were free to migrate to Rome and acquire the Roman franchise. In war time they not only shared in the booty, but claimed a portion of any land confiscated by Rome and declared public. These privileges, coupled with their close natural affinities with Rome, successfully secured the fidelity of the Latin colonies, which became not only the most efficient props of Roman supremacy, but powerful agents in the work of Romanising Italy. Below the privileged Latins stood the Italian allies; and here again we know generally that there were considerable differences of status, determined in each case by the terms of their respective treaties with Rome. . . . Rome, however, did not rely only on this policy of isolation. Her allies were attached as closely to herself as they were clearly separated from each other, and from the first she took every security for the maintenance of her own paramount authority. Within its own borders, each ally was left to manage its own affairs as an independent state. The badges which marked subjection to Rome in the provinces—the resident magistrate and the tribute—were unknown in Italy. But in all points affecting the relations of one ally with another, in all questions of the general interests of Italy and of foreign policy, the decision rested solely with Rome. The place of a federal constitution, of a federal council, of federal officers, was filled by the Roman senate, assembly, and magistrates. The maintenance of peace and order in Italy, the defence of the coasts and frontiers, the making of war or peace with foreign powers, were matters the settlement of which Rome kept entirely in her own hands. Each allied state, in time of war, was called upon for a certain contingent of men, but, though its contingent usually formed a distinct corps under officers of its own, its numerical strength was fixed by Rome, it was brigaded with the Roman legions, and was under the orders of the Roman consul. This paramount authority of Rome throughout the peninsula was confirmed and justified by the fact that Rome herself was now infinitely more powerful than any one of her numerous allies. . . . Since the first important annexation of territory after the capture of Veii (396 B. C.), twelve new tribes had been formed, and the number of male citizens registered at the census had risen from 152,000 to 290,000. Within this enlarged Roman state were now included numerous communities with local institutions and government. At their head stood the Roman colonies, founded to guard especially the coasts of Latium and Campania. Next to these eldest children of Rome came those communities which had been invested with the full Roman franchise. [See NATURALIZATION: Growth of the idea.] . . . Lowest in the scale were those which had not been considered ripe for the full franchise, but had, like Caere, received instead the *civitas sine suffragio*, the civil without the political rights. Their members, though Roman citizens, were not in the ranks of the Roman legions, but in separate contingents. In addition to these organized town communities, there were also the groups of Roman settlers on the public lands, and the dwellers in the village communities of the enfranchised highland districts in central Italy. . . . The urban communities within the Roman pale, colonies and municipia, were allowed a large measure of local self-government. In all we find local assemblies, senates, and magistrates, to whose hands the ordinary routine

of local administration was confided, and, in spite of differences in detail, in the titles and numbers of the magistrates, the same type of constitution prevailed throughout. But these local authorities were carefully subordinated to the higher powers in Rome. . . . The Roman citizen in a colony or municipium enjoyed, of course, the right of appeal to the Roman people in a capital case. . . . But an additional safeguard for the equitable and uniform administration of Roman law in communities, to many of which the Roman code was new and unfamiliar, was provided by the institution of prefects, who were sent out annually, as representatives of the Roman praetor, to administer justice in the colonies and municipia. To prefects was, moreover, assigned the charge of those districts within the Roman pale where no urban communities, and consequently no organised local government, existed."—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, pp. 97, 98-101, 105.—See also COLONIZATION: Ancient Greek, Roman, etc.

B. C. 264-241.—Wars between Rome and Carthage.—First Punic War.—Conquest of Sicily.—"Rome was now head of the Italian land, unifier and protector of its peoples. But this high position involved responsibility (1) for the defence of its coasts and (2) for the protection of its commerce. Dangers in both of these directions appeared on account of the power of the African city, Carthage. . . . North Africa as far as the Atlantic was under its authority, as was also a goodly share of Sicily. . . . Corsica, Sardinia and portions of the Spanish peninsula were its possessions; while the trade of all Spain was in its hands. Such commercial influence and activity brought immense wealth to the city, and for centuries had given it easily the leading position in the west. . . . Rome had taken into its possession the Greek cities of Italy and was bound to protect their interests. Thus at this point it came into touch with Carthage's commercial activity. Nor could Carthage, on its part, accept willingly a limitation of its commerce. It is indispensable to every such community to enlarge and strengthen its trade. The one region remaining in the west which could thus be exploited was Italy. Accordingly, it is not strange that Carthaginian pressure upon the Italian peninsula grew greater just at the moment when Rome's duty of protecting Italy became clear to her statesmen. In these circumstances a conflict of interests leading to open war was unavoidable. . . . Rome had under it a population of about five million, Carthage, with a city population of about half a million, had in its empire about five million people also; but whereas Rome could put for years at a stretch one hundred thousand men in the field, Carthage was mainly dependent upon mercenaries and seldom was able to employ more than thirty thousand of them. The main asset of Carthage was its wealth. Its revenues were far greater than those of Rome, which was weak financially; but the first consideration of Carthage was the fleet in which it had on occasion as many as three hundred and fifty vessels, most of them the huge top-heavy quinquiremes which became the normal battle-ships in the third century B. C. To maintain such a fleet, however, strained to the limit even the enormous resources of Carthage."—G. S. Goodspeed, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 343-345.—"The war lasted twenty-three years, [264-241] and is ranked by Polybius above all previous wars for severity. Few conflicts illustrate better the value of naval superiority. At first the Carthaginians were undisputed masters of the sea. They therefore reenforced their troops in Sicily at pleasure, and ravaged the coasts of Italy to the utter

ruin of seaboard prosperity. Indeed, for a time they made good their warning to the Roman Senate before the war began,—that against their will no Roman could dip his hands in the sea. But the Romans, with sagacity and boldness, built their first war fleet and soon met the ancient Queen of the Seas on her own element. Winning command there temporarily, in 256, they invaded Africa itself. The consul Regulus won brilliant successes there, and even laid siege to Carthage. But, as winter came on, the short-term Roman levies were mostly recalled, according to custom, and the weak remnant was soon crushed. Rome's first attempts upon the sea had been surprisingly successful, but soon terrible reverses befell her there also. In quick succession she lost four great fleets with large armies on board. One sixth of her citizens had perished; the treasury was empty; and, in despair, the Senate was about to abandon the effort to secure the sea. In this crisis Rome was saved by the public spirit of private citizens. Lavish gifts built and fitted out two hundred vessels, and this fleet won an overwhelming victory, which closed the war. Carthage had lost command of the sea and could no longer reinforce her armies in Sicily. Moreover, she was weary of the war and of the losses it brought to her commerce; and, in 241, she sued for peace. To obtain it she withdrew from Sicily and paid a heavy war indemnity. Hiero, who after the first years of the war had become a faithful ally of Rome, remained master of Syracuse. . . . The rest of Sicily passed under the rule of Rome."—W. M. West, *Ancient world*, pp. 325-327.—"The occasion of the First Punic War was dishonourable to Rome. Certain mercenary soldiers had seized Messina in Sicily, destroyed the citizens, and held possession against the Syracusans, 284 B. C. They were beaten in the field, and blockaded in Messina by Hiero, king of Syracuse, and then, driven to extremity, sent a deputation to Rome, praying that 'the Romans, the sovereigns of Italy, would not suffer an Italian people to be destroyed by Greeks and Carthaginians,' 264 B. C. It was singular that such a request should be made to the Romans, who only six years before had chastised the military revolt of their brethren Mamertines in Rhegium, taking the city by storm, scourging and beheading the defenders, and then restoring the old inhabitants (270 B. C.). The senate was opposed to the request of the Messina deputation; but the consuls and the people of Rome, already jealous of Carthaginian influence in Sicily and the Mediterranean, resolved to protect the Mamertine buccaneers and to receive them as their friends and allies. Thus dishonestly and disgracefully did the Romans depart from their purely Italian and continental policy, which had so well succeeded, to enter upon another system, the results of which no one then could foresee. Some excuse may be found in the fact that the Carthaginians had been placed by their partisans in possession of the citadel, and this great rival power of Carthage was thus brought unpleasantly near to the recent conquered territory of Rome. The fear of Carthaginian influence overcame the natural reluctance to an alliance with traitors false to their military oath, the murderers and plunderers of a city which they were bound to protect. Thus began 'the First Punic War, which lasted, without intermission, 22 years, a longer space of time than the whole period occupied by the wars of the French Revolution.' In this war Duilius won the first naval battle near Mylae (Melarro). Regulus invaded Africa proper, the territory of Carthage, with great success, until beaten and taken prisoner at Zama, 256-

255 B. C. The war was carried on in Sicily and on the sea until 241 B. C., when peace was made on conditions that the Carthaginians should evacuate Sicily and make no war upon Hiero, king of Sicily (the ally of the Romans), that they should pay 3,200 Euboic talents (about £110,000) within ten years, 241 B. C. The effects of an exhausting war were soon overcome by ancient nations, so that both Rome and Carthage rapidly recovered, 'because wars in those days were not maintained at the expense of posterity.' Rome had to check the Illyrian pirates and to complete the conquest of Cisalpine Gaul and the Ligurians 238-221 B. C. Meanwhile the Carthaginians, hampered by a three years' rebellion [241-237 B. C.] of its mercenary troops, quietly permitted the Romans to take possession of Corsica and Sardinia, [227] and agreed to pay 1,200 talents as compensation to Roman merchants. On the other hand, measures were in process to re-establish the Carthaginian power; the patriotic party, the Barcine family, under Hamilcar, commenced the carrying out of the extensions and consolidations of the territories in Spain.—W. B. Boyce, *Introduction to the study of history, period 4, sect. 4*.—See also PUNIC WARS: FIRST.

ALSO IN: Polybius, *Histories, bk. 1*.—R. B. Smith, *Carthage, ch. 4-7*.—A. J. Church, *Story of Carthage, pt. 4, ch. 1-3*.

B. C. 234-103.—Growth of Latin spirit in literature. See LATIN LITERATURE: B. C. 234-103.

B. C. 224-187.—Wars in Syria. See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 224-187.

B. C. 218-202.—Second Punic War.—Hannibal in Italy.—Defeat of Hasdrubal at the Metaurus.—War in Africa.—War ended at Zama.—Acquisition of Spain.—"The occasion for the second struggle with Carthage appeared in an unexpected quarter. One of the most skilful Punic generals, Hamilcar Barca, animated by an inextinguishable hatred for Rome, retired to Spain after the 'truceless' war and there spent nine years in building up a Carthaginian power which might furnish men and money to renew the war with Rome. After his death, first his son-in-law Hasdrubal (228-221 B. C.) and later his son Hannibal, with splendid vigor and success, carried on his work. The wild tribes south of the river Ebro were tamed, united and organized into an effective force. Money and munitions of war were collected and a plan of campaign, bold beyond all expectation, was devised. The first step precipitated war. Saguntum, a petty fort in alliance with Rome, was attacked and captured by Hannibal. His surrender was at once demanded and as promptly refused, whereupon a Roman ambassador in the picturesque fashion of the Roman declaration of war 'gathered his toga in two folds—"War or peace," he cried; "which will you have?" "Which you will," was the answer. He shook out the fold of war, and war was accepted by Carthage with a light heart.' Then with an army of fifty thousand infantry and nine thousand cavalry, supported by fighting elephants, Hannibal marched northward with no less audacious a design than the crossing of the Alps and the descent into northern Italy. After almost incredible hardships, through fightings with wild tribes and the fierceness of winter storms among the higher Alps, the army, reduced to less than half its number, stood exhausted, but triumphant, on the plains of Cisalpine Gaul. And now began a duel to the death, the Second Punic War (218 B. C.). The fate of Rome hung on the loyalty of the allied cities of Italy. The newly conquered Gauls soon rose and flocked to Hannibal. The Roman army under the consuls was routed at battles on the banks of the rivers Ticinus and the

Trebia. [See ALPS: Roman period.] The next year (217 B. C.) Hannibal, advancing southward, entrapped and annihilated another Roman army at Lake Trasimene in Etruria; the consul Flaminius was killed in the battle. Then the Romans in alarm appointed Quintus Fabius Maximus dictator, known in history as the 'shield of Rome.' He would not give battle, but followed on the heels of Hannibal as he marched down to the southeast ravaging the country. New commanders, the consuls Aemilius Paulus and Terentius Varro, and a new and great army of more than eighty thousand men marched out against him in 216 B. C.; again the Romans were utterly beaten at Cannae in Apulia; one consul, Varro, and ten thousand men survived the slaughter. In this as in all the other Italian engagements of Hannibal the victory was gained or rendered complete by his clever use of his wonderful Numidian cavalry. Rome now appeared on the verge of destruction. The majority of the Roman allies in southern Italy passed over to Hannibal's side—Capua and Tarentum among the rest. In Sicily, Syracuse and its dependencies renounced the Roman alliance. Philip V, of Macedonia, made an alliance with Hannibal. And, in fact, Hannibal had substantially accomplished his mission, which was not the annihilation of Rome, but the dissolution of the Italian federation and the reduction of its head to its historic position as one among the many petty states of the peninsula. Henceforth, all he had to do was to maintain his position in Italy and prevent the Romans from re-establishing their hegemony. But the heroic Roman spirit remained unshaken. An offer of peace by the victor of Cannae was rejected. An army sent to Syracuse under the command of Metellus, 'the sword of Rome,' captured that city and restored Roman power in Sicily. War was declared against Philip. Energetic efforts were put forth to recover the rebellious Italian cities, while further pitched battles with Hannibal were avoided. The fortified posts occupied by Roman allies all over the land—the Latin colonies—held fast to Rome. Thus gradually the sky brightened, while Hannibal's task grew more difficult. He lost Capua in 211 B. C., and a dash at Rome in the same year failed. Tarentum was taken by the Romans in 209 B. C. The crisis of the struggle came when Hasdrubal, Hannibal's brother, eluding the enemy in Spain, started for Italy. Already Rome was near the end of its resources. Twelve Latin colonies announced that they could keep up the struggle no longer. If the two Carthaginian armies could unite, their victory was sure. But in 207 B. C. the army of Hasdrubal was destroyed at the river Metaurus, he himself killed and his head thrown over the ramparts of his brother's camp. As Hannibal looked upon it, he is said to have declared, 'I behold the fate of Carthage.' This battle decided that Hannibal could maintain his position in Italy for only a limited time. Soon his diminishing army was shut up in the region of Bruttium. Peace was made between Rome and Philip. Meanwhile, a tedious war had been carried on in Spain—Hannibal's sole possible source of reinforcements—by the brothers Publius and Gnaeus Scipio, who were both finally overthrown and killed (212 B. C.). All Spain seemed lost to the Romans when the son of the slain general, Publius Cornelius Scipio, a brilliant young Roman officer, who earlier than anyone else saw the advantage of fighting the war out in Hannibal's own country, came to Spain with an army (211 B. C.). He did not, indeed, prevent the departure of Hasdrubal for Italy, but after a series of striking campaigns he was able in 206 B. C. to return to Italy leaving Rome

master of the Carthaginian part of the Iberian peninsula. Two years later he advanced his project a step further by crossing the sea with an army to carry the war into Africa. [See also SPAIN: B. C. 218-25.] Hannibal was recalled to defend his country and was overthrown by Scipio at the battle of Zama (202 B.C.). The war was over; Carthage was ruined, and nothing was left but to seek as favorable terms of peace as possible. They were not too severe; Spain and the Mediterranean islands were given up; the kingdom of Numidia was granted its independence under King Massinissa, whose claim to the throne of all Numidia Rome had espoused, and war upon it was forbidden; the fleet was reduced to ten triremes; a payment of two hundred talents yearly for fifty years was imposed. Thus Carthage, while not destroyed, lost its political and commercial supremacy and became little more than a dependency of Rome."—G. S. Goodspeed, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 350-354.—"The conquest of Spain had been a political necessity during the war, since it alone could furnish the enemy with new recruits, and its retention afterwards was, of course, the only conceivable course, but for two centuries this new province cost the state more than it yielded. . . . Suffice it to say that various times during the following century the Roman senate would have been relieved to hear that the whole peninsula had disappeared under water. The havoc wrought in southern Italy was irreparable. For twelve years the Romans and Carthaginians had driven each other over this region, both sides storming cities and laying waste fields as the best methods of tiring and weakening their opponents. . . . The waste land—perhaps two million acres—Rome appropriated as being without claimants. But what could she do with it? . . . In the Roman constitution the war wrought few changes. The newly acquired province of Spain readily fell into the form of government shaped for Sicily. The federation in Italy had stood the endurance test better than could have been anticipated, and the senate saw no reason for introducing any innovations there. In fact, because of the general satisfaction, the senate even grew negligent about making several well-deserved promotions towards citizenship. The old-city-state government at Rome had proved itself versatile enough to meet the exigencies of the war. . . . But perhaps the most portentous result of the war lay in Rome's new consciousness of her strength. The struggle had revealed an unknown power of endurance, of loyalty, and of persistence in the temper of the Roman people. It had demonstrated that the constitution held the state's resources at a point of quick response. It seemed to prove that the nation was unconquerable."—T. Frank, *Roman imperialism*, pp. 129-132.

B. C. 215-196.—First Macedonian War (215-205 B.C.).—Second Macedonian War (200-196 B.C.).—Liberation of the Greeks (196 B.C.).—"Before the opening of the conflict with Hannibal, the Romans had taken a few Greek cities into their alliance. At this time the great power in Greece was Philip V of Macedon. Some of the Greek states he actually conquered; others submitted to his alliance through fear, or with difficulty maintained their independence. Philip resented Roman meddling within his own sphere of influence. When, therefore, news came of Hannibal's great success, he made an alliance with the victor, and prepared a fleet for the purpose of landing an army in Italy. Foiled in some minor operations near home, he had to give up his ambitious plan and to use all his resources in defending himself against the Greeks, who were aided

by a few thousand men from Rome. After ten years of defensive campaigning, known as the First Macedonian War, Philip sought and obtained peace (205 B.C.). Rome then entered into alliance with Aetolia, Athens, and other important states of Greece."—G. M. Botsford, *History of the ancient world*, p. 37.—"In 201 B.C. Rome made peace with Carthage, and the senate had leisure to listen to the urgent appeal for assistance which reached her from her Eastern allies. . . . To cripple, or at least to stay the growth of Philip's power was in the eyes of the senate a necessity; but it was only by representing a Macedonian invasion of Italy as imminent that they persuaded the assembly, which was longing for peace, to pass a declaration of war (200 B.C.), an ostensible pretext for which was found in the invasion by Macedonian troops of the territory of Rome's ally, Athens. The war commenced in the summer of 200 B.C.; and, though the landing of the Roman legions in Epirus was not followed, as had been hoped, by any general rising against Philip, yet the latter had soon to discover that his allies, if they were not enthusiastic for Rome were still less inclined actively to assist himself. Neither by force nor diplomacy could he make any progress south of Boeotia. . . . Further resistance was impossible; Philip submitted, and early the next year a Roman commission reached Greece with instructions to arrange terms of peace. These were such as effectually secured Rome's main object in the war, the removal of all danger to herself and her allies from Macedonian aggression. Philip was left in possession of his kingdom, but was degraded to the rank of a second-rate power, deprived of all possessions in Greece, Thrace, and Asia Minor, and forbidden, as Carthage had been in 201 B.C., to wage war without the consent of Rome, whose ally and friend he now became. Macedon thus weakened could no longer be formidable, but might yet be useful, not only as a barrier against Thracians and Kelts, but as a check upon anti-Roman intrigues in Greece. The second point in the settlement now effected by Rome was the liberation of the Greeks. The 'freedom of Greece' was proclaimed at the Isthmian games amid an outburst of enthusiasm, which reached its height when two years later (194 B.C.) Flamininus withdrew his troops from the 'three fetters of Greece'—Chalcis, Demetrias, and Corinth. There is no reason to doubt that, in acting thus, not only Flamininus himself, but the senate and people at home, were influenced, partly at any rate, by feelings of genuine sympathy with the Greeks and reverence for their past. . . . For Rome to have annexed Greece, as she had annexed Sicily and Spain, would have been a flagrant violation of the pledges she had repeatedly given both before and during the war. . . . But a friendly and independent Greece would be at once a check on Macedon, a barrier against aggression from the East, and a promising field for Roman commerce. Nor while liberating the Greeks did Rome abstain from such arrangements as seemed necessary to secure the predominance of her own influence. In the Peloponnese, for instance, the Achaeans were rewarded by considerable accessions of territory; and it is possible that the Greek states, as allies of Rome, were expected to refrain from war upon each other without her consent. The failure of the policy, after all, was due to the impracticability of the Greeks, and the intensity of their civic and tribal feuds. To suppose as some have done that Rome intended it to fail is to attribute to the statesmen of the generation of Scipio and Flamininus even more than the cynicism of the time of L. Mummius."—H. F.

Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, pp. 141-142.—“When Alexander died at Babylon in the year 323 B.C., Rome was in the midst of the Samnite wars. Her victories over the Samnites and the cities of Magna Graecia gave her, by 264 B.C., the supremacy of the Italian peninsula. During the next half century she was too busy with the Carthaginians to think of interference in the affairs of the East. The end of the Second Punic War afforded Rome a chance to pursue her designs abroad. . . . In the East, she extended her influence over the highly civilized peoples of Greece and Asia. Rome, ever since the repulse of Pyrrhus, had been slowly drifting into closer contact with the East. The chastisement of the Illyrian pirates [228 B.C.] earned for her the gratitude of the commercial cities of the Greek peninsula. A little later, she aided some of the Greeks against the Macedonian king, Philip V, who had allied himself with Hannibal and threatened an invasion of Italy. This First Macedonian War, as it is called, brought important consequences. It drew closer the ties which bound Rome to the Greek states as their natural champion against Macedonia. It inspired the Roman Senate with bitter resentment toward Philip for his assistance to Carthage. Rome had no sooner crushed Hannibal than she turned her attention to Philip. It was easy to find a pretext for another conflict with Macedonia. Philip was an ambitious monarch whose schemes for conquest threatened Rome's allies in the East—Egypt, Rhodes, and Athens. They sent to the great Italian republic urgent calls for help. The Roman people were weary of fighting, but the Senate used all its influence and forced through the *comitia centuriata* a declaration of war against Philip. The Second Macedonian War was settled by a single battle. The consul Flamininus met the enemy at Cynoscephalæ (‘Dogs’ Heads’), a range of low hills in Thessaly. It was a fateful moment when, for the second time, the legions faced the phalanx. After a sharp struggle, the Romans won and Philip sued for peace. Rome did not feel ready to absorb the territory of Macedonia and thus found an eastern empire. Philip still kept his kingdom, but lost his possessions in Greece. He was forbidden, as Carthage had been, to wage war without Roman consent. Macedonia in this way became a dependent ally of Rome. Shortly after these events, Rome announced the independence of Greece [B.C. 196]. It was then spring, and a vast number of Greeks had gathered at Corinth to witness the athletic games. Suddenly a herald appeared and proclaimed that, by the orders of the Roman Senate, Greece was henceforth free. The people could hardly believe his words, so unexpected was the news. When the festival was over, they nearly killed Flamininus with their demonstrations of joy. Some wanted to look him in the face and call him their preserver, others were eager to grasp his hand, and others covered him with garlands and fillets. Rome was hailed as ‘the nation which, at its own expense, with its own labor, and at its own risk, waged war for the liberty of mankind.’ So, all in all, it was a great day for Greece.”—H. Webster, *Ancient history*, pp. 378-379.

B.C. 214-146.—Conquests in Greece. See GREECE: B.C. 214-146.

B.C. 210.—Capture and rule of Cartagena by Scipio. See CARTAGENA: B.C. 210.

B.C. 200-A.D. 800.—Commercial activity.—Methods of dealing with subject provinces. See COMMERCE: Ancient: B.C. 200-A.D. 800.

B.C. 2nd century.—Greek influence. See Hellenism: Hellenism and the Romans.

B.C. 2nd-1st centuries.—Use of forums. See FORUMS OF ROME: Forum Romanum.

B.C. 2nd-1st centuries.—Army organization.—Professional army of Marius.—Abolition of distinctions. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 8.

B.C. 197-146.—Roman policy in eastern Mediterranean.—“It was in the western half of the protectorate in European Greece that the first steps in the direction of annexation [to the empire] were taken. The enthusiasm provoked by the liberation of the Greeks had died away, and its place had been taken by feelings of dissatisfied ambition or sullen resentment. Internecine feuds and economic distress had brought many parts of Greece to the verge of anarchy, and, above all, the very foundations of the settlement effected in 197 B.C. were threatened by the reviving power and aspirations of Macedon. . . . The senate could no longer hesitate. They were well aware of the restlessness and discontent in Greece; and after hearing from Eumenes of Pergamum, and from their own officers, all details of Perseus's intrigues and preparations they declared war. The struggle, in spite of Perseus's courage and the incapacity at the outset of the Roman commanders, was short and decisive. . . . The victory gained by L. Æmilius Paullus at Pydna (168 B.C.) ended the war. Perseus became the prisoner of Rome, and as such died in Italy a few years later. Rome had begun the war with the fixed resolution no longer of crippling but of destroying the Macedonian state. . . . Yet Macedonia, though it ceased to exist as a single state, was not definitely constituted a Roman province. . . . All Greeks suspected of Macedonian leanings were removed to Italy, as hostages for the loyalty of the several communities. . . . But this somewhat violent experiment only answered for a time. In 148 B.C. the Achæans rashly persisted, in spite of warnings, in attempting to compel Sparta by force of arms to submit to the league. When threatened by Rome with the loss of all that they had gained since Cynoscephalæ, they madly rushed into war. They were easily defeated and a ‘commission of ten,’ under the presidency of L. Mummius, was appointed by the senate thoroughly to resettle the affairs of Greece. Corinth [146 B.C.], by orders of the senate, was burnt to the ground, and its territory confiscated. Thebes and Chalcis were destroyed, and the walls of all towns which had shared in the last desperate outbreak were razed to the ground. All the existing confederacies were dissolved; no commercium was allowed between one community and another. Everywhere an aristocratic type of constitution, according to the invariable Roman practice, was established, and the payment of a tribute imposed. Into Greece, as into Macedonia in 167 B.C., the now familiar features of the provincial system were introduced—disarmament, isolation, and taxation. The Greeks were still nominally free, and no separate province with a governor of its own was established, but the needed central control was provided by assigning to the neighbouring governor of Macedonia a general supervision over the affairs of Greece. From the Adriatic to the Ægean, and as far north as the river Drilo and Mount Scardus, the whole peninsula was now under direct Roman rule. Beyond the Ægean the Roman protectorate worked no better than in Macedonia and Greece, and the demoralising recriminations, quarrels, and disorders which flourished under its shadow were aggravated by its longer duration, and by the still more selfish view taken by Rome of the responsibilities connected with it. . . . The levelling policy pursued towards Macedon and the

Achæans was applied with less justice to Rome's two faithful and favoured allies, Rhodes and Pergamum. The former had rendered themselves obnoxious to Rome by their independent tone, and still more by their power and commercial prosperity. . . . Finally their commercial prosperity was ruined by the establishment of a free port at Delos, and by the short-sighted acquiescence of Rome in the raids of the Cretan pirates. . . . The frontier of the protectorate was pushed forward to the confines of Armenia and to the upper Euphrates by alliances with the kings of Pontus and Cappadocia beyond the Halys. In Syria, on the death of Antiochus Epiphanes (164 B. C.), Rome intervened to place a minor, Antiochus Eupator, on the throne, under Rome's guardianship. In 168 B. C. Egypt formally acknowledged the suzerainty of Rome, and in 163 B. C. the senate, in the exercise of this new authority, restored Ptolemy Philometor to his throne, but at the same time weakened his position by handing over Cyrene and Cyprus to his brother Euergetes. This display of energy, however, was short-lived. From the death of Eumenes in 159 B. C. down to 133 B. C. Rome, secure in the absence of any formidable power in the East, and busy with affairs in Macedonia, Africa, and Spain, relapsed into an inactivity the disastrous results of which revealed themselves in the next period in the rise of Mithradates of Pontus, the spread of Cretan and Cilician piracy, and the advance of Parthia. To the next period also belongs the conversion on the death of Attalus III. of the kingdom of Pergamum into the Roman province of Asia. . . . To the East [Rome] came as the liberator of the Greeks; and it was only slowly that in this part of the empire her provincial system made way. In the East, moreover, the older civilisation she found there obstinately held its ground. Her proconsuls governed and her legions protected the Greek communities, but to the last the East remained in language, manners, and thought Greek and not Roman."—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, pp. 141-154.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 197-A. D. 138.

B. C. 192-189.—War with Antiochus the Great of Syria.—"At Rome the prospect of a conflict with Antiochus excited great anxiety, and it was not until every resource of diplomacy had been exhausted that war was declared. At a distance, indeed, Antiochus, the great king, the lord of all the forces of Asia, seemed an infinitely more formidable opponent than their better-known neighbour Philip, and a war against the vaguely-known powers of the East a far more serious matter than a campaign in Thessaly. War, however, was unavoidable, unless Rome was to desert her Greek allies, and allow Antiochus to advance unopposed to the coasts of the Adriatic. And the war had no sooner commenced than the real weakness which lay behind the magnificent pretensions of the 'king of kings' was revealed. Had Antiochus acted with energy when in 192 B. C. he landed in Greece, he might have won the day before the Roman legions appeared. As it was, in spite of the warnings of Hannibal, who was now in his camp, and of the Ætolians, he frittered away valuable time between his pleasures at Chalcis and useless attacks on petty Thessalian towns. . . . A Roman fleet had already (191 B. C.) crossed the Ægean, and in concert with the fleets of Pergamum and Rhodes worsted the navy of Antiochus. In 190 B. C. the new consul, L. Scipio, accompanied by his famous brother, the conqueror of Hannibal, led the Roman legions for the first time into Asia. At Magnesia, near

Mount Sipylus in Lydia, he met and defeated the motley and ill-disciplined hosts of the great king. For the first time the West, under Roman leadership, successfully encountered the forces of the East, and the struggle began which lasted far on into the days of the emperors. The terms of the peace which followed the victory at Magnesia tell their own story clearly enough. There was no question, any more than in Greece, of annexation; the main object in view was that of securing the predominance of Roman interests and influence throughout the peninsula of Asia Minor, and removing to a safe distance the only Eastern power which could be considered dangerous. . . . The area lying between these 'buffer states' and the Ægean was organised by Rome in such a way as should at once reward the fidelity of her allies and secure both her own paramount authority and her safety from foreign attack. Pergamum and Rhodes were so strengthened—the former by the gift of the Chersonese, Lycaonia, Phrygia, Mysia, and Lydia, the latter by that of Lycia and Caria—as not only amply to reward their loyalty, but to constitute them effective props of Roman interests and effective barriers alike against Thracian and Celtic raids in the north and against aggression by Syria in the south. Lastly, the Greek cities on the coast, except those already tributary to Pergamum, were declared free, and established as independent allies of Rome."—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, pp. 143-157.

B. C. 189-139.—Wars with Lusitanians. See PORTUGAL: Early history; LUSITANIA.

B. C. 184-149.—Spoils of conquest and the corruption they wrought.—"The victories of the last half-century seemed to promise ease and wealth to Rome. She was to live on the spoils and revenue from the conquered countries. Not only did they pay a fixed tax to her exchequer, but the rich lands of Capua, the royal domain lands of the kings of Syracuse and of Macedonia, became public property, and produced a large annual rent. It was found possible in 167 to relieve citizens from the property tax or tributum, which was not collected again until the year after the death of Iulius Caesar. But the sudden influx of wealth had the usual effect of raising the standard of expense; and new tastes and desires required increased means for their gratification. All manner of luxuries were finding their way into the city from the East. Splendid furniture, costly ornaments, wanton dances and music for their banquets, became the fashion among the Roman nobles; and the younger men went to lengths of debauchery and extravagance hitherto unknown. The result to many was financial embarrassment, from which relief was sought in malversation and extortion. The old standard of honour in regard to public money was distinctly lowered, and cases of misconduct and oppression were becoming more common and less reprobated. . . . The fashionable taste for Greek works of art, in the adornment of private houses, was another incentive to plunder, and in 149 it was for the first time found necessary to establish a permanent court or 'quaestio' for cases of malversation in the provinces. Attempts were indeed made to restrain the extravagance which was at the root of the evil. In 184 Cato, as censor, had imposed a tax on the sale of slaves under twenty above a certain price, and on personal ornaments above a certain value; and though the 'lex Oppia', limiting the amount of women's jewelry, had been repealed in spite of him in 195, other sumptuary laws were passed. A 'lex Orchia' in 182 limited

the number of guests, a 'lex Fannia' in 161 the amount to be spent on banquets; while a 'lex Didia' in 143 extended the operation of the law to all Italy. And though such laws, even if enforced, could not really remedy the evil, they perhaps had a certain effect in producing a sentiment; for long afterwards we find overcrowded dinners regarded as indecorous and vulgar. Another cause, believed by some to be unfavourably affecting Roman character, was the growing influence of Greek culture and Greek teachers. For many years the education of the young, once regarded as the special business of the parents, had been passing into the hands of Greek slaves or freedmen. . . . On the superiority of Greek culture there was a division of opinion. The Scipios and their party patronised Greek philosophy and literature. . . . This tendency, which went far beyond a mere question of literary taste, was opposed by a party of which M. Porcius Cato was the most striking member. . . . In Cato's view the reform needed was a return to the old ways, before Rome was infected by Greece."—E. S. Shuckburgh, *History of Rome to the battle of Actium*, ch. 32.

B. C. 171-133.—Third Macedonian War.—Downfall of Greece.—"Although the Romans had so far taken nothing for themselves in the eastern wars, their allies in Macedonia and Greece grew restless as they noted the rising greatness of the Italian power. Feelings of dissatisfied ambition or of sullen resentment replaced the enthusiasm with which the Greeks had welcomed their Roman liberators. To the Macedonians the peace declared after the battle of Cynoscephalae brought nothing but humiliation. When Philip V was succeeded by his son Perseus, that prince sought to revive the national aspirations of the Greeks and to pose as a champion of Hellas against barbarian Rome. The Senate, to prevent so formidable a combination, once more took up arms against Macedonia. The Third Macedonian War was short and decisive. The Roman commander, Aemilius Paulus, a son of the consul slain at Cannae, met the enemy near Pydna. 'Paulus had never seen a phalanx till he saw it in the army of Perseus on this occasion; and he often admitted to his friends at Rome afterwards that he had never beheld anything more alarming and terrible.' The phalanx, however impressive, proved no match for the legion. Perseus soon fled from the field, leaving his army to its fate. He was captured later and taken to Rome, where he graced the triumphal procession of his conqueror. Macedonia, as a kingdom, ceased to exist. The country was divided into four states, free in name, but in reality the subjects of Rome. A few years later (146 B.C.), the Romans took away even this vestige of independent rule and converted Macedonia into a province. Thus disappeared a great power which Philip had founded, and Alexander had led to the conquest of the world. For Greece also, the end of 'freedom' was drawing nigh. After the victory at Pydna, all the Greeks suspected of sympathizing with Macedonia were transported to Italy as hostages for the loyalty of their several cities. Among these were a thousand members of the Achaean League. The survivors, after sixteen years of captivity, were allowed to return to their homes. 'It is only a question,' said Cato the Censor, 'whether a parcel of worn-out Greeks shall be carried to their graves here or in Achaia.' This cruel treatment helped further to inflame the spirit of hatred toward Rome. At length the Achaean League rashly declared war.

It could have only one outcome—the downfall of Greece, the triumph of Rome. The heavy hand of Roman vengeance descended on Corinth, the chief member of the league, and at this time one of the most beautiful cities of the world. In 146 B.C., the same year in which the destruction of Carthage occurred, and just half a century after Flamininus had proclaimed the liberation of Greece, Corinth was sacked by the Roman soldiery and burned to the ground. A Greek historian, who was an eye-witness of the destruction of Corinth, tells us that the rude Romans cared little for the treasures of art which filled the city. 'I saw with my own eyes pictures thrown on the ground and soldiers playing dice on them.' The Roman general Mummius was hardly less a boor. When the priceless paintings and statues were taken to Rome to be exhibited at his triumph, he gave orders that any lost on the way should be replaced 'by others of equal value.' Rome was great enough in war, but in everything else was still barbarian. The fall of Corinth may be said to mark the final extinction of Greek independence. Though the Hellenic cities and states were allowed to rule themselves, subject to the oversight of the Roman governor of Macedonia, they paid tribute and thus acknowledged the supremacy of Rome. A century later, Greece became in name, as well as in fact, a province of the Roman Empire. The same year that marked the complete establishment of Roman rule in Spain saw Rome gain her first possessions at the opposite end of the Mediterranean. In 133 B.C., the last king of Pergamum bequeathed his dominions to the Roman people. The new province of Asia, which now came into existence, included all the western part of Asia Minor, together with the Greek cities that lined the coasts. The country took rank among the most valuable of Roman dependencies. Thus the lordship of Asia, held in turn by Cyrus and Darius, by Alexander of Macedonia, and by Antiochus the Great, passed finally into the hands of the Italian republic. Roman supremacy over the Mediterranean world was now all but complete. In 264 B.C., Rome had been only one of the five great Mediterranean States. In 133 B.C., no other power existed to match its strength with that of imperial Rome. To her had fallen in the West the heritage of Carthage, in the East the heritage of Alexander. At a terrible cost in blood and treasure, Rome had built up this mighty empire."—H. Webster, *Ancient history*, pp. 381-384.

B. C. 159-133.—Decline of the republic.—Social and economic causes.—Growing system of slavery and its effects.—Monopoly of land by capitalists.—Extinction of small cultivators.—Rapid decrease of citizens.—"In the Rome of this epoch the two evils of a degenerate oligarchy and a democracy not yet developed but already cankered in the bud were interwoven in a manner pregnant with fatal results. According to their party names, which were first heard during this period, the 'Optimates' wished to give effect to the will of the best, the 'Populares' to that of the community; but in fact there was in the Rome of that day neither a true aristocracy nor a truly self-determining community. Both parties contended alike for shadows. . . . Both were equally affected by political corruption, and both were in fact equally worthless. . . . The commonwealth was politically and morally more and more unhinged, and was verging towards its total dissolution. The crisis with which the Roman revolution was opened arose not out of this paltry

political conflict, but out of the economic and social relations which the Roman government allowed, like everything else, simply to take their course [and which had brought about] the depreciation of the Italian farms; the supplanting of the petty husbandry, first in a part of the provinces and then in Italy, by the farming of large estates; the prevailing tendency to devote the latter in Italy to the rearing of cattle and the culture of the olive and vine; finally, the replacing of the free labourers in the provinces as in Italy by slaves. . . . Before we attempt to describe the course of this second great conflict between labour and capital, it is necessary to give here some indication of the nature and extent of the system of slavery. We have not now to do with the old, in some measure innocent, rural slavery, under which the farmer either tilled the field along with his slave, or, if he possessed more land than he could manage, placed the slave . . . over a detached farm. . . . What we now refer to is the system of slavery on a great scale, which in the Roman state, as formerly in the Carthaginian, grew out of the ascendancy of capital. While the captives taken in war and the hereditary transmission of slavery sufficed to keep up the stock of slaves during the earlier period, this system of slavery was, just like that of America, based on the methodically prosecuted hunting of man. . . . No country where this species of game could be hunted remained exempt from visitation; even in Italy it was a thing by no means unheard of, that the poor free man was placed by his employer among the slaves. But the Negroland of that period was western Asia, where the Cretan and Cilician corsairs, the real professional slave-hunters and slave-dealers, robbed the coasts of Syria and the Greek islands; and where, emulating their feats, the Roman revenue-farmers instituted human hunts in the client states and incorporated those whom they captured among their slaves. . . . At the great slave market in Delos, where the slave-dealers of Asia Minor disposed of their wares to Italian speculators, on one day as many as 10,000 slaves are said to have been disembarked in the morning and to have been all sold before evening. . . . In whatever direction speculation applied itself, its instrument was invariably man reduced in the eye of the law to a brute. Trades were in great part carried on by slaves, so that the proceeds belonged to the master. The levying of the public revenues in the lower departments was regularly conducted by the slaves of the associations that leased them. Servile hands performed the operations of mining, making pitch, and others of a similar kind; it became early the custom to send herds of slaves to the Spanish mines. . . . The tending of cattle was universally performed by slaves. . . . But far worse in every respect was the plantation system proper—the cultivation of the fields by a band of slaves not unfrequently branded with iron, who with shackles on their legs performed the labours of the field under overseers during the day, and were locked up together by night in the common, frequently subterranean, labourers' prison. This plantation system had migrated from the East to Carthage, . . . and seems to have been brought by the Carthaginians to Sicily. . . . The abyss of misery and woe which opens before our eyes in this most miserable of all proletariates, we leave to be fathomed by those who venture to gaze into such depths; it is very possible that, compared with the sufferings of the Roman slaves, the sum of all Negro suffering is but a drop.

Here we are not so much concerned with the distress of the slaves themselves as with the perils which it brought upon the Roman state [see SLAVE WARS IN SICILY AND ITALY]. . . . The capitalists continued to buy out the small landholders, or indeed, if they remained obstinate, to seize their fields without title of purchase. . . . The landlords continued mainly to employ slaves instead of free labourers, because the former could not like the latter be called away to military service; and thus reduced the free proletariat to the same level of misery with the slaves. They continued to supersede Italian grain in the market of the capital, and to lessen its value over the whole peninsula, by selling Sicilian slave-corn at a mere nominal price. . . . After 595 [159 B. C.], . . . when the census yielded 328,000 citizens capable of bearing arms, there appears a regular falling off, for the list in 600 [154 B. C.] stood at 324,000, that in 607 [147 B. C.] at 322,000, that in 623 [131 B. C.] at 319,000 burghesses fit for service—an alarming result for a period of profound peace at home and abroad. If matters were to go on at this rate, the burghess-body would resolve itself into planters and slaves; and the Roman state might at length, as was the case with the Parthians, purchase its soldiers in the slave-market. Such was the external and internal condition of Rome, when the state entered on the 7th century of its existence. Wherever the eye turned, it encountered abuses and decay; the question could not but force itself on every sagacious and well disposed man, whether this state of things were not capable of remedy or amendment."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 2.—See also SLAVERY: Roman.

ALSO IN: T. Arnold, *History of the Roman Commonwealth*, ch. 2.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 1, ch. 10-12.—W. R. Brownlow, *Slavery and serfdom in Europe*, lectures 1-2.

B. C. c. 150-1st centuries.—Causes of decline of the republic. See EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Passing of the Roman republic.

B. C. 149-146.—Third Punic War.—Destruction of Carthage.—"Carthage, bound hand and foot by the treaty of 201 B. C., was placed under the jealous watch of the loyal prince of Numidia, who himself willingly acknowledged the suzerainty of Rome. But it was impossible for this arrangement to be permanent."—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, bk. 3, ch. 1.—"Such was the commercial ability of the Carthaginians that they continued to prosper even while paying the heavy tribute with which Rome had burdened them. Meantime, the new mistress of the western Mediterranean kept an anxious eye on her old rival. Even the stalwart Romans remembered with uneasiness the invasion of Hannibal. Cato, a famous old-fashioned senator, was so convinced that Carthage was still a danger to Rome that he concluded all his speeches in the Senate with the words, 'Carthage must be destroyed.' For over fifty years more the merchants of Carthage were permitted to traffic in the western Mediterranean, and then the iron hand of Rome was laid upon the doomed city for the last time. To defend herself against the Numidians behind her, Carthage was finally obliged to begin war against them. This step, which the Romans had long been desiring, was a violation of the treaty with Rome. The Senate seized the opportunity at once and Carthage was called to account."—J. H. Breasted, *Ancient times*, pp. 546-547.—"In 149 B. C. the siege of Carthage began. During the next two years little progress was made, but in 147 P.

Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus, son of L. Æmilius Paulus, conqueror of Macedonia, and grandson by adoption of the conqueror of Hannibal, was, at the age of 37, and though only a candidate for the ædileship, elected consul and given the command in Africa. In the next year (146 B.C.) Carthage was taken and razed to the ground. Its territory became the Roman province of Africa, while Numidia, now ruled by the three sons of Masinissa, remained as an allied state under Roman suzerainty, and served to protect the new province against the raids of the desert tribes. Within little more than a century from the commencement of the first Punic war, the whole of the former dominions of Carthage had been brought under the direct rule of Roman magistrates, and were regularly organised as Roman provinces."—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, bk. 3, ch. 1.—See also CARTHAGE: B. C. 146.

B. C. 146-A. D. 180.—Supremacy in Greece. See GREECE: B. C. 146-A. D. 180.

B. C. 146-A. D. 524.—Development of music. See MUSIC: Ancient: B. C. 146-A. D. 524.

B. C. 134.—Numantian War. See NUMANTIAN WAR.

B. C. 133.—Supremacy of the senate.—Political development.—Acquisitions.—Constitutional growth.—Provincial government.—"At the close of a century first of deadly struggle and then of rapid and dazzling success, Rome found herself the supreme power in the civilised world. . . . We have now to consider how this period of conflict and conquest had affected the victorious state. Outwardly the constitution underwent but little change. It continued to be in form a moderate democracy. The sovereignty of the people finally established by the Hortensian law remained untouched in theory. It was by the people in assembly that the magistrates of the year were elected, and that laws were passed; only by 'order of the people' could capital punishment be inflicted upon a Roman citizen. For election to a magistracy, or for a seat in the senate, patrician and plebeian were equally eligible. But between 'the theory and the practice of the constitution here was a wide difference. Throughout this period the actually sovereign authority in Rome was that of the senate, and behind the senate stood an order of nobles (nobiles), who claimed and enjoyed privileges as wide as those which immemorial custom had formerly conceded to the patriciate. The ascendancy of the senate, which thus arrested the march of democracy in Rome, was not, to any appreciable extent, the result of legislation. It was the direct outcome of the practical necessities of the time, and when these no longer existed, it was at once and successfully challenged in the name and on the behalf of the constitutional rights of the people. Nevertheless, from the commencement of the Punic wars down to the moment when with the destruction of Carthage in 146 B.C. Rome's only rival disappeared, this ascendancy was complete and almost unquestioned. It was within the walls of the senate-house, and by decrees of the senate, that the foreign and the domestic policy of the state were alike determined. . . . Though the ascendancy of the senate was mainly due to the fact that without it the government of the state could scarcely have been carried on, it was strengthened and confirmed by the close and intimate connection which existed between the senate and the nobility. This 'nobility' was in its nature and origin widely different from the old patriciate.

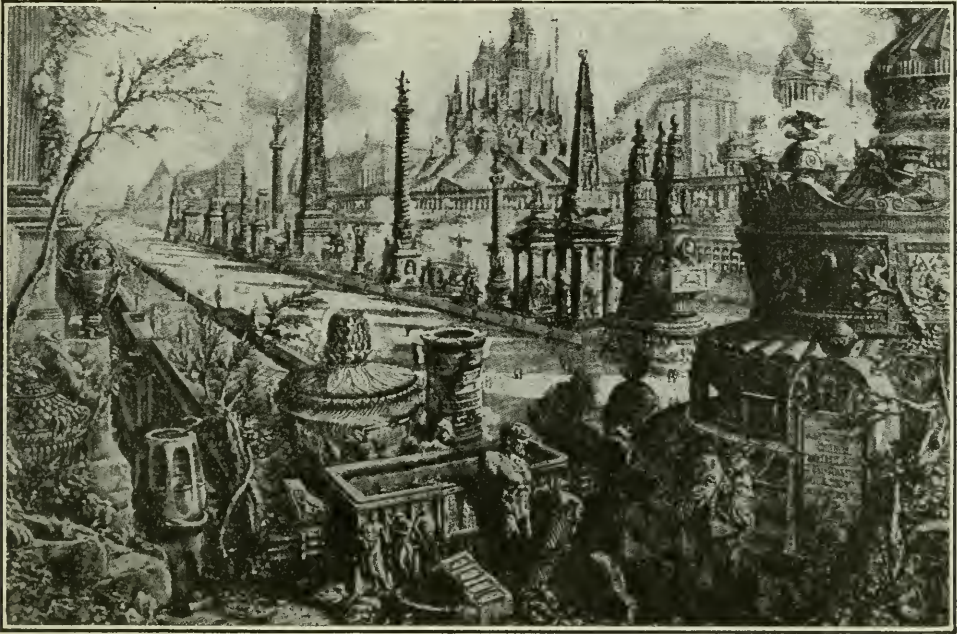
Though every patrician was of course 'noble,' the majority of the families which in this period styled themselves noble were not patrician but plebeian, and the typical nobles of the time of the elder Cato, of the Gracchi, or of Cicero, the Metelli, Livii, or Licinii were plebeians. The title nobilis was apparently conceded by custom to those plebeian families one or more of whose members had, after the opening of the magistracies, been elected to a curule office, and which in consequence were entitled to place in their halls, and to display at their funeral processions the 'imagines' of these distinguished ancestors. The man who, by his election to a curule office thus ennobled his descendants, was said to be the 'founder of his family,' though himself only a new man. . . . Office brought wealth and prestige, and both wealth and prestige were freely employed to exclude 'new men' and to secure for the 'noble families' a monopoly of office. The ennobled plebeians not only united with the patricians to form a distinct order, but outdid them in pride and arrogance. . . . The establishment of senatorial ascendancy was not the only result of this period of growth and expansion. During the same time the foundations were laid of the provincial system, and with this of the new and dangerous powers of the proconsuls."—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, bk. 3, ch. 3.—"The great struggle against Hannibal left the Senate the all but undisputed government of Rome. Originally a mere consulting board, assessors of the king or consul, the Senate had become the supreme executive body. That the government solely by the comitia and the magistrates should by experience be found wanting was as inevitable at Rome as at Athens. Rome was more fortunate than Athens in that she could develop a new organism to meet the need. The growth of the power of the Senate was all the more natural and legitimate the less it possessed strict legal standing-ground. But the fatal dualism thus introduced into the constitution—the Assembly governing de jure, and the Senate governing de facto—made all government after a time impossible. The position of the Senate being, strictly speaking, an unconstitutional one, it was open to any demagogue to bring matters of foreign policy or administration before an Assembly which was without continuity, without special knowledge, and in which there was no debate. Now, if the Senate governed badly, the Assembly 'could not govern at all,' and there could be, in the long run, but one end to the constant struggle between the two sources of authority."—W. T. Arnold, *Roman system of provincial administration*, ch. 2.—See also SENATE, ROMAN.—"Changes political, military, economic, social, intellectual, moral, had transformed the state to a far greater extent than contemporary observers were able to perceive. There were still the old magistracies, the Senate, and the Assemblies, but the relations between them had been profoundly modified by events. The position of the Roman people in the world had changed, and the character of the people had been changed with it. The constitution was no longer sufficient for the needs of the time; to amend it was practically impossible, nor indeed do we find the Romans conscious that it required reform. To begin with the Magistrates. The tendency of the Senate to overshadow and control them had long been at work. The strain of the great war had made it necessary to entrust exceptional power to competent individuals, but with the defeat of Carthage the necessity came to an

end. This was assuredly a great relief to the Roman nobles, whose ideal of government was a system under which they (or the leading men among them) divided among themselves year after year all the most important offices. . . . Accordingly we find a clearly-marked tendency to revert to the old system of yearly commands held by the consuls and to keep the consuls within reach. They could thus be regularly superseded by their successors in office, and the continuation of their military powers in the form of the proconsulate was prevented from becoming normal. . . . We must bear in mind that the dictatorship had been quietly dropped, and that a consul was no longer liable to be suddenly thrust into the background by the appointment of a temporary king. It was therefore only natural that the nobles should turn a jealous eye on the consulate. To keep that office in subjection to the influence of the Senate was the keystone of the constitution from the point of view of the nobility, for they controlled, and in effect composed, the Senate. . . . The chief means by which the consulate was held in check were the restrictions on reelection and the employment (in ordinary circumstances) of praetors and propraetors for the performance of continuous duties at a distance from Rome. . . . Since the number of praetors had been raised to four (227 B. C.) it had become the usual practice for a man to pass on from the praetorship to the consulship, not immediately, but after an interval of at least a year. There was no statutory rule, and in critical times an exception might occur; thus Scipio Africanus and Flamininus (consuls 205 and 198) had never been praetors, and there were other cases. The quaestorship had from the first been regarded as a subordinate post in which young men gained their first practical experience of public affairs. There is some reason to think that Scipio Africanus had never served in this office, but his whole career was quite exceptional, and so were the times in which he would naturally have held it. That a man must pass through the quaestorship was a rule of usage as rigid as a rule of law. The order, quaestorship, consulship, was at the beginning of the period 200-133 B. C. established as a normal succession, only to be departed from in critical emergencies. Another office must be mentioned here, the aedileship. As there were but four aediles (2 curule, 2 plebeian), while from 197 onward the number of praetors was six, it is clear that tenure of the office, which came before the praetorship, could not be made a condition of election to the higher post; there would not have been enough qualified candidates. But the aedileship was much sought after. The chief function of aediles was now the provision of the costly games and shows customary at festivals. A lavish outlay on these entertainments was the sure means of winning the favour of the city mob, now more and more becoming the voting exponents of the Roman people's will. In short the tenure of this office was in this period regarded as an electioneering appliance which an ambitious man could not venture to neglect. . . . Nobility conferred by the tenure of office was a quality attainable by popular election: it naturally tended to become in effect hereditary, and those whose fathers had been consuls or praetors, and who were themselves bent on climbing the ladder of office, were especially unwilling to see the number of possible competitors increased. Meanwhile the old-Roman or conservative reform-party desired to check the ambition of the young nobles, mostly men of the

new school, who were over-eager to secure their own advancement in disregard of the claims of tried merit and riper age. It seems that an attempt was made to reduce the number of yearly offices by electing four praetors instead of six in alternate years; but this was no remedy. In the year 180 the attempt to regulate and fix by statute the sequence of official promotion assumed a practical form in the 'law of years' carried by the tribune L. Villius. This is one of the most significant enactments in the history of the Republic. The main points of this law seem to have been as follows. The practice of leaving an interval between the tenure of the regular yearly magistracies (for to these only it applied) was recognized, and the interval fixed at a space of not less than two years. A regular sequence was enjoined, probably in the form of declaring that only one who had held office A was to be eligible for office B. Thus, if the lowest office could only be held at a certain minimum age, a scale of age-qualification would be operative throughout the series. And it was probably in this thoroughly Roman indirect way that the determination of the ages at which the several offices could be held was attained."—W. E. Heitland, *Roman republic*, pp. 189-193.—"At the close of . . . [this] period . . . the Romans ruled most of the territory from Mount Taurus to the Atlantic. They had seven, possibly nine, provinces under governors sent out from the capital. These provinces, in the order of their acquisition, were (1) Sicily, acquired in 241; (2) Sardinia and Corsica, seized soon afterward and organized in the same year as Sicily, 227; (3) [and] (4) Hither and Farther Spain, acquired in the Second Punic War and organized in 197; (5) Cisalpine Gaul, reconquered early in the second century and organized at some unknown time afterward; (6) Illyricum, acquired in the third Macedonian war (167), the date of organization being unknown; (7) Macedonia, organized in 146; (8) Africa, acquired and organized in the same year; (9) Asia, acquired in 133 and organized four years later. Among the dependent allies, often called client states, were all those of Asia Minor outside the province of Asia. In Africa, Numidia and Egypt, with Libya, were in this condition. In Asia the kingdom of Syria possessed more freedom, but was already sinking into clientship."—G. W. Botsford, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 397.—"The right of the people to elect their magistrates, with the exception of the dictator and the master of horse, existed from the beginning of the republic. Their right also to create new offices began with the institution of the consulship and was frequently exercised during the period treated in this chapter. In the age which begins with the Valerian-Horatian legislation [449] we find the people regulating by law the qualifications and conduct of candidates as well as the powers and functions of the magistrates themselves. They had the same right to deal with the organization and competence of the assemblies. From 358 to 287 they rapidly extended their legislative power, by precedent rather than by statute, over the whole field of the constitution and over the administration in all its departments; they ventured even to regulate the senate and to interfere with the imperium. Controlled originally by the senate, in the end they won their freedom from that body, whereas the initiative in every act always remained with the presiding magistrate. Meantime they had acquired supreme judicial power. In constitutional theory they were at last sovereign. The senate

and the magistrates, so this theory asserted, still retained large administrative powers for the sole reason that the assemblies, unable to manage the current details of public business, were content with occasional participation and regulation. Most of these gains had been made by the tribes under the presidency of tribunes or of patrician magistrates, usually praetors. In legislation the *comitia tributa* had rendered the centuriate assembly dispensable excepting in declarations of offensive war and in the confirmation of censorial elections. The question whether the people in their centuries and tribes were to realize their sovereignty in actual public life was left to the following period."—*Ibid.*, pp. 315-316.—"While the Romans desired their provinces to be ruled efficiently they measured results from the point of view of the state, not from that of the provincials. The Roman praetor was hardly expected

of accepting gifts and in making purchases. He had not even the right to buy himself a slave in the province except to fill a vacancy in his service. The provisions for native jurors in the praetor's courts, for native censors and tax collectors, and for special courts to hear the cases of provincials against their governors, all these things prove that the sovereign state entertained enlightened views upon its responsibility as a master. The governors of the province for the first century of its history represented the best type of Roman. . . . It would be hard to imagine that under such men the province would have been exploited for the profit of Roman citizens. The few scattered references in Roman authors that bear upon the matter seem to indicate that the senate did not further the special interests of Roman land seekers in the province. Just as the tax farming was largely left in Sicilian hands, so too the land re-



RECONSTRUCTION OF A ROMAN RACE COURSE

(After engraving by Giovanni Piranesi)

to be a director of a charitable organization. Yet as prudence must have a seasoning of sympathy to be effective, Rome's administration, at least in the early days, endeavored to secure the good will of the governed. . . . On the whole, Sicily, at least western Sicily, benefited by the change of sovereigns. . . . Rome, to be sure, was a firm overlord, but she had the name also of desiring to deal justly. Carthage had billeted armies and kept up a constant petty warfare on the island. Rome's policy was to strike hard till a war was over and then maintain peace by her very prestige. Sicily had never before known an era of peace such as followed the Roman occupation. With security, freedom from armies, and exemption from levies, the islanders were more than repaid in material gains for the moderate sum that was sent to Rome in tribute. Various chance references to Sicily indicate that the government did something by way of safeguarding the provincials from the greed of Rome's own citizens. We are told that the praetor was carefully restricted in the matter

mained in their possession. But if the new regime had wrought changes in Sicily, how much more profound were the effects of the acquisition of this, her first province, upon Rome? When the Sicilian quaestor sent the home market nearly a million bushels of wheat per year, he supplied about a third of the demand which had hitherto been satisfied by farmers near the city. The land released from grain production usually fell into hands of capitalists engaged in cattle raising and fruit culture, and the steadier population of small-farm owners diminished in the rustic wards about the city. No less significant were the social changes after the war. The nobles of Rome who had campaigned in Sicily for so many years had often established their headquarters in the splendid Greek cities of the island, and there they had been initiated into the refinements of an old culture and an atmosphere of art and letters which shamed them into new ambitions. In Hiero they found a willing cicerone who must have experienced a cynical satisfaction in displaying the

triumphs of Greek culture to his conquerors. In the theater of Syracuse he doubtless showed them performances of Euripides and Menander; in the temples, the masterpieces of Praxiteles and Apelles; in the libraries, histories which contained even the legends of early Rome—some of which probably the Romans themselves did not know. All this made no small impression. A year after the war a Roman schoolmaster was asked to translate some of the Greek plays so that the Roman games might have something better than races and fights to offer, and presently Hiero was invited to Rome to see how well his lessons had been learned. It is not surprising that Livius began with tragedies from the Trojan cycle, when Segesta had already profited by flattering Rome with a myth of common descent from Troy. Presently too a soldier [Ennius] who had campaigned in Sicily wrote the story of Rome—her first native work—in a pedestrian imitation of Homer's epos; and senators who had doubtless learned the language in Sicily embellished the dry, priestly records of Rome with their best Greek so that the cultured world might know that Rome had a history of which to boast. It was in the Pyrrhic war that Rome had first become conscious of her existence, and in the Sicilian war she found the need for self-expression and the ambition to take her place among the cultured nations of the Mediterranean. Most of all was Rome's political policy affected by the conquest, not so much by what the Romans learned of Greek political science as by the inevitable consequences of owning and ruling a tribute-paying dependency. The profits accruing to the treasury were sure to tempt the populace to new conquest; and in expanding further the Romans must soon embrace peoples that could manifestly never be included with credit in the citizen body. They must then abandon the principle which had in a larger sense justified the continuance of a progressive extension of Roman law and order through Italy, and adopt a rule based upon the claims of superior force. The wisest of the Romans saw very early that consuetude in ruling a politically inferior people for profit must endanger Roman character, coming as it did before the nation had time to shape for itself a humanizing culture capable of counteracting the poison of insolence. The self-complacency with which the conquerors viewed their subjects overseas soon expressed itself in a new attitude toward their Italian allies. In their eyes the Italians now began to sink to the plane of subjects, and the promises of the great statesmen of 340 were in danger of being forgotten. Living in such an atmosphere, the conquering Romans could hardly discover that their city-state was not, like the imperial monarchies, adapted for empire; that a populace which gained dominion over subject races by means of armed force was merely creating a military power that would ultimately turn upon the state itself and subject it also to the position of servitude it imposed upon others. At present they only reveled in the discovery of 'how glorious a thing it was to rule.'—T. Frank, *Roman imperialism*, pp. 103-106.

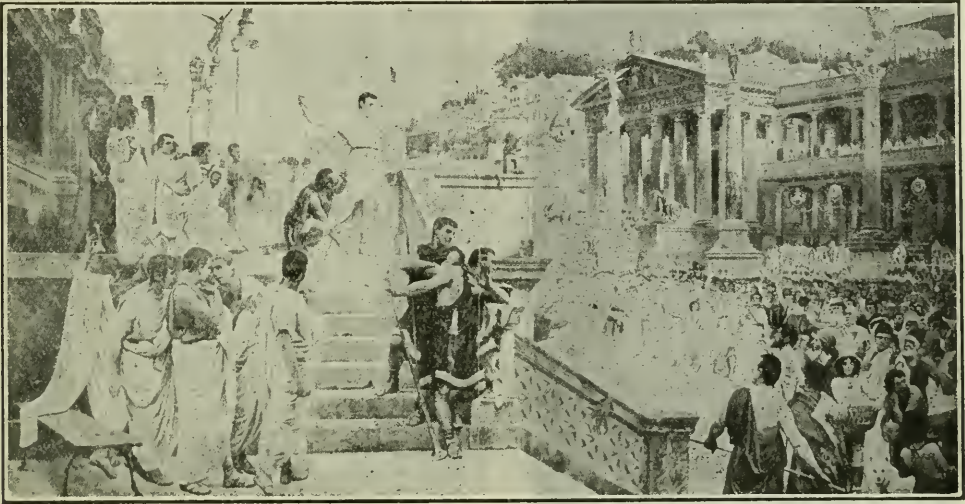
B. C. 133.—Conquest of Thrace. See THRACE: B. C. 168-A. D. 46.

B. C. 133-121.—Attempted reforms of the Gracchi.—“The first systematic attack upon the senatorial government is connected with the names of Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus, and its immediate occasion was an attempt to deal with no less a danger than the threatened disappearance of the class to which of all others Rome had owed

most in the past. For, while Rome had been extending her sway westward and eastward, and while her nobles and merchants were amassing colossal fortunes abroad, the small landholders throughout the greater part of Italy were sinking deeper into ruin under the pressure of accumulated difficulties. The Hannibalic war had laid waste their fields and thinned their numbers, nor when peace returned to Italy did it bring with it any revival of prosperity. The heavy burden of military service still pressed ruinously upon them, and in addition they were called upon to compete with the foreign corn imported from beyond the sea, and with the foreign slave-labour purchased by the capital of the wealthier men. . . . The small holders went off to follow the eagles or swell the proletariat of the cities, and their holdings were left to run waste or merged in the vineyards, oliveyards, and above all in the great cattle-farms of the rich, while their own place was taken by slaves. The evil was not equally serious in all parts of Italy. It was least felt in the central highlands, in Campania, and in the newly settled fertile valley of the Po. It was worst in Etruria and in southern Italy; but everywhere it was serious enough to demand the earnest attention of Roman statesmen. Of its existence the government had received plenty of warning in the declining numbers of able-bodied males returned at the census, in the increasing difficulties of recruiting for the legions, in servile out-breaks in Etruria and Apulia.”—H. F. Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*, bk. 4, ch. 1.—The earlier agrarian laws which the Roman plebeians had wrung from the patricians (the Licinian Law and similar ones [see above: B. C. 376-367; also AGRARIAN LAWS]) had not availed to prevent the absorption, by one means and another, of the public domain—the “ager publicus,” the conquered land which the state had neither sold nor given away—into the possession of great families and capitalists, who held it in vast blocks, to be cultivated by slaves. Time had almost sanctioned this condition of things, when Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, elder of the two famous brothers called “The Gracchi,” undertook in 133 B. C. a reformation of it. As one of the tribunes of the people that year, he brought forward a law which was intended to enforce the provisions of the Licinian Law of 367 B. C., by taking away from the holders of public land what they held in excess of 500 jugera (about 320 acres) each. Three commissioners, called *Triumviri*, were to be appointed to superintend the execution of the law and to redistribute the land recovered, among needy citizens. Naturally the proposal of this act aroused a fierce opposition in the wealthy class whose ill-gotten estates were threatened by it. One of the fellow-tribunes of Tiberius was gained over by the opposition and used the power of his veto to prevent the taking of a vote upon the bill. Then Gracchus, to overcome the obstacle, had recourse to an unconstitutional measure. The obstinate tribune was deposed from his office by a vote of the people, and the law was then enacted. For the carrying out of his measure, and for his own protection, no less, Tiberius sought a re-election to the tribunate, which was contrary to usage, if not against positive law. His enemies raised a tumult against him on the day of election and he was slain, with three hundred of his party, and their corpses were flung into the Tiber. Nine years later, his younger brother, Caius Gracchus, obtained election to the tribune's office and took up the work of democratic political reform which

Tiberius had sacrificed his life in attempting. His measures were radical, attacking the powers and privileges of the ruling orders. But mixed with them were schemes of demagoguery which did infinite mischief to the Roman people and state. He carried the first frumentarian law (*lex frumentaria*) as it was called, by which corn was bought with public money, and stored, for sale to Roman citizens at a nominal price. After three years of power, through the favor of the people, he, too, in 121 B. C. was deserted by them and the party of the patricians was permitted to put him to death, with a great number of his supporters.—Based on G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 1, ch. 10-13, 18-19.—“Caius, it is said, was the first Roman statesman who appointed a regular distribution of corn among the poorer citizens, requiring the state to buy up large consignments of grain from the provinces, and to sell it again at a fixed rate below the natural price. The nobles themselves seem to have acquiesced

upon huge substructions of solid masonry. Those who most feared and hated him confessed their amazement at the magnificence of his projects and the energy of his proceedings; the people, in whose interests he toiled, were filled with admiration and delight, when they saw him attended from morning to night by crowds of contractors, artificers, ambassadors, magistrates, soldiers, and men of learning, to all of whom he was easy of access, adapting his behaviour to the condition of each in turn; thus proving, as they declared, the falsehood of those who presumed to call him violent and tyrannical. . . . By these innovations Caius laid a wide basis of popularity. Thereupon he commenced his meditated attack upon the privileged classes. We possess at least one obscure intimation of a change he effected or proposed in the manner of voting by centuries, which struck at the influence of the wealthier classes. He confirmed and extended the Porcian law, for the protection of citizens against the aggression of the



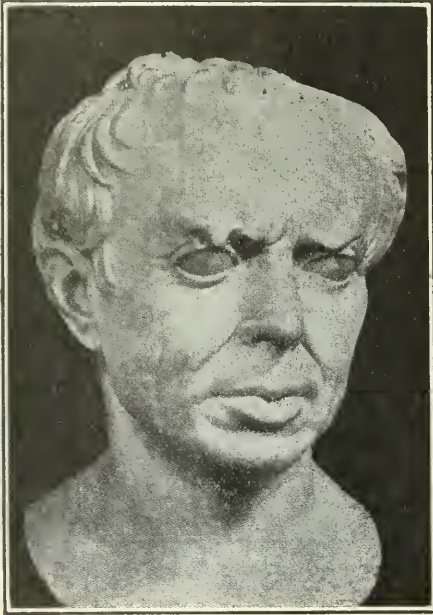
LAST ORATION OF GAIUS GRACCHUS AT ROME

(From painting by P. Piatti)

without alarm in this measure, by which they hoped to secure the city from seditious movements in time of scarcity; but they failed to foresee the discouragement it would give to industry, the crowds of idle and dissipated citizens it would entice into the forum, the appetite it would create for shows, entertainments and largesses, and the power it would thus throw into the hands of unprincipled demagogues. Caius next established customs duties upon various articles of luxury imported into the city for the use of the rich; he decreed the gratuitous supply of clothing to the soldiers, who had hitherto been required to provide themselves out of their pay; he founded colonies for the immediate gratification of the poorer citizens, who were waiting in vain for the promised distribution of lands; he caused the construction of public granaries, bridges and roads, to furnish objects of useful labour to those who were not unwilling to work. Caius himself, it is said, directed the course and superintended the making of the roads, some of which we may still trace traversing Italy in straight lines from point to point, filling up depressions and hollowing excrescences in the face of the country, and built

magistrates without a formal appeal to the people. Even the powers of the dictatorship, to which the senate had been wont to resort for the coercion of its refractory opponents, were crippled by these provisions; and we shall see that no recourse was again had to this extraordinary and odious appointment till the oligarchy had gained for a time a complete victory over their adversaries. Another change, even more important, was that by which the knights were admitted to the greater share, if not, as some suppose, to the whole, of the judicial appointments. . . . As long as the senators were the judges, the provincial governors, who were themselves senators, were secure from the consequence of impeachment. If the knights were to fill the same office, it might be expected that the publicani, the farmers of the revenues abroad, would be not less assured of impunity, whatever were the enormity of their exactions. . . . It was vain, indeed, to expect greater purity from the second order of citizens than from the first. If the senators openly denied justice to complainants, the knights almost as openly sold it. This was in itself a grievous degradation of the tone of public morality; but this was not all the

evil of the tribune's reform. It arrayed the two privileged classes of citizens in direct hostility to one another. 'Caius made the republic double-headed,' was the profound remark of antiquity. He sowed the seeds of a war of an hundred years. Tiberius had attempted to raise up a class of small proprietors, who, by the simplicity of their manners and moderation of their tastes, might form, as he hoped, a strong conservative barrier between the tyranny of the nobles and the envy of the people; but Caius, on the failure of this attempt, was content to elevate a class to power, who should touch upon both extremes of the social scale,—the rich by their wealth, and the poor by their origin. Unfortunately this was to create not a new class, but a new party. . . . One direct advantage, at all events, Caius expected to derive, besides the humiliation of his brother's murderers, from this elevation of the knights: he hoped to



MARIUS

(After bust in the Vatican Museum in Rome)

secure their grateful co-operation towards the important object he next had in view: this was no less than the full admission of the Latins and Italians to the right of suffrage."—C. Merivale, *Fall of the Roman republic*, ch. 1.—See also *AGER PUBLICUS*.

ALSO IN: Plutarch, *Tiberius Gracchus*; *Caius Gracchus*.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 2-3.—S. Eliot, *Liberty of Rome: Rome*, bk. 3, ch. 1.

B. C. 131.—Battle of Leucæ. See *LEUCÆ, BATTLE OF*.

B. C. 125-121.—Conquest of the Salyes and Allobroges in Gaul.—Treaty of friendship with the Aedui. See *SALYES*; *ALLOBROGES*; *AEDUI*.

B. C. 123.—Legalization of Equestrian order See *EQUESTRIAN ORDER*.

B. C. 118.—Settlement of Provence. See *PROVENCE: Roman origin*.

B. C. 118-104.—Affairs in Numidia. See *NUMIDIA*: B. C. 118-104.

B. C. 118-99.—Increasing corruption of gov-

ernment.—Jugurthine War.—Invasion and defeat of the Cimbri and Teutones.—Power of Marius.—"For some twenty years after the murder of the Gracchi, the Senate's misrule was undisturbed. But a prolonged fourteen-year border war in Africa again revealed in glaring colors its corruption and incapacity, and brought military masters to the front. Jugurtha, grandnephew of Massinissa,—brave, crafty, cruel,—had made himself king of Numidia by the assassination of a series of princes dependent upon Rome. He bribed Roman investigating commissioners; bought a consul who had been sent to attack him; and, being summoned to Rome after massacring thousands of Italians and Romans in Africa, he bought his acquittal from the Senate itself. But an indignant tribune brought the matter directly before the tribes and so stirred their indignation that war at last was prosecuted in earnest. Its progress revealed the utter corruption of the army, but it finally called out two great captains. One was the rude soldier Marius, son of a Volscian day laborer, who had risen from the ranks, and who by the votes of the people, without having been praetor, was made consul to prosecute the war; the other was his aristocratic lieutenant, Sulla. By skill and good fortune, and by a daring exploit of Sulla's, Marius was able to bring the war to a close during his year of office. Jugurtha was captured. Marius was given a splendid triumph at Rome (January 1, 104 B. C.). With characteristic Roman cruelty the captive king was dragged through the streets in chains at the wheel of his conqueror's chariot, and then cast into an underground dungeon to starve."—W. M. West, *Ancient world*, p. 370.—"Meanwhile the two powerful tribes of German barbarians, the Cimbrians and the Teutones, (See *CIMBRI AND TEUTONES*: 113-101 B. C.), combined with Gauls, had been shifting southward and crossing the northern frontiers of Rome. In Gaul and on the Gallic frontiers six Roman armies, one after another, had been disastrously defeated. It looked as if the Roman legions had at last met their match. There was great anxiety in Rome, and the people determined to reëlect Marius consul and send him against the terrible northern barbarians. Meeting the Teutones in southern Gaul, the people's hero not only defeated but practically destroyed the first German host (102 B. C.). [*Aquæ Sextiæ*.] Shortly afterward, when the Cimbrians had finally succeeded in crossing the Alps into the Po Valley, Marius met and crushed them also. A soldier of the people had saved Rome."—J. H. Breasted, *Ancient times*, p. 579.—See also *BARBARIAN INVASIONS*: B. C. 113.

ALSO IN: H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, v. 2, ch. 54-56.—V. Duruy, *History of Rome*, v. 2, ch. 39-41.—Plutarch, *Marius*.

B. C. 109.—Battle against Helvetii. See *TIGURINI, OR TIGURINI, IN GAUL*.

B. C. 106.—Acquisition of Toulouse. See *TOULOUSE*.

B. C. 1st century.—Development of Roman army. See *MILITARY ORGANIZATION*: 9.

B. C. 100-40 A. D.—Public recreation. See *RECREATION*: B. C. 100-A. D. 400.

B. C. 97.—Control of Cyrenaica. See *CYRENAICA*.

B. C. 90-88.—Demands of Italian Socii for Roman citizenship.—Marsian, or Socia', War.—Rise of Sulla.—"It is a most erroneous though widely prevalent opinion that the whole of Italy was conquered by the force of Roman arms, and joined to the empire [of the Republic] against its

will. Roman valour and the admirable organization of the legions, it is true, contributed to extend the dominion of Rome, but they were not nearly so effective as the political wisdom of the Roman senate. . . . The subjects of Rome were called by the honourable name of allies (Socii). But the manner in which they had become allies was not always the same. It differed widely according to circumstances. Some had joined Rome on an equal footing by a free alliance ('*fœdus æquum*'), which implied nothing like subjection. . . . Others sought the alliance of Rome as a protection from pressing enemies or troublesome neighbours. . . . On the whole, the condition of the allies, Latin colonies as well as confederated Italians, seems to have been satisfactory, at least in the earlier period. . . . But even the right of self-government which Rome had left to the Italian communities proved an illusion in all cases where the interests of the ruling town seemed to require it. A law passed in Rome, nay, a simple senatorial decree, or a magisterial order, could at pleasure be applied to the whole of Italy. Roman law gradually took the place of local laws, though the Italians had no part in the legislation of the Roman people, or any influence on the decrees of the Roman senate and magistrates. . . . All public works in Italy, such as roads, aqueducts, and temples, were carried out solely for the benefit of Rome. . . . Not in peace only, but also in the time of war, the allies were gradually made to feel how heavily the hand of Rome weighed upon them. . . . In proportion as with the increase of their power the Romans felt more and more secure and independent of the allies, they showed them less consideration and tenderness, and made them feel that they had gradually sunk from their former position of friends to be no more than subjects." There was increasing discontent among the Italian allies, or Socii, with this state of things, especially after the time of the Gracchi, when a proposal to extend the Roman citizenship and franchise to them was strongly pressed. In the next generation after the murder of Caius Gracchus, there arose another political reformer, Marcus Livius Drusus, who likewise sought to have justice done to the Italians, by giving them a voice in the state which owed its conquests to their arms. He, too, was killed by the political enemies he provoked; and then the allies determined to enforce their claims by war. The tribes of the Sabellian race—Marsians, Samnites, Hirpenians, Lucanians, and their fellows—organized a league, with the town of Corfinium (its name changed to Italica) for its capital, and broke into open revolt. The prominence of the Marsians in the struggle caused the war which ensued to be sometimes called the Marsian War; it was also called the Italian War, but, more commonly, the Social War. It was opened, 90 B. C. by a horrible massacre of Roman citizens residing at Asculum, Picenum,—a tragedy for the guilt of which that town paid piteously the next year, when it was taken at the end of a long siege and after a great battle fought under its walls. But the Romans had suffered many defeats before that achievement was reached. At the end of the first year of the war they had made no headway against the revolt, and it is the opinion of Ihne and other historians that "Rome never was so near her destruction," and that "her downfall was averted, not by the heroism of her citizens, as in the war of Hannibal, but by a reversal" of her "policy of selfish exclusion and haughty disdain." A law called the Julian Law, because proposed by the consul L.

Julius Cæsar, was adopted 90 B. C., which gave the Roman franchise to the Latins, and to all the other Italian communities which had so far remained faithful. Soon afterward two of the new tribunes carried a further measure, the Plautio-Papirian Law, which offered the same privilege to any Italian who, within two months, should present himself before a Roman magistrate to claim it. These concessions broke the spirit of the revolt and the Roman armies began to be victorious. Sulla, who was in the field, added greatly to his reputation by successes at Nola (where his army honored him by acclaim with the title of imperator) and at Bovianum, which he took. The last important battle of the war was fought on the old blood-drenched plain of Cannæ, and this time the victory was for Rome. After that, for another year, some desperate towns and remnants of the revolted Socii held out, but their resistance was no more than the death throes of a lost cause.—Based on W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 6, ch. 9, with footnote, bk. 7, ch. 13-14.

ALSO IN: G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 2, ch. 15-16.—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on the history of Rome*, v. 2, lectures 83-84.

B. C. 88-78.—Rivalry of Marius and Sulla.—War with Mithradates.—Civil War.—Successive proscriptions and reigns of terror.—Sulla's dictatorship.—The political diseases of which the Roman republic was dying made quick progress in the generation that passed between the murder of Caius Gracchus and the Social War. The Roman rabble which was nominally sovereign and the oligarchy which ruled actually, by combined bribery and browbeating of the populace, had both been worse corrupted and debased by the increasing flow of tribute and plunder from provinces and subject states. Rome had familiarized itself with mob violence, and the old respect for authority and for law was dead. The soldier with an army at his back need not stand any longer in awe of the fasces of a tribune or a consul. It was a natural consequence of that state of things that the two foremost soldiers of the time, Caius Marius and L. Cornelius Sulla (or Sylla, as often written,) should become the recognized chiefs of the two opposing factions of the day. Marius was old, his military glory was waning, he had enjoyed six consulships and coveted a seventh; Sulla was in the prime of life, just fairly beginning to show his surpassing capabilities and entering on his real career. Marius was a plebeian of plebeians and rude in all his tastes; Sulla came from the great Cornelian gens, and refined a little the dissoluteness of his life by studies of Greek letters and philosophy. Marius was sullenly jealous; Sulla was resolutely ambitious. A new war, which promised great prizes to ambition and cupidity, alike, was breaking out in the east,—the war with Mithradates. Both Marius and Sulla aspired to the command in it; but Sulla had been elected one of the consuls for the year 88 B. C. and, by custom and law, would have the conduct of the war assigned to him. Marius, however, intrigued with the demagogues and leaders of the mob, and brought about a turbulent demonstration and popular vote, by which he could claim to be appointed to lead the forces of the state against Mithradates. Sulla fled to his army, in camp at Nola, and laid his case before the officers and men. The former, for the most part, shrank from opposing themselves to Rome; the latter had no scruples and demanded to be led against the Roman mob. Sulla took them at their word, and marched them straight to the city. For the first

time in its history (by no means the last) the great capital was forcibly entered by one of its own armies. There was some resistance, but not much. Sulla paralyzed his opponents by his energy, and by a threat to burn the city if it did not submit. Marius and his chief partisans fled. Sulla contented himself with outlawing twelve, some of whom were taken and put to death. Marius, himself, escaped to Africa, after many strange adventures, in the story of which there is romance unquestionably mixed. Sulla (with his colleague in harmony with him) fulfilled the year of his consulate at Rome and then departed for Greece to conduct the war against Mithradates. In doing so, he certainly knew that he was giving up the government to his enemies; but he trusted his future in a remarkable way, and the necessity, for Rome, of confronting Mithradates was imperative. The departure of Sulla was the signal for fresh disorders at Rome. Cinna, one of the new consuls, was driven from the city, and became the head of a movement which appealed to the "new citizens," as they were called, or the "Italian party"—the allies who had been enfranchised as the result of the Social War. Marius came back from exile to join it. Sertorius and Carbo were other leaders who played important parts. Presently there were four armies beleaguering Rome, and after some unsuccessful resistance the gates were opened to them, by order of the Roman senate. Cinna, the consul, was nominally restored to authority, but Marius was really supreme, and Marius was implacable in his sullen rage. Rome was treated like a conquered city. The public and private enemies of Marius and of all who chose to call themselves Marians, were hunted down and slain. To stop the massacre, at last, Sertorius—the best of the new masters of Rome—was forced to turn his soldiers against the bands of the assassins and to slaughter several thousands of them. Then some degree of order was restored and there was the quiet in Rome of a city of the dead. The next year Marius realized his ambition for a seventh consulship, but died before the end of the first month of it. Meantime, Sulla devoted himself steadily to the war against Mithradates (see MITHRADATIC WARS), watching from afar the sinister course of events at Rome, and making no sign. It was not until the spring of 83 B.C., four years after his departure from Italy and three years after the death of Marius, that he was ready to return and settle accounts with his enemies. On landing with his army in Italy he was joined speedily by Pompey, Crassus, and other important chiefs. Cinna had been killed by mutinous soldiers; Carbo and young Marius were the leaders of the "Italian party." There was a fierce battle at Sacriportus, near Praeneste, with young Marius, and a second with Carbo at Clusium. Later, there was another furious fight with the Samnites, under the walls of Rome, at the Colline Gate, where 50,000 of the combatants fell. Then Sulla was master of Rome. Every one of his suspected friends in the senate had been butchered by the last orders of young Marius. His retaliation was not slow; but he pursued it with a horrible deliberation. He made lists, to be posted in public, of men who were marked for death and whom anybody might slay. There are differing accounts of the number doomed by this proscription; according to one annalist the death-roll was swelled to 4,700 before the reign of terror ceased. Sulla ruled as a conqueror until it pleased him to take an official title, when he commanded the people to elect him dic-

tator, for such term as he might judge to be fit. They obeyed. As dictator, he proceeded to remodel the Roman constitution by a series of laws which were adopted at his command. One of these laws enfranchised 10,000 slaves and made them citizens. Another took away from the tribunes a great part of their powers; allowed none but members of the senate to be candidates for the office, and no person once a tribune to hold a curule office. Others reconstructed the senate, adding 300 new members to its depleted ranks, and restored to it the judicial function which C. Gracchus had transferred to the knights; they also restored to it the initiative in legislation. Having remodeled the Roman government to his liking, Sulla astounded his friends and enemies by suddenly laying down his dictatorial powers and retiring to private life at his villa, near Puteoli, on the Bay of Naples. There he wrote his memoirs, which have been lost, and gave himself up to the life of pleasure which was even dearer to him than the life of power. But he enjoyed it scarcely a year, when he died, 78 B.C. His body, taken to Rome, was burned with pomp.—Based on G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 2, ch. 17-29.

ALSO IN: W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 7, ch. 15-23.—Plutarch, *Marius and Sulla*.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 9-10.—C. Merivale, *Fall of the Roman republic*, ch. 4-5.

B. C. 87-86.—Siege and capture of Athens by Sulla. See ATHENS: B. C. 87-86.

B. C. 80.—Throne of Egypt bequeathed to the republic by Ptolemy Alexander. See EGYPT: B. C. 80-48.

B. C. 78.—Attempt to conquer Isaurians. See ISAUFIANS.

B. C. 78-68.—Danger from legionaries.—Rising power of Pompey.—Attempt of Lepidus.—Pompey against Sertorius in Spain.—Insurrection of Spartacus and the gladiators.—Second Mithradatic War, and war in Armenia.—"The Roman legionary, . . . drawn from the dregs of the populace, and quartered through the best years of his life in Greece and Asia, in Spain and Gaul, lived solely upon his pay, enhanced by extortion or plunder. His thirst of rapine grew upon him. He required his chiefs to indulge him with the spoil of cities and provinces; and when a foreign enemy was not at hand, he was tempted to turn against the subjects of the state, or, if need be, against the state itself. . . . Marius and Sulla, Cinna and Carbo had led the forces of Rome against Rome herself. . . . The problem which thus presented itself to the minds of patriots—how, namely, to avert the impending dissolution of their polity under the blows of their own defenders—was indeed an anxious and might well appear a hopeless one. It was to the legions only that they could trust, and the legions were notoriously devoted to their chiefs. . . . The triumph of Sulla had been secured by the accession to his side of Pompeius Strabo, the commander of a large force quartered in Italy. These troops had transferred their obedience to a younger Pompeius, the son of their late leader. Under his auspices they had gained many victories; they had put down the Marian faction, headed by Carbo, in Sicily, and had finally secured the ascendancy of the senate on the shores of Africa. Sulla had evinced some jealousy of their captain, who was young in years, and as yet had not risen above the rank of Eques; but when Pompeius led his victorious legions back to Italy, the people rose in the greatest enthusiasm to welcome him, and

the dictator, yielding to their impetuosity, had granted him a triumph and hailed him with the title of 'Magnus.' Young as he was, he became at once, on the abdication of Sulla, the greatest power in the commonwealth. This he soon caused to be known and felt. The lead of the senatorial party had now fallen to Q. Lutatius Catulus and M. Æmilius Lepidus, the heads of two of the oldest and noblest families of Rome. The election of these chiefs to the consulship for the year 676 of the city (B. C. 78) seemed to secure for the time the ascendancy of the nobles, and the maintenance of Sulla's oligarchical constitution bequeathed to their care. . . . But there were divisions within the party itself which seemed to seize the opportunity for breaking forth. Lepidus was inflamed with ambition to create a faction of his own, and imitate the career of the usurpers before him. . . . But he had miscalculated his strength. Pompeius disavowed him, and lent the weight of his popularity and power to the support of Catulus; and the senate hoped to avert an outbreak by engaging both the consuls by an oath to abstain from assailing each other. During the remainder of his term of office Lepidus refrained from action; but as soon as he reached his province, the Narbonensis in Gaul, he developed his plans, summoned to his standard the Marians, who had taken refuge in great numbers in that region, and invoked the aid of the Italians, with the promise of restoring to them the lands of which they had been dispossessed by Sulla's veterans. With the aid of M. Junius Brutus, who commanded in the Cisalpine, he made an inroad into Etruria, and called upon the remnant of its people, who had been decimated by Sulla, to rise against the faction of their oppressors. The senate, now thoroughly alarmed, charged Catulus with its defence; the veterans, restless and dissatisfied with their fields and farms, crowded to the standard of Pompeius. Two Roman armies met near the Milvian bridge, a few miles to the north of the city, and Lepidus received a check, which was again and again repeated, till he was driven to flee into Sardinia, and there perished shortly afterwards of fever. Pompeius pursued Brutus into the Cisalpine. . . . The remnant of Lepidus' troops was carried over to Spain by Perperna, and there swelled the forces of an abler leader of the same party, Q. Sertorius." Sertorius had established himself strongly in Spain, and aspired to the founding of an independent state; but after a prolonged struggle he was overcome by Pompeius and assassinated by traitors in his own ranks. (See SPAIN: B. C. 83-72.) "Pompeius had thus recovered a great province for the republic at the moment when it seemed on the point of being lost through the inefficiency of one of the senatorial chiefs. Another leader of the dominant party was about to yield him another victory. A war was raging in the heart of Italy. A body of gladiators had broken away from their confinement at Capua under the lead of Spartacus, a Thracian captive, had seized a large quantity of arms, and had made themselves a retreat or place of defence in the crater of Mount Vesuvius. [See SPARTACUS.] . . . The consuls were directed to lead the legions against them, but were ignominiously defeated B. C. 72. In the absence of Pompeius in Spain and of Lucullus in the East, M. Crassus was the most prominent among the chiefs of the party in power. This illustrious noble was a man of great influence, acquired more by his wealth, for which he obtained the surname of Dives, than for any marked ability in the field or

in the forum; but he had a large following of clients and dependents, who . . . now swelled the cry for placing a powerful force under his orders, and entrusting to his hands the deliverance of Italy. The brigands themselves were becoming demoralized by lack of discipline. Crassus drove them before him to the extremity of the peninsula. . . . Spartacus could only save a remnant of them by furiously breaking through the lines of his assailants. This brave gladiator was still formidable, and it was feared that Rome itself might be exposed to his desperate attack. The senate sent importunate messages to recall both Pompeius and Lucullus to its defence. . . . Spartacus had now become an easy prey, and the laurels were quickly won with which Pompeius was honoured by his partial countrymen. Crassus was deeply mortified, and the senate itself might feel some alarm at the redoubled triumphs of a champion of whose loyalty it was not secure. But the senatorial party had yet another leader, and a man of more ability than Crassus, at the head of another army. The authority of Pompeius in the western provinces was balanced in the East by that of L. Licinius Lucullus, who commanded the forces of the republic in the struggle which she was still maintaining against Mithradates. . . . The military successes of Lucullus fully justified the choice of the government. He expelled Mithradates from all the dominions which he claimed, and drove him to take refuge with the king of Armenia. The kingdom of Armenia under Tigranes III. was at the height of its power when Clodius, the brother-in-law of Lucullus, then serving under him, was despatched to the royal residence at Tigranocerta to demand the surrender of Mithradates. . . . The capital of Armenia was well defended by its position among the mountains and the length and severity of its winter season. It was necessary to strike once for all [69 B. C.]. Lucullus had a small but well-trained and well-appointed army of veterans. Tigranes surrounded and encumbered himself with a vast cloud of undisciplined barbarians, the flower of whom, consisting of 17,000 mailed cavalry, however formidable in appearance, made but a feeble resistance to the dint of the Roman spear and broadsword. When their ranks were broken they fell back upon the inert masses behind them, and threw them into hopeless confusion. Tigranes made his escape with dastardly precipitation. A bloody massacre ensued. . . . In the following year Lucullus advanced his posts still further eastward. . . . But a spirit of discontent or lassitude had crept over his own soldiers. . . . He was constrained to withdraw from the siege of Artaxata, the furthest stronghold of Tigranes, on the banks of the Araxes, and after crowning his victories with a successful assault upon Nisibis, he gave the signal for retreat, leaving the destruction of Mithradates still unaccomplished. Meanwhile the grave proconsul's enemies were making head against him at Rome."—C. Merivale, *Roman triumvirates*, ch. 1.—"After Sulla had made peace with Mithradates, 84 B. C., his successor to the command in the East provoked the king of Pontus to a second war [83-81]. Peace was soon restored by order of Sulla. While Rome was fighting Sertorius in Spain, Mithradates made ready for a new war. He allied himself with the powerful king of Armenia, and won to his support the barbarian tribes along the northern coast of the Black Sea. In 74 B. C., the king of Bithynia died, leaving his realm as a legacy to Rome. It was at once made a province. This event provoked the king of

Pontus to war, as he himself coveted that territory. Mithridates commanded a powerful fleet and army, but opposed to him was the consul Lucius Lucullus, a remarkably skilful general, at the head of five legions. Lucullus first expelled the enemy's forces from the provinces of Asia and Bithynia, and then invaded Pontus. With little fighting he drove Mithridates from his kingdom. The fugitive took refuge with his son-in-law Tigranes, king of Armenia. With a few troops Lucullus marched boldly into Armenia and defeated a greatly superior force of Tigranes. He might have conquered the kingdom; but his troops mutinied and compelled him to retreat. Mithridates returned to Pontus, and Lucullus lost nearly all the territory he had gained (66 B.C.). Had the Romans supported Lucullus, he would doubtless soon have overthrown Mithridates. But many thought Pompey the only man able to conquer this great enemy. The tribune Manilius, accordingly, carried a law which gave the command in the East to Pompey in addition to the power he already had. He easily drove the king from Pontus, the most of which he joined to the new province of Bithynia. Mithridates was afterward killed, at his own request, by a Gallic mercenary. [See also MITHRADATIC WARS.] Pompey then invaded Armenia and received the submission of Tigranes. The latter had conquered Syria and other neighboring countries, but was now obliged to give up everything outside his native kingdom. In 64 B.C. Pompey entered Syria and made a province of it. This was the end of the Seleucid Empire. As the Jews were unwilling to submit, he besieged Jerusalem, and after three months took it while the inhabitants were keeping the Sabbath. In the temple he intruded within the 'Holy of Holies,' a shrine which none but the high priest could enter. But he left the temple unlooted, and in other ways he respected the native religion. Jerusalem retained its self-government under a high priest who was friendly to Rome. Pompey attended conscientiously to the organization of the East. The new provinces thus far mentioned were Cilicia, Bithynia, and Syria. Crete, too, became a province. [See CRETE: B.C. 68-66.] A few small kingdoms remained in and about Asia Minor; their rulers, though allies in name, were really vassals of Rome. With the great Parthian empire beyond the Euphrates he made a treaty of friendship. These arrangements were all admirable. With her dependent allies and her provinces, Rome now occupied the entire circuit of the Mediterranean."—G. W. Botsford, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 430-432.—See also SIDON.

ALSO IN: Plutarch, *Pompeius Magnus*.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 2, ch. 30-33, v. 3, ch. 1-5.—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy*, ch. 10.

B. C. 70.—Capture of Heraclea Pontica in Third Mithradatic War. See HERACLEA PONTICA.

B. C. 69-63.—Drift towards revolution.—Pompey in the East.—His extraordinary commission.—His enlargement of the Roman dominions.—His power.—Ambitions and projects of Cæsar.—Consulship of Cicero.—"To a superficial observer, at the close of the year 70 B.C., it might possibly have seemed that the republic had been given a new lease of life. . . . And, indeed, for two or three years this promising condition of things continued. The years 69 and 68 B.C. must have been tolerably quiet ones, for our authorities have very little to tell us of them. . . . Had a

single real statesman appeared on the scene at this moment, or even if the average senator or citizen had been possessed of some honesty and insight, it was not impossible that the government might have been carried on fairly well even under republican forms. But there was no leading statesman of a character suited to raise the whole tone of politics; and there was no general disposition on the part of either Senate or people to make the best of the lull in the storm, to repair damages, or to set the ship on her only true course. So the next few years show her fast drifting in the direction of revolution; and the current that bore her was not a local one, or visible to the eye of the ordinary Roman, but one of world-wide force, whose origin and direction could only be perceived by the highest political intelligence. It was during these years that Cæsar was quietly learning the business of government, both at home and in the provinces. . . . Cæsar was elected quæstor in 69 B.C., and served the office in the following year. It fell to him to begin his acquaintance with government in the province of Further Spain [see SPAIN: B.C. 61], and thus began his lifelong connection with the peoples of the West. . . . On his return to Rome, which must have taken place about the beginning of 67 B.C., Cæsar was drawn at once into closer connection with the man who, during the next twenty years, was to be his friend, his rival, and his enemy. Pompeius was by this time tired of a quiet life. . . . Both to him and his friends, it seemed impossible to be idle any longer. There was real and abundant reason for the employment of the ablest soldier of the day. The audacity of the pirates was greater than ever [see CILICIA, PIRATES OF]. Lucullus, too, in Asia, had begun to meet with disasters, and was unable, with his troops in a mutinous temper, to cope with the combined forces of the kings of Armenia and Pontus. . . . In this year, 67 B.C., a bill was proposed by a tribune, Gabinius, in the assembly of the plebs, in spite of opposition in the Senate, giving Pompeius exactly that extensive power against the pirates which he himself desired, and which was really necessary if the work was to be done swiftly and completely. He was to have exclusive command for three years over the whole Mediterranean, and over the resources of the provinces and dependent states. For fifty miles inland in every province bordering on these seas—i.e., in the whole Empire—he was to exercise an authority equal to that of the existing provincial governor. He was to have almost unlimited means of raising both fleets and armies, and was to nominate his own staff of twenty-five 'legati' (lieutenant-generals), who were all to have the rank of prætor. Nor was this all; for it was quite understood that this was only part of a plan which was to place him at the head of the armies in Asia Minor, superseding the able but now discredited Lucullus. In fact, by another law of Gabinius, Lucullus was recalled, and his command given to one of the consuls of the year, neither of whom, as was well known, was likely to wield it with the requisite ability. Whichever consul it might be he would only be recognised as keeping the place warm for Pompeius. . . . Pompeius left Rome in the spring of 67 B.C., rapidly cleared the seas of piracy, and in the following year superseded Lucullus in the command of the war against Mithridates [with the powers given him by the Gabinian Law prolonged and extended by another, known as the Manilian Law]. He did not return till the begin-

ning of 61 B. C. At first sight it might seem as though his absence should have cleared the air, and left the political leaders at Rome a freer hand. But the power and the resources voted him, and the unprecedented success with which he used them, made him in reality as formidable to the parties at home as he was to the peoples of the East. He put an end at last to the power of Mithridates, received the submission of Tigranes of Armenia, and added to the Roman dominion the greater part of the possessions of both these kings. The sphere of Roman influence now for the first time reached the river Euphrates, and the Empire was brought into contact with the great Parthian kingdom beyond it. Asia Minor became wholly Roman, with the exception of some part of the interior, which obedient kinglets were allowed to retain. Syria was made a Roman province. [See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 64; Syria: B. C. 64-63.] Pompeius took Jerusalem, and added Judæa to Syria [see JEWS: B. C. 166-40]. . . . The man to whom all this was due became at once the leading figure in the world. It became clear that when his career of conquest was over yet another task would devolve on him, if he chose to accept it—the re-organisation of the central government at Rome. . . . His gathered power overhung the state like an avalanche ready to fall; and in the possible path of an avalanche it is waste of time and labour to build any solid work. So these years, for Cæsar as for the rest, are years of plotting and intrigue on one side, and of half-hearted government on the other. . . . He was elected to the curule ædileship—the next above the quæstorship in the series of magistracies—and entered on his office on January 1, 65 B. C. . . . Cæsar's political connection with Crassus at this time is by no means clear. The two were sailing the same course, and watching Pompeius with the same anxiety; but there could not have been much in common between them, and they were in fact rapidly getting in each other's way. The great money-lender, however, must have been in the main responsible for the enormous expenditure which Cæsar risked in his ædileship and the next three years. . . . At the close of the year 64 B. C., on the accession to office of a new board of tribunes, . . . an agrarian bill on a vast scale was promulgated by the tribune Servilius Rullus. The two most startling features of this were: first, the creation of a board of ten to carry out its provisions, each member of which was to be invested with military and judicial powers like those of the consuls and prætors; and secondly, the clauses which entrusted this board with enormous financial resources, to be raised by the public sale of all the territories and property acquired since the year 88 B. C., together with the booty and revenues now in the hands of Pompeius. The bill included, as its immediate object, a huge scheme of colonisation for Italy, on the lines of the Gracchan agrarian bills. . . . But it was really an attack on the weak fortress of senatorial government, in order to turn out its garrison, and occupy and fortify it in the name of the democratic or Marian party, against the return of the new Sulla, which was now thought to be imminent. The bill may also have had another and secondary object—namely, to force the hand of the able and ambitious consul [Cicero] who would come into office on January 1, 63; at any rate it succeeded in doing this, though it succeeded in nothing else. Cicero's great talent and the courage and skill with which he had so far for

the most part used them, had made him already a considerable power in Rome; but no one knew for certain to which party he would finally attach himself. . . . On the very first day of his office he attacked the bill in the Senate and exposed its real intention, and showed plainly that his policy was to convert Pompeius into a pillar of the constitution, and to counteract all democratic plots directed against him. . . . Whether it was his eloquence, or the people's indifference, that caused the bill to be dropped, can only be matter of conjecture; but it was withdrawn at once by its proposer, and the whole scheme fell through. This was Cicero's first and only real victory over Cæsar. . . . It was about this time, in the spring of 63 B. C., that the office of Pontifex Maximus became vacant by the death of old Metellus Pius, and Cæsar at once took steps to secure it for himself. The chances in his favour were small, but the prize was a tempting one. Success would place him at the head of the whole Roman religious system. . . . He was eligible, for he had already been for several years one of the college of pontifices, but as the law of election stood, a man so young and so democratic would have no chance against candidates like the venerable conservative leader Catulus, and Cæsar's own old commander in the East, Servilius Isauricus, both of whom were standing. Sulla's law, which placed the election in the hands of the college itself—a law framed expressly to exclude persons of Cæsar's stamp—must be repealed, and the choice vested once more in the people. The useful tribune Labienus was again set to work, the law was passed, and on March 6th Cæsar was elected by a large majority. . . . The latter part of this memorable year was occupied with a last and desperate attempt of the democratic party to possess themselves of the state power while there was yet time to forestall Pompeius. This is the famous conspiracy of Catalina; it was an attack of the left wing on the senatorial position, and the real leaders of the democracy took no open or active part in it."—W. W. Fowler, *Julius Cæsar*, ch. 4-5.

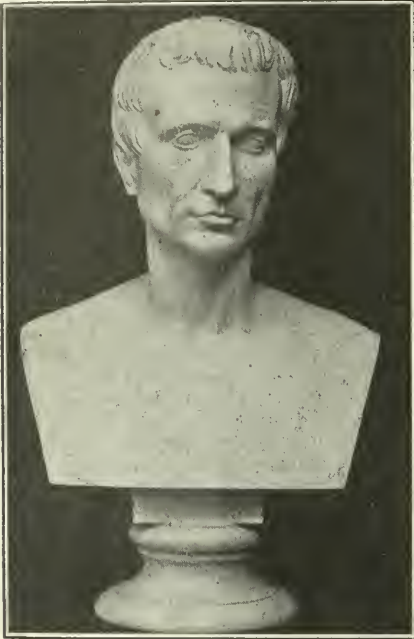
ALSO IN: J. A. Froude, *Cæsar*, ch. 10.—Suetonius, *Lives of the twelve Cæsars: Julius*, sect. 7-13.—C. Middleton, *Life of Cicero*, sect. 2.

B. C. 63.—Conspiracy of Catiline.—The conspiracy organized against the senatorial government of Rome by L. Sergius Catilina, 63 B. C., owes much of its prominence in Roman history to the preservation of the great speeches in which Cicero exposed it [see LATIN LITERATURE: B. C. 82-43], and by which he rallied the Roman people to support him in putting it down. Cicero was consul that year, and the official responsibility of the government was on his shoulders. The central conspirators were a desperate, disreputable clique of men, who had everything to gain and nothing to lose by revolution. Behind them were all the discontents and malignant tempers of demoralized and disorganized Rome; and still behind these were suspected to be, darkly hidden, the secret intrigues of men like Cæsar and Crassus, who watched and waited for the expiring breath of the dying republic. Cicero, having made a timely discovery of the plot, managed the disclosure of it with great adroitness and won the support of the people to his proceedings against the conspirators. Catiline made his escape from Rome and placed himself at the head of a small army which his supporters had raised in Etruria; but he and it were both destroyed in the single battle fought. Five of his fellow conspirators were hastily put

to death without trial, by being strangled in the Tullianum.—Based on W. Forsyth, *Life of Cicero*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: A. Trollope, *Life of Cicero*, ch. 9.—A. J. Church, *Roman life in the days of Cicero*, ch. 7.—Cicero, *Orations* (tr. by C. D. Yonge), v. 2.

B. C. 63-58.—Increasing disorders in the capital.—Wasted opportunities of Pompey.—His alliance with Cæsar and Crassus.—First triumvirate.—Cæsar's consulship.—His appointment to the command in Cisalpine Gaul.—Exile of Cicero.—“Recent events had fully demonstrated the impotence of both the Senate and the democratic party; neither was strong enough to defeat the other or to govern the State. There was no third party—no class remaining out of which a government might be erected; the only alternative was monarchy—the rule of a single person. Who the monarch would be was still uncertain; though,



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at the present moment, Pompeius was clearly the only man in whose power it lay to take up the crown that offered itself. . . . For the moment the question which agitated all minds was whether Pompeius would accept the gift offered him by fortune, or would retire and leave the throne vacant. . . . In the autumn of 63 B.C. Quintus Metellus Nepos arrived in the capital from the camp of Pompeius, and got himself elected tribune with the avowed purpose of procuring for Pompeius the command against Catilina by special decree and afterwards the consulship for 61 B.C. . . . The aristocracy at once showed their hostility to the proposals of Metellus, and Cato had himself elected tribune expressly for the purpose of thwarting him. But the democrats were more pliant, and it was soon evident that they had come to a cordial understanding with the general's emissary. Metellus and his master both adopted the democratic view of the illegal executions [for the Catilinarians]; and the first act of Cæsar's prætorship was to call Catulus to account for the

moneys alleged to have been embezzled by him in rebuilding the Capitoline temple and to transfer the superintendence of the works to Pompeius. . . . On the day of voting, Cato and another of the tribunes put their veto upon the proposals of Metellus, who disregarded it. There were conflicts of the armed bands of both sides, which terminated in favour of the government. The Senate followed up the victory by suspending Metellus and Cæsar from their offices. Metellus immediately departed for the camp of Pompeius; and when Cæsar disregarded the decree of suspension against himself, the Senate had ultimately to revoke it. Nothing could have been more favourable to the interests of Pompeius than these late events. After the illegal executions of the Catilinarians, and the acts of violence against Metellus, he 'could appear at once as the defender of the two palladia of Roman liberty'—the right of appeal, and the inviolability of the tribunate,—and as the champion of the party of order against the Catilinarian band. But his courage was unequal to the emergency; he lingered in Asia during the winter of 63-62 B.C., and thus gave the Senate time to crush the insurrection in Italy, and deprived himself of a valid pretext for keeping his legions together. In the autumn of 62 B.C. he landed at Brundisium, and, disbanding his army, proceeded to Rome with a small escort. On his arrival in the city in 61 B.C. he found himself in a position of complete isolation; he was feared by the democrats, hated by the aristocracy, and distrusted by the wealthy class. He at once demanded for himself a second consulship, the confirmation of all his acts in the East, and the fulfilment of the promise he had made to his soldiers to furnish them with lands. But each of these demands was met with the most determined opposition. . . . His promise of lands to his soldiers was indeed ratified, but not executed, and no steps were taken to provide the necessary funds and lands. . . . From this disagreeable position, Pompeius was rescued by the sagacity and address of Cæsar, who saw in the necessities of Pompeius the opportunity of the democratic party. Ever since the return of Pompeius, Cæsar had grown rapidly in influence and weight. He had been prætor in 62 B.C., and, in 61, governor in Farther Spain, where he utilized his position to free himself from his debts, and to lay the foundation of the military position he desired for himself. Returning in 60 B.C., he readily relinquished his claim to a triumph, in order to enter the city in time to stand for the consulship. . . . It was quite possible that the aristocracy might be strong enough to defeat the candidature of Cæsar, as it had defeated that of Catilina; and again, the consulship was not enough; an extraordinary command, secured to him for several years, was necessary for the fulfilment of his purpose. Without allies such a command could not be hoped for; and allies were found where they had been found ten years before, in Pompeius and Crassus, and in the rich equestrian class. Such a treaty was suicide on the part of Pompeius; . . . but he had drifted into a situation so awkward that he was glad to be released from it on any terms. . . . The bargain was struck in the summer of 60 B.C. [forming what became known in Roman history as the First Triumvirate]. Cæsar was promised the consulship and a governorship afterwards; Pompeius, the ratification of his arrangements in the East, and land for his soldiers; Crassus received no definite equivalent, but the capitalists were promised a

remission of part of the money they had undertaken to pay for the lease of the Asiatic taxes. . . . Cæsar was easily elected consul for 59 B.C. All that the exertions of the Senate could do was to give him an aristocratic colleague in Marcus Bibulus. Cæsar at once proceeded to fulfil his obligations to Pompeius by proposing an agrarian law. All remaining Italian domain land, which meant practically the territory of Capua, was to be given up to allotments, and other estates in Italy were to be purchased out of the revenues of the new Eastern provinces. The soldiers were simply recommended to the commission, and thus the principle of giving rewards of land for military service was not asserted. The execution of the bill was to be entrusted to a commission of twenty. . . . At length all these proposals were passed by the assembly [after rejection by the senate], and the commission of twenty, with Pompeius and Crassus at their head, began the execution of the agrarian law. Now that the first victory was won, the coalition was able to carry out the rest of its programme without much difficulty. . . . It was determined by the confederates that Cæsar should be invested by decree of the people with a special command resembling that lately held by Pompeius. Accordingly the tribune Vatinius submitted to the tribes a proposal which was at once adopted. By it Cæsar obtained the governorship of Cisalpine Gaul, and the supreme command of the three legions stationed there for five years, with the rank of proprætor for his adjutants. His jurisdiction extended southwards as far as the Rubicon, and included Luca and Ravenna. Subsequently the province of Narbo was added by the Senate, on the motion of Pompeius. . . . Cæsar had hardly laid down his consulship when it was proposed, in the Senate, to annul the Julian laws. [See JULIAN LAWS.] . . . The regents determined to make examples of some of the most determined of their opponents. [Cicero was accordingly sent into exile, by a resolution of the tribes, and Cato was appointed to an odious public mission, which carried him out of the way, to Cyprus.]—T. Mommsen, *History of the Roman republic* (abridged by Bryans and Hendy), ch. 33.

ALSO IN: G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 3, ch. 17-20.—C. Middleton, *Life of Cicero*, sect. 4.—Napoleon III., *History of Julius Cæsar*, ch. 3-4.

B. C. 59.—Abolition of the *Ælian* and *Fufian* laws. See *ÆLIAN* AND *FUFIAN* LAWS.

B. C. 58.—Annexation of Cyprus. See *CYPRUS*: B. C. 58.

B. C. 58.—Conquest of Helvetian invaders. See *HELVETII*.

B. C. 58.—Control in Egypt. See *EGYPT*: B. C. 58-48.

B. C. 58-51.—Cæsar's conquest of Gaul. See *GAUL*: B. C. 58-51; *SUEVI*: B. C. 58.

B. C. 57.—Cæsar's campaign against Belgian confederation. See *BELGÆ*: B. C. 57.

B. C. 57-52.—Effect of Cæsar's Gallic victories.—Return of Cicero from exile.—New arrangements of triumvirs.—Cæsar's proconsulship extended.—Trebonian law.—Disaster and death of Crassus at Carrhæ.—Increasing anarchy in the city.—“In Rome the enemies of Cæsar . . . were awed into silence [by his victorious career in Gaul], and the Senate granted the unprecedented honour of fifteen days' ‘supplicatio’ to the gods for the brilliant successes in Gaul. Among the supporters of this motion was, as Cæsar learnt

in the winter from the magistrates and senators who came to pay court to him at Ravenna, M. Tullius Cicero. From the day of his exile the efforts to secure his return had begun, but it was not until the 4th of August that the Senate, led by the consul, P. Lentulus Spinther, carried the motion for his return, in spite of the violence of the armed gang of Clodius, and summoned all the country tribes to crowd the comitia on Campus Martius, and ratify the senatus consultum. The return of the great orator to the country which he had saved in the terrible days of 63 B.C. was more like a triumph than the entrance of a pardoned criminal. . . . But he had come back on sufferance; the great Three must be conciliated. . . . Cicero, like many other optimates in Rome, was looking for the beginnings of a breach between Pompeius, Crassus and Cæsar, and was anxious to nourish any germs of opposition to the triple-headed monarchy. He pleaded against Cæsar's friend Vatinius, and he gave notice of a motion for checking the action of the agrarian law in Campania. But these signs of an independent opposition were suddenly terminated by a humiliating recantation; for before entering upon his third campaign Cæsar crossed the Apennines, and appeared at the Roman colony of Lucca. Two hundred senators crowded to the rendezvous, but arrangements were made by the Three very independently of Senate in Rome or Senate in Lucca. It was agreed that Pompeius and Crassus should hold a joint consulship again next year, and before the expiration of Cæsar's five years they were to secure his reappointment for another five. . . . Unfortunate Cicero was awed, and in his other speeches of this year tried to win the favor of the great men by supporting their proposed provincial arrangements, and pleading in defence of Cæsar's friend and protégé, L. Balbus. [In the year 55 B.C. the Trebonian law was passed], which gave to Crassus and Pompeius, as preconsular provinces, Syria and Spain, for the extraordinary term of five years. In this repeated creation of extraordinary powers in favor of the coalition of dynasts, Cato rightly saw an end of republican institutions. . . . Crassus . . . started in 54 B.C., at the head of seven legions, in face of the combined opposition of tribunes and augurs, to secure the eastern frontier of Roman dominion by vanquishing the Parthian power [see *PARTHIA*], which, reared on the ruins of the kingdom of the Seleucids, was now supreme in Ctesiphon and Seleucia. Led into the desert by the Arab Sheikh Abgarus, acting as a traitor, the Roman army was surrounded by the fleet Parthian horsemen, who could attack and retreat, shooting their showers of missiles all the time. In the blinding sand and sun of the desert near Carrhæ [on the river Belik, one of the branches of the Euphrates, the supposed site of the Haran of Biblical history], Crassus experienced a defeat which took its rank with Cannæ and the Arausio. A few days afterwards (June 9th, 53 B.C.) he was murdered in a conference to which the commander of the Parthian forces invited him. . . . The shock of this event went through the Roman world, and though Cassius, the lieutenant of Crassus, retrieved the honour of the Roman arms against the Parthians in the following year, the agile people remained to the last unconquered, and the Roman boundary was never to advance further to the east. Crassus, then, was dead, and Pompeius, though he lent Cæsar a legion at the beginning of the year, was more ready to assume the natural

antagonism to Cæsar, since the death of his wife Julia in September, 54 B. C., had broken a strong tie with his father-in-law. Further, the condition of the capital seemed reaching a point of anarchy at which Pompeius, as the only strong man on the spot, would have to be appointed absolute dictator."—R. F. Horton, *History of the Romans*, ch. 29.

ALSO IN: W. Forsyth, *Life of Cicero*, v. 1-2, ch.

13-16.—C. Merivale, *Roman triumvirates*, ch. 5.—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy*, ch. 11.

B. C. 55.—Overthrow of Usipetes and Tenctheri by Cæsar. See USIPETES AND TENCOTHERI.

B. C. 55-54.—Cæsar's invasions of Britain. See BRITAIN: B. C. 55-54.

B. C. 54-53.—Destruction of Eburones tribe. See EBURONES.

